

Review of International literature on appropriate institutional forms for lifelong learning

Department of Higher Education and Training

Task team on community education and training centres

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Terms of Reference

This report is a short review of the international literature on appropriate institutional forms for youth and adult education that might have a bearing on the establishment of Community Education and Training Centres (CETCs) in South Africa.

The Terms of Reference for this review highlighted the need to consider alternative institutional forms for service to adults and youth in both developed and developing countries and suggested a special focus on the United States of America, the Scandinavian countries and South Korea (among the developed countries) and Brazil, Russia, India, and China (the so-called BRIC countries) and on Botswana amongst the developing countries.

The review, in looking at the adult education systems in these countries and the institutional forms they have that might be appropriate for the South African context, was asked to consider the following aspects of institutional models:

- Distinctiveness and uniqueness of institutional forms providing education and training to out-of-school youth and adults in relation to other institutional types (universities, technikons, Further and Vocational Education and Training colleges, other single- and multi-purpose colleges, adult learning centres, and schools)
- Articulation with other educational institutions
- Institutional governance arrangements
- Human resource management: institutional management, support staff, and academic staff
- Qualifications, and the Qualifications Authority (i.e., National Qualifications Framework (NQF)-equivalent) levels at which they are offered
- Learning programme provision (including diversity of programmes) leading to the achievement of these qualifications
- Modes of learning programme delivery (including contact versus distance, full-time versus part-time, the mix of theoretical and practical components, simulated or workplace based experience).
- Student assessment policies and practices
- Quality assurance: institutional and programmatic
- Relationships with and service to communities, business and industry (including graduate placement programmes)
- The provision of lifelong learning opportunities
- Institutional funding arrangements
- Tuition and other related fees.

Introduction

South Africa has a massive need for adult education (which in the highly industrialised countries is actually appropriated most by the well educated) to serve that huge portion of the South African population which has not benefited (at all or fully) from initial formal schooling and post school education and training. This portion comprises youth and older adults, rural and urban people, the poor, the unemployed, and a more organised constituency in trades unions. Hence there is a continuing need for adult education policies and provision that genuinely relate to more general strategies of political and economic development that seek to transform and modernise South Africa and address 'race', sex, class and regional imbalances.

What is adult education?

It is very difficult to define "adult education". The difficulty is increased by the confusion and profusion of the vocabulary used to describe the totality of facilities and activities that exist to meet the needs of adult learners, including young people over the age of 15..

Is the task of definition helped by listing the types of activities that could in some way be seen as being adult education?

adult education
adult basic education
adult literacy
adult secondary education
agricultural extension
andragogy
armed forces education
business education
career education
citizenship education
commercial education
community education
community development
community college
compensatory education
computer literacy
conscientisation
consumer education
continuing professional education
continuing education
continuous learning
co-operative education
co-operative extension

correspondence education
development education
distance education
education of adults
environmental education
extension education
extramural studies
family literacy
financial education
further education
further training
health education
high school equivalency programme
human relations training
human resource development
in-service education
in-company training
industrial training
informal education
leadership training
leisure education
liberal adult education
library extension

lifelong education
 lifelong learning
 management education
 night school
 non-formal education
 non-traditional study
 open learning
 open university
 open school
 organisational development
 outreach
 parent education
 part-time study
 political education
 post-experience education
 prison education

professional development
 professional training
 recurrent education
 refresher education
 religious education
 rural education
 second-chance education
 sensitivity training
 sex education
 trade union education
 university extension
 vocational education and training
 women's education
 worker education
 youth and adult education

It may be that adult education is all of these or that adult education plays (or could play) a part in all of these. Considered together they make adult education a very big field – virtually everything that is not clearly and narrowly definable as time limited, initial, formal schooling (pre-, general (primary or basic) and secondary), further education, and higher education (or tertiary or post-secondary) such as takes place in universities, universities of technology, further education and training colleges, and colleges of nursing, policing, and agriculture (and previously teacher training colleges).

Defining adult education by listing a range of educational activities is useful in showing that “adult education” comprises a major section of educational activity in our society. In advanced industrial nations such as the United States of America the sheer size of the broad adult education field can be seen in the fact that the cost of training and development in the business and industrial sector now matches that spent on formal initial education.

Formal answers on what adult education is can range from **any education given to people considered to be adults** (as in the famous UNESCO definition of adult education adopted at Nairobi in 1976) (which would include much university and further education college) to **literacy work**. Literacy work is often spoken of as if it was the whole of adult education (as in the Freedom Charter where the only reference to other than formal education is the statement that “there shall be a mass literacy campaign”). UNESCO terminology complicates the issue because their international statistics on education take anybody over the age of 15 as being an adult (a decision itself based on the assumption that in most of the world compulsory schooling tends to end at this age). At the same time there has been an opposite tendency to not include young people in consideration of adult education provision because of the assumption that they can somehow avail themselves of the existing formal education provision. Hence the recent tendency, particularly in Africa to talk about Youth and Adult Education to include **both** older adults and young people who are definitely out-of-school or out-of-further or out-of-tertiary education but need continuing education and training. The latter group is the subject of growing national and international concern because of the reality of the huge numbers of youth who are “Not Employed or in Education and Training” (the NEETs) who are seen as a potential source of political and economic instability.

What is clear is that the complexity of the field makes it difficult to make sense of the myriad of institutional forms of the governance, administration and provision of youth and adult education and in identifying those forms which would be of interest in developing a more effective youth and adult education system (or systems) in South Africa. To ensure sound coverage this report will therefore look at institutions and programmes that cater for both the “youth” and the “mature adult” constituencies – not that this distinction is particularly prominent in the literature.

Definitions

Definitions of adult education and related concepts

Adult education “denotes the entire body of organised educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adult by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development, adult education, however, must not be considered as an entity in itself, it is a sub-division, and an integral part of, a global scheme for life-long education and learning.”

(From the Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education, UNESCO, 1976, p. 2)

Lifelong education and learning “denotes an overall scheme aimed both at restructuring the existing education system and at developing the entire educational potential outside the education system in such a scheme men and women are the agents of their own education, through continual interaction between their thoughts and actions; education and learning, far from being limited to a period of attendance at school, should extend throughout life, include all skills and branches of knowledge, use all possible means, and give opportunity to all people for full development of the personality; the educational and learning processes in which children, young people and adults of all ages are involved in the course of their lives, in whatever form, should be considered as a whole.”

(From the Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education, UNESCO, 1976, p. 2)

Adult learning encompasses both formal and continuing education, non-formal learning and the spectrum of informal and incidental learning available in a multicultural learning society, where theory- and practice-based approaches are recognised.

(From the Hamburg Declaration, UNESCO Institute for Education, 1997, p. 1)

Non-formal education, contrary impressions notwithstanding, does not constitute a distinct and separate educational system, parallel to the formal education system. It is any organized, systematic, educational activity, carried on outside the framework of the formal system, to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children. Thus defined, non-formal education includes, for example, agricultural extension and farmer training programmes, adult literacy programmes, occupational skill training given outside the formal system, youth clubs with substantial educational purposes, and various community programs of instruction in health, nutrition, family planning, cooperatives, and the like.

(Coombs and Ahmed, 1974, p. 8)

Learning activities in the workplace

In the context of learning activities in the workplace:

- **education** prepares employees for future, well defined jobs in the organisation
- **training** usually aims to improve performance in a present job and has clear behavioural objectives and a systematic design
- **development** is about the learning that leads to the general growth of the individual or organisation (and in this sense is not the same as the term development as used in say the context of rural development).

Definitions of learning

Formal learning

Formal learning occurs as a result of experiences in an education or training institution, with structured learning objectives, learning time and support which leads to certification. Formal learning is intentional from the learner's perspective.

Non-formal learning

Non-formal learning is not provided by an education or training institution and typically does not lead to certification. It is, however, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support). Non-formal learning is intentional from the learner's perspective.

Informal learning

Informal learning results from daily life activities related to work, family or leisure. It is not structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and typically does not lead to certification. Informal learning may be intentional but in most cases it is non-intentional (or 'incidental'/random).

(European Commission, 2000; 2001)

UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning. 2010. *Global report on adult learning and education*. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, p. 27

Definitions of lifelong education and lifelong learning

Definition of Lifelong Education and Training

Lifelong education is a comprehensive and visionary concept which includes formal, non-formal and informal learning extended throughout the lifespan of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and vocational and professional life. It views education in its totality, and includes learning that occurs in the home, school, community, and workplace, and through mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing knowledge, skills and attitudes.

No country has as yet achieved this full goal of a lifelong learning system and it remains as a visionary call for an open learning society, operating through a multiplicity of educational networks. A key purpose of lifelong learning is democratic citizenship, connecting individuals and groups to the structures of social, political and economic activity in both local and global contexts.

Lifelong education builds on and affects all existing educational providers, and extends beyond the formal educational providers to encompass all bodies and individuals involved in learning activities

Lifelong education means enabling people to learn at different times, in different ways, for different purposes at various stages of their lives and careers. Lifelong education is concerned with providing learning opportunities throughout life (and hence pays special attention to all forms of adult and continuing education), while developing lifelong learners (and hence must address the foundations young people receive in formal education for engaging in lifelong learning).

Lifelong education, in response to the constantly changing conditions of modern life, must lead to the systematic acquisition, renewal, upgrading and completion of knowledge, skills and attitudes, as are required by these changes.

In contexts where large numbers of adults are illiterate or lacking a basic education the focus of lifelong education activities may well be largely upon providing the foundations for lifelong learning to such disadvantaged or marginalised sectors of society.*

* Though such a focus is necessary and right it is necessary to avoid the concept of lifelong education being confused with or simply seen as an equivalent term for adult education, for, to be viable, lifelong learning's foundations should be laid in childhood and youth and in what happens in schooling systems. Though many adult learners have not previously been encouraged to develop as independent, critical thinkers through their schooling (where they have completed it), it is essential that schooling system, including educare, and higher education, inculcate the attitudes and competencies vital for lifelong education. If lifelong education is to become effective in SADC countries, its principles need to suffuse the whole education and training system as a whole.

This definition of Lifelong Education and Training (LET) was agreed on by the Southern African Development Community Technical Committee on Lifelong Learning at its inaugural meeting held at Gaborone on 20 to 22 November 2001.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

Many of the terms used in South African adult education discourse are on one hand imprecise or, on the other hand, too precise and narrow (particularly in much SAQA related terminology). The important Nairobi 2008 *African Statement on the Power of Youth and Adult Learning and Education for Africa's Development* (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 3) makes the point that:

A rapid pan-African clarification and standardisation of the terminology and concepts relating to youth and ALE is required to enable comparability of data and to help regional collaboration and the dissemination of information and research.

Policy frameworks

The existence of adult education policies indicates that a country recognises the importance of the education of adults as a means towards achieving social, cultural or economic development or other goals. It also indicates explicit political commitment to allocate the necessary resources to implement appropriate strategies of adult education (though not necessarily immediately or completely).

The importance of there being actual official policies explains the Nairobi 2008 *African Statement on the Power of Youth and Adult Learning and Education for Africa's Development* (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 3, 5) concern that:

Very few countries have comprehensive policies, legislation and strategic plans related specifically to youth and ALE. The lack of these frameworks weakens the linkages between non-formal and formal education and multi-sectoral collaboration and inhibits the incorporation of African perspectives into youth and ALE.

and

There is a narrow vision of youth and ALE, often limited to literacy. ... This undermines the development of adequate policy, plans and programmes. A rapid pan-African clarification and standardisation of the terminology and concepts relating to youth and ALE is required to enable comparability of data and to help regional collaboration and the dissemination of information and research.

and

Every country should have a comprehensive national youth and adult learning and education policy and action plans (which also provide a comprehensive language policy and support for the creation of literate environments). This policy should be backed by legislation together with strengthened capacity to give effect to the policy. This policy should take into account strategies for poverty alleviation.

Purposes and influences

Policies themselves are expressions of purposes which will determine legislation, governance and administrative structures, resource allocations and practices.

Generally, a basic taxonomy of purposes for youth and adult education comprises the following:

Type	Description	Ancillaries
Empowerment	Democratic Youth and adult education can support the development and maintenance of a just and democratic social order (the assumption being that adult education can help build what democracy requires, namely, an informed citizenry that can exercise rational choices and actively participate in democratic processes, and have good community relationships.	A human right Youth and adults are entitled to it as a human and constitutional right (e.g., South African Constitution). A public good It is a general public good and a sign of a good society (as in Scandinavian adult education systems). Driver of social change and transformation It assists in social transformation and builds and sustains democracy (e.g. Venezuelan ‘missions’). It promotes equity, social cohesion and active citizenship. Critical reflection It builds the powers of critical reflection so necessary for a healthy democracy (e.g. Worker Education Associations in Europe; Freirian ‘pedagogy of the oppressed’). Lifelong Education As in the Faure Report of 1972. Capability As argued by Amarta Sen.
	Individual It can enhance personal growth (through learner-centred self-actualisation and perspective transformation activities) and creativity and innovation.	

Instrumental	Social and technological change To help forward dynamic change in society (particularly in relation to rapid technological and social change requiring the specialisation of knowledge, better communication and coordination among specialised units, and demands for more efficient management and management training)	Human capital development Improving the quality and efficiency of education and training. Lifelong Learning Making lifelong learning and mobility a reality.
	Economic progress An increase in productivity (through the training, education and development of individuals and the education of society)	

It is clear from the literature review that all these purposes feature in youth and adult education policy though the empowerment type purposes may often tend to be largely rhetorical or aspirational and the instrumental ones much more prominent in practice.

Two major international statements have heavily influenced policy discourses, particularly in the developing world in the last decade – the Millennium Development Goals and the Education For All Dakar declaration, the latter particularly because of the specific references to the education of youth and adults. Education for All (UNESCO, 2000) called for a collective commitment to the attainment of the following goals:

1. expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;
2. ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality;
3. ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes;
4. achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;
5. eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality;
6. improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

Generally, and understandably, adult education policies in poorer countries tend to focus on basic education, whereas developed countries have moved into a broader lifelong learning framework. However, some South-East Asian countries with well-performing economies are ((UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 33-34):

making a ‘policy jump’ from adult education as adult literacy and basic skills towards adult education within a lifelong learning policy frame. The Republic of Korea, a particularly noteworthy example, developed a comprehensive policy approach to adult education in the 1980s as part of building a lifelong learning society, currently anchored in the 2007 Lifelong Education Act. Regional and local bodies in the country pass their own laws to support the national Act.

In sub-Saharan Africa (including South Africa), unfortunately, this adult basic education focus often leads to literacy and post-literacy and continuing adult basic education being construed as the sum-total of adult education.

It is also clear that changes in the world economy have powerfully changed adult education policies (or the absences of adult education policies). For example, after the 1997-1998 Asian financial crisis, new adult education provision frameworks concentrating on human resource development requirements were set up in many South-East Asian countries.

Regional and international organisations have also exerted policies pressures.

The European Union’s Lisbon Strategy, which focuses on growth and jobs in the context of an ageing societies with skills deficits within the workforce, and facing global competition, sees the need for coordinated education and training responses within a lifelong learning paradigm (that is seen as a critical for jobs, growth and full citizen participation). The *Communication on Adult Learning* and the *Action Plan on Adult Learning* identified a number of priorities (Commission of the European Communities, 2006, 2007, 2009):

- To reduce labour shortages due to demographic changes by raising skill levels in the workforce generally and by upgrading low-skilled workers (80 million in 2006).
- To address the persistently high number of early school-leavers (nearly 7 million in 2006), by offering a second chance to those who enter adulthood without any qualifications.
- To reduce poverty and social exclusion among marginalised groups. Adult learning can both improve people’s skills and help them towards active citizenship and personal autonomy.
- To increase the integration of migrants in society and labour markets. Adult learning offers tailor-made courses, including language learning, to contribute to this integration process. Adult learning can help migrants to secure validation and recognition for their qualifications.
- To increase participation in lifelong learning and particularly to address the fact that participation decreases after the age of 34. At a time when the average working age is rising across Europe, there needs to be a parallel increase in adult learning by older workers.

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), which organised the international Adult Literacy Survey, also shapes national policy responses to adult education. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) has paid much attention to literacy and non-formal education. The Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos (OEI) has developed plans for literacy and basic education for youth and adults in Latin America. UNESCO has long promoted literacy within a framework of lifelong learning and the CONFINTEA gatherings have a profound influence on adult education in each following decade.

A good example of one country’s comprehensive adult education policy is **China’s** State Education Commission’s *Decision on the Reform and Development of Adult Education* of 1987, in which the important position of adult education in socio-economic development was clarified and the important principle of “developing adult education energetically” was set.

The *Decision* pointed out that adult education is the necessary condition for the development of modern society and economy and the progress of science and technology. Subsequently, in a number of educational documents and plans issued in the 1990s, adult education was seen as a new type of educational system that would facilitate the transition of school education to lifelong education and this has been strongly reaffirmed in the *Outline of the Tenth Five-Year Plan of National Economic and Social Development* of 2005.

However, it is important to note that the 2008 *National Report* (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO and Chinese Adult Education Association, 2008) enumerates a number of policy related challenges that remain:

- the low status and of adult education on the national agenda
- the lack of a clear framework of policies and plans for its development
- the absence of a national organization to coordinate adult education
- regional imbalances
- most support for adult education was economic development related and adult education for social development relatively neglected
- more must be done to develop non-formal adult education
- the formal and non-formal systems of adult education are completely independent of each other without the connections
- insufficient training of adult educators and a lack of a full range of adult educator and adult education administrator posts in the civil service.

The **Republic of Korea** is required by its Lifelong Education Act to establish regular five year lifelong learning promotional plans. An initial five-year National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan (2002~2006) paved the way for rapid development in Korea's lifelong education sector. It also has a national level Lifelong Education Promotion Committee, chaired by the Minister of Education, Science and Technology, deals with policy, the National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan, evaluation of the whole system and general coordination of support for lifelong education. It is essentially an expert body with up to 20 lifelong education experts appointed by the Minister.

In **India**, adult education policies have mainly been contained in a succession of national and state five year plans that spell out education strategies, approaches and priorities and in the policies of national adult education or literacy programmes set up in terms of these plans. A new *National Education Policy* of 1986 re-energised commitment to eradicate illiteracy and the National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched in 1988 with a mass campaign approach known as the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC)

Botswana has had a succession of adult education policies. The *National Policy on Education* of 1977 noted that literacy as a form of basic education is a prerequisite for other development efforts and recommended the Government to take up out-of-school basic education and literacy as a national initiative (Ministry of Education, 1977):

A fully literate population is an important long term objective if Botswana's national principles are to be achieved ... it is required in the context of efforts to achieve greater productivity, health, or have greater control over one's environment and it will contribute to the achievement of other objectives

As a result programmes in Distance Education and Home Economics and a Department of Non-Formal Education were initiated in the Ministry of Education).

There followed *The Eradication of illiteracy in Botswana – A National Initiative: A Consultation Document* in 1979; as well as components in the *National Development Plan Six (1985-1991)* of 1985 and *Plan Nine* of 2002). In 1994 the subsequent *Revised National Policy on Education* recommended improvement and expansion of the mandate beyond just adult literacy provisions. All children should receive ten years of basic education and be prepared for the world of work and international competitiveness. The revised mandate included provision and co-ordination of out-of-school education for children, youth and adults with an underlying philosophy life-long learning. In 1998 a *National Plan of Action for Adult Learning* was prepared by the Botswana National Commission for UNESCO and argued that literacy should be relevant to people's social and economic contexts.

In 2001 **Sweden** laid out a strategy for central and local government-financed flexible support for adult learning. based on the needs of the individual. It has moved away from more classroom based education to allowing the individual to study at different levels and in different subject areas at the same time (including with the use of modern technology). Outreach activities, guidance, validation, accessibility and financial study support the cornerstones of an infrastructure for lifelong learning. The policy is clear that the state is responsible for supporting the individual's need for learning and that the state and municipalities should offer the right learning opportunities. This requires a well organised and coordinated infrastructure for flexible learning.

Arguments for adult education policies

The *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 118) notes:

Given the potential offered by investment in adult education, it is disappointing to see from the National and Regional Synthesis Reports that many governments have not taken the necessary strides in policy development to secure adult learning opportunities for their populations or invested the resources needed to make a reality of the adult education policies that exist. The evidence collected presents a rather depressing picture of a sector that has not yet managed to convince governments of either the benefits it can deliver or the costs of failure to invest.

During the last decade various arguments have gathered strength on the economic and social benefits of adult education (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 20):

Careful consideration of the MDG challenges reveals a simple truth: improvements in the provision of, participation in and quality of adult education can accelerate progress towards all eight Millennium Development Goals. Research convincingly demonstrates that parental education and qualification levels – especially those of mothers – are positively associated with children's (particularly girls') educational participation and attainment. Better educated parents understand more readily the importance of ensuring that their children – and especially their daughters – attend school and gain qualifications that enable them to lead, in turn, more independent and active lives. Family learning with resultant parental involvement in schools is shown to be more important than socio-economic class in influencing pupil performance at 16 (Nunn *et al*, 2007). ... Adults of all ages who continue to

participate in education have greater access to information and knowledge that are important for forming views and taking action with respect to key social and political issues, such as environmental protection. They are also better able to use new sources of information and knowledge – in particular, information and communication technology (ICT) – independently and meaningfully.

Similarly, better educated youth and adults can improve their life chances, standards of living, and occupationally-based social status. They are more able to protect their health, avoid sexually-transmitted diseases and to take care of their own children.

A number of studies across the world on the social and economic impact of basic literacy for adults has shown (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, pp. 20-22, 102) that literacy education impacts on the enhancement of self esteem, better handling of money, time telling and labour negotiations. It appears to have a particularly profound impact on people over 40 who benefit in terms of self-esteem, social status and self-reliance and the development of more positive attitudes towards education and involvement in their children's schooling. Higher literacy levels lead to well-paid employment and illiteracy significantly reduces the income that employees may earn during their working life.

At a more macro level, estimates of the costs of illiteracy (in terms of lost productivity) to countries as a whole have generated astounding figures for the loss to the GDP: Ecuador and the Dominican Republic (US\$25 billion), the State of São Paulo in Brazil (US\$209 billion) (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 102), and South Africa (US\$68 billion) (Gustafsson *et al* (2010, p. 4).

Targeted policies

Developing countries, where they have adult education policies, have tended to focus on literacy, whereas developed countries now focus on continuing education (increasingly seen as part of the continuum of lifelong learning). Though this difference in focus is easy to understand, for developing countries the sole focus on literacy or adult basic education is often confusingly seen as synonymous with the whole of 'adult education' or 'lifelong learning'.

Where governments have policies for the funding of adult education it is often (because the need is pressing and may be politically sensitive) directed at special groups (such as illiterates, immigrants or the unemployed). This can be seen very well in the United States of America where federal funding for adult education is, currently, largely directed at adult literacy, English as a second language (for immigrants), and adult vocational training and post-secondary education. The problem with this selection of special target groups is, apart from its being motivated by short term goals, that it may fail to take into account the need for support of the overall system for adult education provision.

Though taking these caveats into account, many countries have acknowledged the need for targeted policies to address inequalities in participation in adult learning. Much targeting focuses on the specific barriers that face adults in accessing education and training. special targeting may be one way of meeting the challenge of low participation and high inequality in

adult education – in particular by reducing structural barriers to participation and combatting individual scepticism about the benefits of adult learning. [An example of the success of such special targeting in South Africa was the high enrolment of the *Kha Ri Gude* literacy campaign as compared with the dismally low participation in Public Adult Learning Centres.]

Such initiatives can release time for participation in adult learning, remove monetary constraints and reduce institutional barriers. In practice, changing course formats, increasing distance and flexible learning options, offering monetary incentives and developing flexibility around entrance requirements have all been useful. Measures can be implemented through direct targeting, compensating for market failures and for increased reliance on markets, mobilising contributions from all stakeholders through appropriate incentives (especially for NGOs and civil society organisations that have the capacity for flexibility and vitality in reaching disadvantaged and rural populations) and developing social and legal infrastructures for adult learning.

There is growing international evidence of the need for strong public equity policies which emphasise adult learning as a tool for general social and economic betterment. In a number of countries there is evidence of funding being weighted towards states, provinces, regions or municipalities that have higher levels of educational disadvantage. Thus in **Brazil** there is differentiation in per capita financial support for primary education for young people and adults in favour of states and municipalities with high illiteracy rates. In the **United States of America** federal funds from the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act vary per state according to the ratio of adults with less than high school diploma level of education. Similarly funding from the Workforce Investment Act of 1998 (WIA) provides grants to states based on a ratio of adults ages 16 and older who do not have a high school diploma and are not enrolled in secondary school. In **Sweden** only a small percentage (20%) of places in universities and colleges are reserved for people straight out of school and access is made relatively easy through different categories of entrance depending on educational history and certification as well as age and work experience (including housework!) .

Constitutional and Legislative support

Constitutional

A number of countries have some kind of constitutional reference to youth and adult education as a right and that this should be the basis for any adult education policies.

Brazil has a quasi-constitutional Federal Law of Guidelines and Foundations of National Education of 1996), which regulates constitutional matters concerning education and which mandates state and municipal censuses to check on the number of children and adults needing primary education as well as stating that Brazil's education systems must provide courses and examinations that offer educational opportunities appropriate to the interests and living and working conditions of young people and adults. However, in 1996, a constitutional amendment deleted the provision committing the state to eradicate illiteracy and provide universal primary education by 1998 and to provide half of the resources for education provision.

India's constitution has education as a concurrent subject for both the federal union and state governments and the union and states have the right and obligation to promote formal and non-formal education.

China's 1982 constitution includes the right and obligation of every citizen to receive education and the state is obliged to develop educational facilities to eliminate illiteracy and provide general, scientific, technical, and professional to all working people.

Cuba's 1976 constitution entrenches universal access and free education at all levels regardless of age.

Legislative

The Nairobi Statement of 2008 (UNESCO, 2009a) states that the comprehensive national youth and adult education policies and action plans that every country should have “should be backed by legislation”.

In the **United States of America** the Adult Education Act of 1964 was superceded in 1998 by a number of new laws affecting adult education, notably the Higher Education Act, the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act (Title II of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998) (though it appears to have lapsed in 2003, funds are still being allocated annually), and the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006 (Perkins IV) (which funds high school and post-secondary institutions providing credit-bearing courses and programmes in adult and vocational education that are aimed at aligning adult vocational education with workforce development priorities, and which is the largest single source of federal funding for high schools. The Workforce Investment Act (WIA) made adult education part of a one-stop career centre (OSCC) system that includes many federally funded job training programmes. The Federal Department of Education establishes policy for, administers, and coordinates much of, the federal financial assistance for education, in accordance with these laws.

Sweden has a range of laws regulating the provision and funding of youth and adult education (mainly done through municipalities), including the right to (unpaid) educational leave. Thus, for example, provision by municipalities of adult literacy and basic education (Grundvux) is a legal requirement and illiterate individual has the right to receive such training without delay.. A bill on Adult Learning presented in 2001 laid out a strategy for central and local government-financed flexible support for adult learning.

The **Republic of Korea** has the Lifelong Education Act of 1999 (revised in 2007) and the Act on Credit Recognition and Others of 1999 (revised in 2008) The Lifelong Education Act makes it the responsibility of the state and local governments to secure their own facilities for lifelong education provision. The Credit Recognition Act allows for bachelor's degrees to be conferred through an Academic Credit Bank System (which operates a Bachelor Degree Examination for self-education and others). There is also the Act on the Establishment and Operation of Private Teaching Institutes and Extracurricular Lessons which regulates private providers.

In **Brazil** there is a variety of legislation related to youth and adult education, part from the afore mentioned 1996 Law of Guidelines and Foundations of National Education (Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação – LDB, Federal Law No. 9394/96), which regulates constitutional matters concerning education. The law states that “states and municipalities , through collaboration and with the help of the Union, should carry out a census of the school-age population eligible for primary education and of the young people and adults who have not had access to it” (Principles and Aims, Article 5, §1) and also states that education systems must provide courses and examinations that offer educational opportunities appropriate to the interests and living and working conditions of young people and adults. (Section V of Chapter II, “Basic Education”³). Article 37 states that “ways for workers to have access to and to remain in school should be made possible and stimulated by integrated actions on the part of public powers”. No fees may be charged for public provision. A number of federally funded institutions now have to reserve a percentage of their places for youth and adult learners. Regulations related to this law were issued in 2000 as the *National Curricular Directives for Adult Education*, which regulated aspects of the *Law of Guidelines and Foundations of National Education*, setting out general rules for provision which allowed high degree of flexibility in terms of the length and curricular structure of courses, approval of which is the responsibility of state and municipal education councils. In 2001 federal law No. 10,172 instituted a National Education Plan which defined 26 priority targets for Youth and Adult Education, including the eradication of illiteracy; provision to ensure that 50% of youth and adults without primary education would have access to the first four grades by 2006 and to eight grades by 2011 (with certification); censuses to map demand; provision of teaching material and the training of teachers; and a tripling of basic vocational courses for the unemployed every five years and an expansion of regular vocational training courses. Unfortunately, partly because of funding issues, these aims have not been reached.

In the **Russian Federation** the Law on Education states that the education system must adapt to the levels and specific development and training needs of adults and every adult person can upgrade his or her education starting at the lower level (including the acquisition of basic literacy skills) within the state system of evening comprehensive schools.

In **China** the Education Law of 1995 guarantees that citizens can receive education in vocational schools or different types of vocational training provided by government at different levels.

In **Venezuela** the 1999 Education Law defines adult education as being for people over age fifteen “who wish to acquire, expand, renovate or upgrade their skills or change their profession. It aims to provide cultural and professional training necessary to enable them to social life, productive work, and the pursuit of their studies.” [Article 39]. It makes provision for recognition of prior learning and certification thereof. The Ministry of Education is required by this law to create technical assistance centres to provide free schooling and specialised training.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

South Africa does have some constitutional reference to the right to adult (basic) education and, given that in most constitutions such references are mainly aspirational, this is probably adequate (though it would be interesting to see this right tested by the Constitutional court).

When it comes to policies, South Africa has a plethora of post-1994 policy documents that refer to lifelong learning (see Aitchison 2003 for a critical examination of these in relation to adult education) and one on Adult Basic Education and Training (Department of Education, 1997). However, there is no substantive policy document on adult education as a whole (though there was the limited *Ministerial Committee on adult education* report of 2008 (Department of Education, 2008)). The *Green paper for post school education and training* of 2012 has the beginnings of a comprehensive approach.

The international literature examined seems to suggest that having well articulated, officially approved, *comprehensive* adult education policy documents (allied to strategic plans of some substance) is one of the criteria associated with successful adult education systems. South African policies on adult education have been very narrowly focussed on adult basic education.

Comprehensive legislation (and not just *ad hoc* funding legislation with short term goals) is similarly an indicator of the sound health of a robust system.

South Africa's adult education legislation is virtually nonexistent (the only piece is the Adult Basic Education and Training Act of 2000 which has been moribund from the start).

Institutional forms and their articulation across sectors

The institutional forms used for the management and provision of education and training for out-of-school youth and adults naturally has some commonality with (including sometimes articulation with) the regular educational institutional types (universities, universities or colleges of technology, further and vocational education and training colleges, other single- and multi-purpose colleges, learning centres, and schools) and various degrees of difference and separate innovation (and often degrees of non-articulation).

One finding that can be made of countries where adult education is governed by multiple ministries is that inter-ministerial committees of real substance seem to be a feature of successful adult education systems.

In many countries, for adults and the youth who have not gained access to post school education and training, in many cases the institutional forms remain conventional. It is primarily the matters of the right to and means of access and funding that remain contentious or for which new innovations are required.

In looking at institutional forms one is also confronted by something of a chicken or the egg dilemma: do institutional forms precede and mould the nature of programmes or *vice versa*? If, for example, one looks at the major forms of **literacy and adult basic education** provision there are the following (Aitchison and Alidou, 2009: 27-28):

- (1) reading and writing campaigns with strong political backing, usually centrally-controlled;
- (2) functional literacy programmes that seek typically to link literacy with livelihood or skills training;
- (3) basic education, equivalence programmes and/or formal primary school;
- (4) innovative participatory programmes provided by NGOs (for example, REFLECT – Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques); and, more recently,
- (5) family literacy programmes that provide parent-child or inter-generational literacy support.

With campaigns it is the campaign that largely determines the institutional form (insofar as it has a truly institutionalised form), functional literacy programmes typically associate themselves with development initiatives (themselves typically of a short time bound quasi-campaign nature) and innovative participatory programmes and family literacy programmes are usually small scale and NGO run. It is only with basic education equivalence programmes for adults and youth that the forms correspond to that of conventional schooling and the issues of articulation and credit equivalence become highly charged.

In a highly developed country like **Sweden** there are multiple institutional forms of both formal and non-formal adult education all fully funded or subsidised by the state:

Formal:

Municipal adult education
Education for adults with learning disabilities
Swedish Tuition for Immigrants
Independent supplementary education
Advanced vocational education and training
Labour market training
In service training

Non-formal:

Study associations
Folk high schools

Most of the other countries surveyed also have a wide range of sub-systems or modes of adult education provision.

Clearly in such a situation institutional forms, governance and administration are complex and require well managed systems of articulation.

The evidence from the review was that successful systems do have well managed systems for articulation (though the difficulties of such are well recognised).

Observations on applicability to South Africa

South Africa has only overtly supported one narrow component of adult education (adult basic education).

Although South Africa has a qualification and standards system designed to facilitate articulation it is clear that there remain considerable difficulties.

It is not clear at all that there is active inter-ministerial collaboration on adult education. The *Kha Ri Gude* literacy campaign inter-ministerial committee seems moribund.

Governance

The *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 35) notes that:

the 2009 EFA *Global Monitoring Report* headlines governance as a key factor in overcoming educational inequalities. It describes governance as “institutions, rules and norms through which policies are developed and implemented – and through which accountability is enforced” (UNESCO, 2008a: 128). Governance therefore covers policy decision-making, resource allocation and government accountability. Educational governance is not solely the concern of central government but encompasses every level of the system, from the education ministry to schools and the community. It ensures access to well-funded educational provision with well-qualified, motivated staff and responsiveness to local needs.

Educational governance in principle must be based on universal participation. There is a personal stake in education for all citizens, even when their interests and needs are not being met through existing policy, provision and practice. Furthermore, education is vital to civil society, local and regional communities and social movements; minorities, nations and states; the business world, labour markets and economies. Educational governance has to accommodate many stakeholders and a diverse range of interests. The consequences of bad governance in adult learning and education are all too obvious and include weak provision characterised by inequity, low quality and the involvement of lowly-paid, untrained and unmotivated facilitators.

Institutional governance arrangements (and the concepts and practices of governance embedded within those arrangements) have become central to international discussion and debate in the last twenty years. ‘Who governs youth and adult education and do they (can they) govern well?’ becomes, therefore, an important question.

The Nairobi statement (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 3) notes that:

Only a few countries have established effective multi-sectoral governance bodies of youth and ALE to ensure that the endemic marginalisation of youth and ALE is ended. There is a challenge to ensure that such bodies should focus on the whole range of lifelong learning, not just on literacy and basic education.

Where decentralisation of governance and/or provision takes place, the problem of inadequate resource allocation at all levels is felt.

Tentative answers to the issue of governance have tended to fall into two streams:

- Generally, and obviously heavily influenced by the triumph of market fundamentalism and significant growth of democratisation in the world, have been the warnings of the dangers of a command and control model of organization and governance. Allied to this have been pressures towards decentralization policies, particularly in developing countries (often with very mixed results where often there has been a delegation of responsibilities (usually unfunded mandates) rather than of decision-making (See Aitchison, 2006)

- Equally common, this time based more on the evaluations of failed implementations, have been the warnings about the necessity for good coordination (particularly in a multi-sectoral domain such as adult education).

The two answers are, of course, in tension with each other. The one call is for greater devolution, decentralisation both organisational and financial, and even autonomy, accompanied by public consultation, consiliar arrangements and the partnership with civil society. The other call is for more regulation, monitoring and quality control by central government administrations.

In the developed world the continuation of the historical adherence to the political and educational principle that adult education provision should remain under non-governmental control, preferably locally based, has been aided by the continuing prioritisation by governments of schooling, higher education and vocational education and training and the arguments that it is easier and cheaper to operate through the non-governmental adult education networks that are better equipped (through flexibility, sensitivity, local involvement and even radical political profile) to reach those most in need of adult education. Indeed in a number of countries private sector and non-governmental adult education provision is legislatively protected from undue state interference.

In the developing world where the priority targets of adult education are large masses of people (and sometimes even a majority of adults) the arguments for (central) state control (and therefore the institutional forms congruent with this) have more salience. If governments feel compelled to provide formal certificated school equivalency adult education (because all citizens, of whatever age, need to have attained at least the level of compulsory schooling) and also view adult education as an integral part of a policy of lifelong learning then the growth of state control and funding become almost inevitable.

In Africa the general picture is of centralised state governance moving, somewhat grudgingly towards greater devolution and delegation and certainly much rhetoric about broad stakeholder participation. Most countries advocate multi-sectoral stakeholder governance, but there is little concrete evidence of its implementation. As the African statement argues (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 4):

The important role of civil society formations (NGOs, CSOs, religious and other organisations) in youth and ALE is inadequately recognised and needs to be actively encouraged and supported. More accountable and transparent frameworks for collaboration have to be developed.

However it also needs to be noted that, as the developing countries (notable the BRIC ones) strive to become modern middle-income countries, their adult education provision moves away from an original focus on basic literacy towards continuing and lifelong learning and there is consequently a need for the more varied institutional forms (and governance models) associated with continuing education in a complex society.

In understanding where governance of adult education is (really) located the crucial questions that have to be asked of the system are:

- Who actually chooses the targets for provision and funds and runs the programmes?
- Who actually administers adult education?
- What kinds of programmes are actually implemented?
- How are these decisions made?

There is much variation in the answers to these questions in the great variety of governance forms in adult education worldwide and more specifically in the ten countries looked at in more detail for this report.

The main patterns are as follows:

- a department or departments within an education ministry (or equivalent)
- relatively independent authority or agency (though often under the formal control of a ministry)
- delegation of responsibility to local agencies (either of government or civil society).

Governance by a department within a ministry

Most governments have established a department or authority that is explicitly responsible for (at least some part of) adult education.

Generally, ministries of education take charge of policies and programmes, sometimes in cooperation with other ministries. Ministries may devolve some administrative responsibilities but control budgets, programme design and planning, standards and curriculum from the centre.

The situation is complicated by much youth and adult education being done and governed by more than one ministry (typically there may be separate governance structures for basic (academic) education and for vocational education and training). It is further complicated by many government ministries using non-formal adult education as an instrument of other agendas (such as health education). Education ministries tend to support adult education as a good in itself (such as a literacy campaign or adult basic education provision) whilst for other ministries it is more frequently a useful means to some other end. But ineffective coordination between ministries, agencies and civil society has a negative impact on implementation.

In relation to this multi-ministry reality, it seems that inter-ministerial committees of real substance seem to be a feature of countries with successful adult education systems.

Even when there is one central department within a ministry responsible for adult education there are often various forms of devolution of governance for both political and economic reasons. Such devolution may involve a trade-off between the benefits of more grassroots support and the lessening of central government control.

In the **United States of America** responsibility for education and adult education is placed at state level and federal government intervention is mainly at level of funding and regulations.

The highly decentralized system of education means that there is no national framework laws that prescribe curricula or control most aspects of education. The federal government, although playing an important role in education, does not govern, establish, or license schools or educational institutions at any level. Federal legislation and funding is usually directed at special groups, situations and purposes (and often tends to be motivated by relatively short term goals). Within the federal Department of Education there is an Office for Vocational and Adult Education (OVAE)(which has within it a Division of Adult Education and Literacy and a Division of Career and Technical Education) and an Office of Post-secondary Education (OPE). At state level many, but not all, states have adult education programmes located in departments of (basic) education.

Sweden's Ministry of Education and Research has a National Board of Education responsible for schools and basic adult education. It ensures that government goals and guidelines are implemented. There is another National Board of Universities and Colleges. At County level, an Education Committee supervises schools in the county and distributes government grants. The actual running and financing of schools and adult education takes place at a Municipal level through its Local Education Authority which receive state subsidies of up to 95-98% of tuition costs.

The **Republic of Korea** has a Lifelong and Vocational Education Bureau in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (It also has a National Institute for Lifelong Education (see below)). There are serious efforts at inter-ministry cooperation in lifelong education and the Minister of Education, Science and Technology chairs a Lifelong Education Promotion Committee to deal with policy and planning and Vice Ministers from eleven other Ministries sit on it. Korea's lifelong education policies are planned and implemented in coordination with other government strategies, especially human resources development and vocational education and the ministries concerned with Labour, Gender equality, the Knowledge economy, National defence, Food, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, Culture, sports and tourism, and Health, welfare and family affairs. Equally serious have been the attempts to decentralize the administration of lifelong education and in the second five year plan particular emphasis is placed on mobilizing the lifelong learning capacity of metropolitan, provincial and local governments.

In **Brazil**, in 2003, a new administration had the Ministry of Education reassume responsibility for supporting adult literacy, and set up the Extraordinary Secretariat for Eradicating Illiteracy, now the Extraordinary Secretariat for Eradicating Illiteracy which was incorporated into the Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy and Diversity which takes responsibility for managing youth and adult education in general. Actual provision is handled by agencies, municipalities and other partners.

China has a Department of Vocational and Adult Education which oversees primary and secondary adult education. The Department of Higher Education runs higher adult education which produces about 25% of graduates.

Governance by quasi-autonomous authority or agency

The past twenty years have seen a steady increase in the use of decentralised governance in the form of publicly-funded agencies that manage and coordinate the implementation of para-state and inter-ministerial policies. Such agencies may take managing expenditure on implementation, manage quality control and engage in programme planning and design. They also generally involve stakeholders and grassroots groups.

In the **United States** in some states adult education is managed by whatever agency is responsible for the community college or higher education system. A very few states (about ten) link them to their workforce development agency. The task of these agencies is, however, largely one of distributing federal and state funds by formula (often including rigorous performance criteria) to local educational agencies, community-based organizations, faith-based organisations, literacy organizations, community, junior or technical colleges, institutions of higher education, correctional institutions, libraries and other public or private nonprofit institutions that offer adult education and literacy education programmes that meet the requirements of the law.

Of interest is the setting up of One-Stop Career Centres (OSCCs) to provide information to job seekers and access to a broad range of employment and training services. So far community colleges and other post-secondary institutions have not participated fully in the infrastructure of the OSCCs except in a few states. A strong argument for them was that coordinating vocational programmes with workforce development efforts is a complex matter and that multiple job training programmes created an excessive administrative burden.

Sweden established a National Agency for Flexible Learning (CFL) in 2002 in order to encourage and stimulate the local authorities to make decisions in the direction wanted by the Government. It plays an important role in supporting the development of flexible learning in municipal adult education, folk high schools, study associations and workplaces and in complementing the work done by municipalities by providing courses that could not be arranged through municipal adult education with sufficient geographical spread or regularity and has also provided education on a subcontracting basis by selling places in courses to municipalities.

The **Republic of Korea** has a National Institute for Lifelong Education as a central governmental body to oversee lifelong education research and policy implementation. It also trains lifelong educators (through supporting the development of lifelong educator development institutes). This Institute is replicated at provincial/ metropolitan and local government level by Lifelong learning centres to assist in vertical and horizontal integration – indeed one of the main responsibilities of the national institute is to regionalise lifelong education). At metropolitan cities and provinces level regional Councils are established by ordinances to engage with the National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan, coordinate lifelong education programmes ((aided by second-chance schools, in-company universities, distance learning universities, media organisations and civic groups), and develop linkages with related regional organizations. The Council's chairman is a metropolitan mayor or a provincial governor, the vice chairman the head of the provincial education department, and the council includes up to 20 lifelong education experts.

Brazil's federal government has set up partnerships with a number of national agencies to deliver components of adult education provision. Examples of these agencies (which have non-governmental organisation or business sector origins) include the Solidarity Literacy Programme, the Support Programme for Educational Systems Serving Youth and Adult Education - Making a School, and the National Inclusion Programme for Young People as well as other bodies which have agreements with the Ministry of Education such as Social Service for Industry, the Association for Social Development, the National Association for Agricultural Corporation, AlfaSol and AlfaLit.

In **India** the National Literacy Mission Authority (NLMA) is an independent and autonomous agency of the central government. The NMLA was set up in 1988 as an independent and autonomous wing of the Department of Elementary Education and Literacy in the Ministry for Human Resource Development, vested with executive and financial powers to approve literacy projects. An Adult Education Bureau is the secretariat of the NLMA and a Directorate of Adult Education provides technical and academic resource support. It is governed by a General Council which includes members from several ministries and representatives of political parties and NGOs. These structures are replicated at state level with the State General Council being chaired by the Chief or Education Minister. These State structures are funded by the NMLA, the quantum determined in proportion to the level of illiteracy and under-education in the state. The structures are further replicated at District level. District Resource Units located in the District Institute of Education and Training provide technical and academic resource support.

The registered body Zila Saksharta Samiti is the main implementation agency for literacy and continuing education programmes at state level. NGOs are also involved regionally and locally to implement state programmes.

Delegation of responsibility to local agencies (either of government or civil society)

In many countries in the world adult education is essentially under the control of local government (the Scandinavian countries are perhaps the best example of this). The Scandinavian countries are also the best example of delegation to civil society agencies with the whole system of study circles, though subsidised by government, is run by civil society associations.

In the **Republic of Korea** local governments of cities, counties, and districts, have Lifelong Education Councils which develop annual plans, coordinate lifelong education programmes for community members and build cooperation with other related organizations. These councils are chaired by the head of a local government unit and the members include up to 12 lifelong learning experts. These councils are paralleled by Regional and Local Lifelong Education Centres which handle funds and implement programmes. But although lifelong learning programmes are offered by Lifelong Education Promotion Institutes, metropolitan and provincial Lifelong Learning Councils, and local government level Lifelong Learning Centres, these organizations are primarily responsible for managing, coordinating, and supporting the system, rather than being director providers.

Brazil has a decentralised system of education with partnerships with local government, civil society organisations and social movements. The federal government plays a role policy formation, the defining of curricular requirements, evaluations, materials development and provision, and the financing of projects planned by states and municipalities. It also regulates private education provision and sets up agreements with large national civil society organisations, which may receive state subsidies (particularly for apprenticeships). In recent years municipalities have increased their share of total Brazilian education expenditure on basic education.

Since 2003 there has been a National Literacy and Youth and Adult Education Committee, with consultative representation from various sectors involved in the area with representation from the various sectors involved in the area and this body has inaugurating a method of participative inter-sectoral management of youth and adult education.

In **India** the Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) under the broad National Literacy Mission (NLM) are run in a decentralised mode via State Literacy Mission Authorities (SLMAs), which are registered societies, in the interest of fast-moving and flexible operations. The NLM's TLC strategy evolved from the centre-based approach since it was recognised at national level that there can be no format or strategy which would be uniformly applicable throughout the country. This decentralisation meant that even within a state, the different districts may adopt variations based on the context of the district, the achievement levels of learners in the literacy phase, learners' needs and aspirations and their social and living conditions, and the needs for continuing education. At the district level practically every development department or programme is involved.

In **China**, as the *National report* states (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO and Chinese Adult Education Association. 2008, p. 19):.

The institutions of adult education have been given more and more autonomy in such aspects as enrollment size, cultivation objectives, curriculum development, teaching syllabus, course arrangement, teaching organization, evaluation and certificate issuance. Under such circumstances, these institutions should be responsible for the value of teaching quality and certificates and the fame of their own, and should receive the evaluation of the talent market and the examination of the society.

The issue of the privatization of provision

The *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education* (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 55) notes that:

The privatisation or commercialisation of certain types of programmes results in a dramatically-changed provision profile in adult education. The impetus for these trends is a widespread belief that privately funded provision is more flexible to market demand, and that publicly-financed provision fails to match the workplace requirement for competencies. The strengthening of this notion has resulted in for-profit provision increasing its share relative to publicly funded programmes ...

Thus in many countries a commercial learning market has emerged and gained acceptance. In light of declining public financing for adult education, such a market operates under several assumptions: (1) responsibility for training is re-located from the state to the employer or to employees themselves; (2) adult education programmes are increasingly outsourced to national and trans-national education and

training companies; and (3) there is pressure for the results of learning tend to be more recognised, validated and transformed into some sort of qualification or, metaphorically speaking, learning currencies, which may be exchanged for higher-social status or job positions, enabling individuals to recover the invested value. For many, the increasing for-profit provision of adult education has resulted from an increasingly insecure job market. Changes in economic climate threaten job security. This, in turn, elevates the value of academic or vocational qualifications in the eyes of employers, who use higher and higher levels of recognised qualifications to filter and select from the ever-growing pool of job applicants.

In sub-Saharan Africa and Asia the trend in adult education provision has been the growing involvement of non-governmental organisations. Mostly externally-funded, they are less bound by government monitoring. Few have a mandate to deliver programmes at the national level and, given their budget constraints, their work is mainly confined either to local programmes or specific target groups. ...

The delegation of such operations to private adult education providers, including non governmental organisations, has been developing in many contexts, without necessarily reducing national public budgets for adult education. Often monitoring and evaluation activities are also contracted outside government. In a few countries in Africa, the outsourcing (also known as *faire faire*) of literacy classes is gaining ground ... In this case, NGOs are the service providers, delivering a national curriculum with government funds. As with many subcontracting endeavours, quality assurance is a major issue.

Stakeholder participation in governance

Many countries have high-level policy-making bodies (National Councils or similar) chaired by the relevant Minister which are responsible for programme development and implementation. Such bodies typically include government, civil society, universities and the private sector, and have regional and local councils or committees. They are also likely to ensure the exchange of information and good practice, take on monitoring tasks (for example, through the development of indicators and benchmarks) and engage in forward planning (with respect to staff development, for example, or needs assessment and public campaigns). Such committees also develop communication and exchange channels with sectoral, regional and local stakeholders, in order to make democratic and sustainable governance ‘come alive’ in everyday implementation.

In the **Republic of Korea**, at the national level, the Lifelong Education Promotion Committee, chaired by the Minister of Education, Science and Technology, deals with policy, the National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan, evaluation of the whole system and general coordination of support for lifelong education. It is essentially an expert body with up to 20 lifelong education experts appointed by the Minister.

At metropolitan cities and provinces level regional Councils are established by ordinances to engage with the National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan, coordinate lifelong education programmes, and develop linkages with related regional organizations. The Council’s chairman who is a metropolitan mayor or a provincial governor, a vice chairman who is the head of the provincial education department, and up to 20 lifelong education experts.

In **Brazil**, in 2003, a new administration had the Ministry of Education reassume responsibility for supporting adult literacy, and set up the Extraordinary Secretariat for

Eradicating Illiteracy which was incorporated into the Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy and Diversity (SECAD) which takes responsibility for managing youth and adult education in general. It set up a National Literacy Committee, later the National Literacy and Youth and Adult Education Committee which has consultative representation from various sectors involved in the area. This initiative inaugurating a new stress on the participative inter-sectoral management of youth and adult education. SECAD has played a particularly important role in the funding and production of textbooks, materials, and the training of literacy teachers. It also monitors the application of funds and the linkage of literacy programmes with the supply of post-literacy programmes for those who wish to continue studying.

Recent years have seen the redirection of more funds to state and municipalities to the detriment of NGOs which were previously responsible for most literacy provision.

Vocational education and training in Brazil has mainly been under the control of and funded by employers (though some of these funds are via state collected levies on payrolls). New decrees have increased worker representation on the various private vocational education and training bodies and there is now greater public control and involvement in them.

There are about 80 youth and adult education forums that are alliances at state or regional level of secretariats of education, universities, social movements, non-government organisations and System S and collectively hold an annual meeting on adult education. They have a representative on the National Committee for Literacy and Youth and Adult Education.

In Africa the general picture is of centralised state governance moving, somewhat grudgingly towards greater devolution and delegation and certainly much rhetoric about broad stakeholder participation. Most countries advocate multi-sectoral stakeholder governance, but there is little concrete evidence of its implementation. As the African statement argues (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 4):

The important role of civil society formations (NGOs, CSOs, religious and other organisations) in youth and ALE is inadequately recognised and needs to be actively encouraged and supported. More accountable and transparent frameworks for collaboration have to be developed.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

The international evidence looked at shows that the successful adult education systems have governance and planning nodes of some substance at both national and state/regional level and that they have a good degree of autonomy from the more conventional schooling bureaucracy. In many cases the more operational institutes or centres are paralleled (also at various levels) by inter-ministerial and stakeholder representative councils.

By contrast South Africa's adult education governance of adult education has been to retain under-resourced sub-sections of the formal education bureaucracy at national and provincial levels with little policy, planning or implementation capacity. The one major success in recent years, the *Kha Ri Gude* literacy campaign, had a degree of such autonomy (hobbled as it was by initial bureaucratic obstruction).

Stakeholder participation in South African adult education, strong in the struggle period of the 1980s and early 1990s has progressively withered since the mid-1990s. Its effectiveness in countries such as Brazil needs to be seen as a model to be emulated.

Amongst the stakeholders who seem much more prominent in governance in the countries looked at in this review are adult education experts and academics (largely ignored by the adult education bureaucracies in South Africa up to now).

Staffing and management

The African statement notes (UNESCO, 2009, p. 4, 5):

There is a crisis at the bottom of the field at the level of the literacy, non-formal and adult education facilitators and another (less obvious but of particular long-term importance) at the top, at higher education institutions which are meant to nurture new leaders, specialists and practitioners of adult education. Calls for the professionalisation of adult education practice have been inadequately dealt with. Many adult education practitioner qualifications and training programmes are not recognised and there is a need for better conditions of service, and for the strengthening of the tertiary institutions, both nationally and regionally, that educate and train practitioners, managers and policy developers in adult education.

and

The terms and conditions of service of youth and ALE practitioners and adult education personnel, particularly in literacy, adult basic and non-formal education, need to be urgently addressed. Professional qualifications for adult educators need comparable status to those of conventional educators and trainers. There should be increased training and research capacity-building through the creation and development of higher and other tertiary education institutes (including vocational and technical institutions), ALE research centres and departments for the development of educators and trainers.

These two issues, the training of practitioners (and their professionalisation) and their conditions of service, are particularly important in the developing world (See Hinzen, H. and Schindele, H. (Eds). 2006, and Aitchison and Alidou, 2009, pp. 43-53).

Sub-Saharan Africa has a shortage of well trained adult education staff at all levels, a situation exacerbated, apart from the obvious constraints of inadequate funding and poor salaries, by most adult educators not being considered professionals. Adult education staff are often employed only on a part-time and temporary basis. In many countries existing educators in formal education teach after hours in adult education or non-formal education programmes. Some countries have seen a decline in the numbers of full-time adult education staff, others an increase.

Many people involved in adult education and learning activities may not be recognised as, or even recognise themselves as, adult educators, given the range of training and development activities that are really forms of adult education. This situation further complicates the issue of professionalising the field.

Numerous countries reported on the shortage of well trained adult education staff. For literacy, the situation is particularly difficult, and the acute shortage of qualified literacy teachers generally undermines effective promotion of literacy and adult education.

Professionalisation of adult education training is complicated by various factors. In some countries degrees or diplomas in adult education are not recognised in the civil service. Other countries see a distinction between well qualified continuing education staff in tertiary training institutions, who are considered adult education professionals, and literacy

facilitators, who are not. Often practitioners with adult education qualifications (Certificate, Diploma, or Degree) have had difficulty gaining recognition for them with the Public Service or formal education system. The situation is exacerbated when senior adult education posts in education bureaucracies are given to applicants who have risen to higher positions in the schooling system.

Generally, in developing countries, there are four types of adult education practitioners:

- literacy facilitators who are poorly qualified and trained and may even be volunteers and usually employed only on a very temporary basis
- schoolteachers, generally not trained as adult educators, who teach after hours in literacy and adult basic education/non-formal education
- qualified educators and trainers teaching at secondary or tertiary level in education and training institutions
- field workers in various development programmes who may not even think of themselves as adult educators and who have had varying degrees of adult education related training.

Literacy and adult basic educators usually have low salaries, no incentives, and they will readily leave government programmes for better rewarded private sector enterprises and foreign-funded NGOs. Their training is generally in-service and very limited, ranging from a few days to two weeks or three weeks of orientation with the possibility of some short refresher workshops later (finances permitting) (South Africa is unique in that most of the volunteer facilitators in its current *Kha Ri Gude* literacy campaign (who receive a stipend) have had a least one year of distance education training (though at their own expense through the University of South Africa) and the usual short orientation.

Most of the more senior supervisors and coordinators in literacy programmes are trained teachers who have regular jobs. They may receive some additional training in adult education.

In many countries adult education is going through a process of professionalisation as the only sure way that the adult and continuing education can claim its rightful place as a respectable sector in the education field. Yet only some countries consider adult educators (or at least some of them) as professionals. Some countries simply do not even have a category of trained adult educators (e.g. Seychelles). Other countries only accept highly qualified adult educators as professionals. A few consider all as professionals (e.g. South Africa, Tanzania) though this may not be so in practice.

The first constraint on professionalisation is the lack of training (and of training facilities) for adult educators.

The second constraint is the need, where the adult education providers cannot train professionally, for the necessary funds to contract these services from those institutions, such as the universities, whose mandate is to train such professionals.

The third constraint is that people with adult education qualifications may not be treated as having equal status to other educators such as school teachers and be eligible for full-time

employment. Governments still tend to employ schoolteachers and social science graduates in adult education posts rather than adult education professionals.

The fourth constraint is that many adult education training efforts are uncoordinated and there is no unified curriculum.

Associations of adult educators, though they exist in some countries do not seem to be strong enough to exert serious influence on professionalisation (or on unionisation for that matter).

In some developed countries cautions are still being expressed about the problem of bureaucratisation accompanying professionalisation and whether the social movement tradition of adult education gets undermined by the professionalisation and academisation of adult education.

The *Global report on adult learning and education* (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong learning, 2010, p. 25) notes that globally:

.. the adult education sector remains underprofessionalised. Too many practitioners have minimal specialised training or recognised qualifications, and arrangements for the accreditation of prior learning and experience for those working professionals are insufficiently developed. Employment conditions are typically poor, a situation which does not favour long-term retention of experienced and competent practitioners. These conditions affect the quality of adult education practitioners' performance and necessarily have an impact on the quality of adult learning experiences. The fragmentation of the body of professionals involved means that the ability to lobby for better training and increased investment is difficult. The lack of powerful institutions handicaps advocacy for practitioners and target groups alike. The interconnectedness of this lack of power with the lack of funding mentioned above is a serious problem for all involved.

As indicated earlier, literacy and basic education/non-formal education teachers tend to be relatively poorly qualified, whereas adult educators in tertiary institutions have better qualifications and are better paid and sometimes regarded as professionals. However there is great variation amongst countries.

Literacy facilitators in developing countries are usually expected to have a minimum schooling level. They often have some pre- and -in-service training. Youth related programme staff usually require high levels of secondary schooling. Literacy and basic education supervisors and coordinators usually have a school teaching certificate or diploma. Secondary and tertiary level educators usually need a teaching diploma and in some cases a degree. In technical and vocational training specialised training certification may be required. People teaching on tertiary level adult education training programmes usually require degrees (sometimes to Masters or Doctorate level) and sometimes also work experience.

Capacity for adult education provision is closely tied to the countries' ability to train qualified personnel who can carry out all the activities related to conceptualizing training programmes, implementing them and evaluating all aspects of policies and programmes.

There is a fair degree of commonality in the higher level adult education qualifications and academic structures in Europe and the Anglophone regions of Africa. Anglophone

universities run adult educator training within formal academic departments and centres of adult education (some of which had their origin in Extra Mural Studies centres and retained some elements of non-formal education delivery). Historically many of these departments have trained fairly large numbers of state employees such as extension workers (as in Botswana). They tend to be stable organisationally and in curriculum (though some structural changes may result from the current higher education enthusiasm for consolidating smaller departments into larger schools of cognate disciplines). They have traditional hierarchies of Professors, Senior Lecturers and Lecturers, most of them permanent and full-time. There is limited staff development – mainly through the gaining of further qualifications and attending conferences and seminars, going on overseas study tours, etc.

The range of qualifications on offer is also highly standardised: undergraduate Certificate; undergraduate Diploma; Bachelors degree (usually with adult education as a component only); Postgraduate Certificate; Masters; PhD. There is a notable shift towards higher qualifications in adult education, particularly in some of the older departments. However, in Africa, the continued popularity of Certificate level programmes which often have elements of bridging the gap between inadequate high school qualifications and higher education suggests that many educational systems have not reached adequate levels.

In the **United States of America** the professional development of adult educators is supported by funding through the National Leadership Activities (section 243) of Adult Education and Family Literacy Act. Multi-year contracts are awarded to eligible providers on a competitive basis to improve instruction and teacher quality, develop new models of service delivery to learners, to improve accountability, and to further research. Generally there has been moves towards increased accountability and the use of research-based practices. The United States of America has a number of adult education networks, research and practitioner associations.

In the **Republic of Korea** the National Institute for Lifelong Education is responsible for the training of lifelong educators (through supporting the development of lifelong educator development institutes). There is a National Certificate in Lifelong Education offered by regional Lifelong Education Centres and some universities and recognised by the government. It is a generic programme in lifelong education programme development and the Lifelong Education Act describes the criteria for lifelong educators in detail. Lifelong Education Centres have recently been required to hire people with this qualification.

Subject specialist lifelong educators (lecturers) do not have any regulated training.

Having more competent adult educators is seen as a major issue.

Brazil has more than a quarter of a million teaching posts in youth and adult education. About 75% of these educators have higher education qualifications, though most of those with such are not found in rural areas. Literacy programmes still tend to have unqualified instructors. There are concerns about the lack of specific adult education educator training programmes at Higher Education institutions – in 2003, only 16 of 1,306 educator training courses were specifically in adult education.

An interesting innovation in the large scale AlfaSol literacy programme (which reached 5.5 million youth and adult in the years 1997 to 2009) the way in which it employs, trains, monitors and supports literacy teachers in this work. AlfaSol partners with 76 higher education institutions which select and train educators, coordinate the teaching content of the literacy courses and monitor and evaluate the students' learning process. These higher education institutions are free to choose whatever theories and literacy methods they wish to use provided they remain within the broad philosophical framework provided by AlfaSol.

AlfaSol has a six-month programme cycle with two "semesters" a year. Each semester begins with the selection of literacy teachers from the communities targeted and they are trained for a month. AlfaSol does not reuse educators and each semester new groups of teachers are trained. This, AlfaSol argues, provides the opportunity for more people to participate and to receive training as well as for the programme to multiply and spread in the communities. This also encourages those who have already gone through the training process to become part of the official school system by enrolling for formal teacher training and entering the mainstream system of teaching.

The model of teacher training offers extensive pre-service and in-service support and has proved to be successful and well monitored and evaluated. The transfer of teacher capacity from the campaign to mainstream/formal teaching situations can be regarded as a way of capitalising on the training and experience of the teachers.

In **India** adult education as a profession has not been well established and there are few adult education posts *per se* in educational systems. There is a tendency for the actual senior adult education post to be taken by personnel from the formal school education system.

Adult education university departments have a mandate to design and present training programmes for educators in the various large scale literacy and adult education programmes. Because of the high numbers of functionaries needing training, some of the open and distance learning institutions, especially the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), the BR Ambedkar Open University and the National Open School (NOS), have needed to "go to scale" in offering innovative courses for grassroots level functionaries. This has required a 'cascade' approach.

The cascade approach for training educators for the Total Literacy Campaigns uses a envisaged a four-tier system of training comprising key resources persons (KRPs), resource persons (RPs), master trainers (MTs) and voluntary instructors (VIs). The organisers of the training programme, the District Literacy Committee, identifies a limited number of KRPs (five to ten) with rich experience and expertise and entrusts them with the responsibility of designing the training curricula and training RPs. The RPs in turn train MTs who are then responsible for training Vis (Shah, 2004, p.37). While the cascade approach was useful for increasing the numbers of people working in literacy and going to scale, one of the main problems experienced with the cascade model was that the lower the level on the cascade, the lower the availability of resources for training, materials and time allocated for training and technical inputs. Resources tended to be reduced at each cascade level and reached a minimum at the level of VIs (the very personnel who should have commanded more investment) and whose training therefore remained weak.

According to Shah (2004, pp. 46-47), certain training bodies also adopted participatory training methods for training trainers. The focus was on experiential learning, and development workers were taught about the need for training, the role of training in social change, how disadvantaged people learn, group behaviour, personal development of trainers, the effective use of training methods, training design and facilitation skills. These modules were implemented in three phases, with the first and third phases being residential programmes each lasting eight days. During the second phase, the trainees were supported while they taught for a period of four months (during which they were required to practise what they had learnt during the first phase). Reviews of experience, analysis, action and reflection were built in to all three phases.

This methodology was found to be useful in designing a people-centred, locally relevant training programme, but was not effective in training large numbers.

The direct approach to training developed by the university system during the 1980s targeted student volunteers and non-student animators. The students received ten hours of training, the non-students seventy hours, followed by a refresher course of ten hours after six months. The thrust of the training programme was to acquaint participants with the conceptual and operational aspects of adult education programmes (Shah, 2004, p. 43).

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There are concerns about the lack of specific adult education educator training programmes at Higher Education institutions – in 2003, only 16 of 1,306 educator training courses were specifically in adult education.

The University of **Botswana**'s Department of Adult Education offers a number of qualifications to a growing number of students and trains a large number of extension workers from Southern and Eastern Africa. It has also played an active role in developing the *African Perspectives on Adult Learning* textbook series. The Botswana Training Authority accredits trainers and assessors.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

The need for a larger professional cadre of qualified adult educator practitioners (and managers) is an international one. The situation is beset with the treble problem of insufficient supply (partly because of insufficient practitioner development institutions), poor career prospects (partly because of the way formal schooling bureaucracies manage staffing of adult education), and, particularly for the lower level practitioners, poor conditions of service.

South Africa is beset with all these problems, now made worse by the crass dismantling by new corporatist university administrations of the modest infrastructure of adult education departments at universities and the threats of closure of the excellent Higher Certificate programmes run by some of them (the legacy of which was crucial for the staffing of the *Kha Ri Gude* literacy campaign).

Qualifications and the Qualifications Authorities

The move to have National Qualifications Frameworks is likely to sweep Africa in the next decade, a perhaps inevitable consequence of globalization and the internationalisation of standards in education and training and, in particular, the influence of a competency or outcomes based approach to learning. Adult education is not exempt from the impact of these trends and is attracted to the idea (yet to be proven in practice) that they will facilitate the entrance of adults to the various levels of formal education. South Africa, with its all encompassing National Qualifications Framework has, of course, played a leading role in these developments.

A National Qualifications Framework (NQF) can be seen as an organizing principle for both formal and non-formal education within the perspective of lifelong learning. In developing countries they can be seen as providing the necessary framework to enable people with low levels of basic education to gain validation of what basic learning they have (Formal or non-formal) and to go beyond it. In the context of global competition, work mobility and the new knowledge economy, adult learners have to be able to move beyond the mere communal validation of knowledge to a more public and national system of validation that also them to access further opportunities to develop new, wider and more complex competencies both nationally and transnationally. Hence there is a need for the development of national and possibly regional qualifications frameworks.

The development of qualifications frameworks can also be seen as a way of avoiding what Rosa María Torres calls the “dual education agenda” in terms of which *lifelong learning* is actively adopted in the North while *basic education* and *completion of primary education* are promoted in the South. Lifelong learning goes beyond Education for All It stresses the right of all to learn and to continue learning –across time and space. It aims to ensure that the poor have opportunities to meet their basic learning needs, to go beyond basic learning and to have their knowledge validated. The coupling of national (and regional) qualifications frameworks with the philosophy of lifelong learning presents an epistemological and “mechanical” scaffold for recognizing prior learning and for enabling access to further learning opportunities.

Adult education needs to have systems for learning validation which are equivalent to the systems of formal education, regardless of where and when the learning occurred. Basic and non-formal education needs to be included within the NQFs in order that they might access the “ladders” and “bridges” which avert educational dead-ends. This requires articulation between the different levels and kinds of learning.

Presently, South Africa (in particular), Namibia and Seychelles have gone some way towards establishing their qualifications framework. **Botswana**, Cap Verde, Kenya, Lesotho, Zambia

and Zimbabwe are currently engaged in the development of their qualifications framework, These countries believe that the NQF will be useful for integrating education and training, recognizing prior learning, and make it easier for adults to plan their careers and gain access to formal systems of education from which they were previously excluded. They also believe the standard setting and outcomes/competence-based approaches in such NQFs to be responsive to both social and economic demands. It is also argued that basic or non-formal education can be accommodated within the NQF.

However, the pre-CONFINTEA VI sub-Saharan Africa report, *The development and state of the art of adult learning and education (ALE)* (Aitchison and Alidou, 2009, p. 37) has expressed certain cautions about national qualification frameworks as beneficial to adult education:

- The intellectual technology of level descriptors, unit standards, specific outcomes, assessment criteria, cross-field outcomes, etc. is complicated and often mystifying (contrary to the rational intentions of a NQF) and it takes an inordinate amount of training to equip an educator or trainer to understand what the unit standards require and how to apply them in the learning environment.
- The effort required to develop standards and courses and qualifications based upon them and to be registered as a provider is incredibly resource intensive. Those resources go inevitably towards the mainstream and profitable sections of the education and training enterprise. NGOs providing adult education tend to be further marginalised in such a set up.
- Many unit standards have exit levels that are over ambitious and become formidable and unachievable obstacles to further learning.
- Integration and moving between academic and vocational qualifications and between formal education and the world of work remain difficult.
- Not all adult learners want accreditation. Many come to learn focussed skills, yet it is becoming increasingly difficult for providers to gain resources for other than so-called accredited programmes.
- The process of implementing the recognition of prior learning (RPL) is proving to be complicated and cumbersome and more work must be done to render it “operational”, particularly on any meaningful scale. Problems with regard to the RPL relate to is inaccessibility (and the self-interested refusal of educational providers to engage with it).
- A NQF encourages the overwhelming dominance of a discourse of standards and certification that, quite literally, renders formal most education and training provision which can have dire consequences for genuine non-formal education and its providers.

The issue of the recognition of prior learning

It has often been pointed out that in modern societies recognised educational qualifications are a crucial factor in the structuring of an individual’s life chances. It therefore become a matter of importance that people understand how qualification systems function and how their knowledge, skills and experience can be validated (including through the recognition of prior learning). People with such validation through recognised qualifications are more likely to continue to gain further validation of learning.

The **Republic of Korea** has an Academic Credit Bank System administered under the Act on Credit Recognition and Others, with an aim to formally recognize the diversity of learning outcomes and qualifications attained outside school boundaries, and confer degrees to individual adult learners who have successfully earned and accumulated a required amount of credits (many of them earned through government-approved courses at junior colleges or universities). There is a limited curriculum Bachelor's degree for self-education (by examination only).

In **Botswana** the intention behind the development of an NQF is to is, to put in place a system that ensures recognition of equivalency and that will give status and recognition to both formal and non-formal learning. The Botswana Training Authority was set up in 2000.

Botswana is in a phase of re-curricularisation of non-formal education and the new adult basic education curriculum has been developed in tandem with the National Qualifications Framework.

In **India** the Total Literacy Campaigns has no certification, neither is there certification for post-literacy and continuing education programmes of the NLM. However, recently, certification has been introduced via the equivalency programme of the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) and a few State Institutes of Open Schooling (SIOS) for neo literates and other groups of the NLM.

China has a **Self-taught examination system** which offers national examinations in diplomas. It had about 9.6 million candidates in 2007.

The Ministry of Labour issued a 1999 *Dictionary of Occupational Titles of the People's Republic of China*, identifying over 4,000 occupations in 40 trade sectors. Standards have been compiled for 1838 occupations and more than 3,200 technical rank standards of workers have been formally promulgated. A 8,000 institutional sites have been established in the country to continue this work of occupational skill identification so that there can be objective measurement and evaluation of the workers' technical theory and operational ability required for certain occupations. Occupational certificates had, by 2006, been issued to 70 million workers.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

South Africa has an operational comprehensive National Qualifications Framework (though its cumbersomeness might do with some simplification – adult education programme's have to jump through a huge number of hoops to be recognised (as compared to the easy ride of the schooling system)).

The United Kingdom's Wolf Report of 2010 (and summary of which is attached as an appendix to this review) may well have a profound influence on re-looking at how qualifications and the institutions that offer them should interrelate and be subsidised by the state in South Africa.

It is clear that recognition of prior learning is not functioning well (indeed hardly at all) and there are huge vested interests (particularly in higher education) inhibiting easy access and the rational accumulation and transfer of credits. This has a particularly harmful impact on poorer students starting their higher education career with Higher Certificates and Diplomas.

The possibility of two-year degrees should be considered.

The Adult Senior Certificate as an independent open access high quality examination should be fast tracked.

Provision and its modes

Because of the multiplicity of types of youth and adult education, this section of the review will only look at provision highlighted in the literature on the established and state recognised system(s) of adult and youth education in the countries under consideration. A distinction will be made between the types of provision (e.g. adult literacy, adult basic education, community college, etc.) and the modes of delivery (e.g. contact instruction in an institutional setting, full-time versus part-time, distance education, e-learning, apprenticeships, etc.)

As with any consideration of provision, the issue of participation has also to be examined. The Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, pp. 63, 65) makes the observations that:

In general, adult education participation rates are positively correlated with a country's level of economic development as measured by per capita GDP: on average, the more prosperous the country, the higher the participation rate.

...

Large differences in adult education participation between countries at different development stages are to be expected. However, variation between countries at the same development stage suggests that participation is not solely a function of income level (per capita GDP), but a consequence of other factors, perhaps particularly the impact of public policy. Several factors emerge from a reading of the National Reports:

- The degree to which public policies are supportive of adult education
- The extent to which governance and provision structures foster and promote adult participation in education and learning opportunities at work
- How much communities attach social value to adult learning and education
- The level of political commitment to diverse learning cultures and regard for learning as a means to improve social cohesion.

These factors help explain why some countries are more able than others at comparable per capita income levels to attain higher participation levels and relatively lower levels of inequity in access.

Types of provision

In most of the world government is the primary provider (either directly or via funding), though other stakeholders are associated with particular forms of adult education in different regions.

Basic skills and literacy programmes for adults are provided through the public sector and NGOs (the latter are often key providers of adult education programmes in the South, replacing government provision and being funded by international NGOs).

The private sector tends to be more involved in continuing vocational education and training and in-house workplace training as well as entrepreneurial and corporate education. Public-

private partnerships (PPPs) have become increasingly common as public education budgets have failed to accommodate the rising demand for vocational education and training. Larger firms tend to spend more per employee than smaller ones, though the bulk of the spend goes on those at the higher levels of the enterprise.

In the **United States of America** the main types of fundamental provision that are beneficiaries of state funding are **adult literacy, adult basic and adult secondary education and English as a second language**. Non-profit providers (whether state, private sector, religious bodies or NGOs) are contracted according to clear criteria and performance agreements (which include formal assessment of learning outcomes and in some cases job placement), but there is no standardisation on educational approaches, the detailed curriculum, etc. English Second Language instruction may be integrated with civics education as the learners are mainly immigrants.

Another area strongly supported by state funding is **post-secondary education**, mainly via programmes that increase access to post-secondary education for disadvantaged students by strengthening the capacity of colleges and universities that serve a high percentage of disadvantaged students, and provide teacher and student development resources. What is of note in the United States system is the wide variety of institutions available: technical or vocational institution, 2-year community or junior colleges, and 4-year colleges and universities. The delivery system is therefore very diverse with both credit and non-credit offerings in all the vocational fields. The main provider institutions are community colleges and technical colleges and other provider such as business and industry associations, unions, and for-profit educational institutions.

Sweden has a comprehensive but variegated set of formal and non-formal provision:

Formal:

Municipal adult education
Education for adults with learning disabilities
Swedish Tuition for Immigrants
Independent supplementary education
Advanced vocational education and training
Labour market training
In service training

Non-formal:

Study associations
Folk high schools

What is interesting is that these forms are delivered both directly by the state (mainly via municipalities) and via civil society associations (which are subsidized by the state).

Municipal adult education (Komvux) provides part time and full time certificated courses in second chance equivalents to compulsory and upper secondary education as well as a large number of vocational education and training courses. There is an adult orientated curriculum and study hours are shorter than in school (usually by 50%). Tuition is free. State grants cover teacher's salaries and other costs are met by the municipality. The education provided must be of the same quality as formal schooling but not with necessarily the same course content.

The pace and course mix is very flexible. Entrance to a particular level is open. Whether the student has adequate background is judged by the student either after counselling or after having started the course. There is a phased system of school equivalency certification. Vocational study is also possible through municipal adult education:

- according to national syllabi corresponding to upper secondary school vocational lines
- according to upper secondary school specialised courses
- according to syllabi developed especially for adult education
- according to local syllabi agreed to by local labour and employer bodies and the National Board of Education.

In about half of the municipalities Komvux is administered by units separate from the school system, in about a quarter it is physically housed in school facilities, and in the remaining quarter it is poorly resourced and a sideline of the school facilities. In the early days school teachers used to work in Komvux part-time but this has since been discouraged.

Comprehensive in service training in workplaces is given at various levels and including varying proportions of practical vocational skills and theoretical study. It is carried out in collaboration with higher education institutions, municipal adult education bodies and private training companies.

Sweden also supports a range of immensely popular non-formal adult education run through study circles managed by ten adult education associations (which are affiliated to political, cooperative, trades union, church or popular movements) which are recognised by the government and funded to run study circles. It has been estimated that from 17% to 60% of the adult population attend these.

There are also Folk high schools that provide free tuition in general education for young people in rural areas. Most are run by popular movements and some by county councils and municipalities). All have residential facilities. They control their own syllabi and there are a variety of long and short courses. They do not have an examination system but provide progress reports (that have credential status). They are financed by grants from government at all levels.

Mature adult access to higher education is made relatively easy through different categories of entrance depending on educational history and certification as well as age and work experience (including housework!) as well as only 20% of places in each category being reserved for people straight out of school. Students can also enrol for a single course credit system (which can accumulate into a degree) and a majority of students now prefer this option.

In the **Republic of Korea** the providers fall into three main groups:

- lifelong education facilities, corporate bodies, and groups that have been approved, registered, and declared according to the Lifelong Education Act.

- private teaching institutes that teach lifelong and vocational education programs under the Act on the Establishment and Operation of Private Teaching Institutes and Extracurricular Lessons, with the exclusion of private teaching institutes offering courses on school curricula.
- others not categorised in terms of the first two categories. Many of these provide non-formal education and training.

A further categorisation is into diploma/degree-conferring and non-diploma/degree conferring facilities.

Diploma/degree-conferring lifelong education facilities include miscellaneous schools, high schools affiliated with industries, civic schools, civic high schools, technical high schools, special classes for work-study students, air and correspondence high schools, school-type diploma recognizing facilities, distance lifelong learning facilities, industrial universities, technical colleges, cyber universities, broadcast and correspondence universities, and special graduate schools.

Non-diploma/degree conferring facilities primarily take the form of affiliated institutes, such as facilities affiliated with schools, industries, media organizations, and civic groups, institutes for knowledge and human resources development, private distance lifelong education institutes, private teaching institutes, etc.

The current government has also launched schemes to nurture selected higher education institutions into leading providers of lifelong learning programmes for the regional community.

In **Brazil** most youth and adult education is done at municipal level but is typically funded and managed overall through national programmes of the state or the private sector.

A good example is the, since 2005, National Inclusion Programme for Young People (PROJOVEM) which assists young people aged between 18 and 29 with low levels of education and without formal jobs who were living in state capitals and a number of urban regions, offering them the chance to finish their primary education integrated with vocational training and community action in an 18 month programme that includes finishing their primary education, computer literacy, and qualifications in three jobs within a range of similar occupations. They can also develop a community action project and formulate a plan for their further vocational training. There is a similar, though smaller project, Rural PROJOVEM, that works with rural youth.

Universities are also actively involved in agrarian development and literacy work.

Vocational education and training in Brazil has mainly been under the control of and funded by employers (though some of these funds are via state collected levies on payrolls). About 55% of all vocational training is done by the private sector. An important non-governmental body providing vocational training is the 'System S' which involves a number of sectoral bodies.

The ageing of **Russia**'s population has been paralleled by a growth in continuing adult education on which the Russian adult education system focuses.

There is a unified system of continuing education at over 2,000 educational institutions and 1,000 on the job training sites, that includes the following interrelated components:

- a network of educational institutions (including open and distance learning institutions);
- national, regional and local authorities;
- research centres;
- educational programmes of various purposes;
- didactic approaches designed specifically for adult learners;
- adult education organisations;
- social services with an educational component;
- organisations engaged in public information activities;
- scientific and cultural institutions in so far as they engage in educational activities;
- methodological associations;
- mass media used for educational purposes.

The adult education system is trying to develop more flexible structures for providing educational services in line with the needs of the labour market. One form of continuing education is the so-called Adaptation and rehabilitation education for groups who do not have access to the formal system of professional education or who need their basic education upgraded to cope with a changing social and workplace environment. It includes various forms of vocational education. This category includes the retraining of ex-servicemen and the unemployed.

There is a growth of corporate sector based higher education institutions.

There are a small number of folk high schools on the Scandinavian model.

There is a trend towards institutionalisation and accreditation with certificated qualifications.

India, since independence, has tended to prioritise literacy instruction as the main form of adult education, often merged with agricultural development campaigns (as in the Farmer's Functional Literacy Programme and the Rural Functional Literacy Programme of the 1960s and 1970s respectively) and often involving more than one ministry.

At various times literacy instruction has been linked with functional skills training and post-literacy and continuing education. Currently it is run in a campaign mode through the National Literacy Mission (NLM), itself working through agencies at state and local levels.

Since 1997 the In 1997 the Scheme of Continuing Education was launched as a **separate** programme with a more life long learning agenda and much flexibility in operation. The main delivery point is at Continuing Education Centres (CECs) that are manned by a Animator and function as a "library, reading room, training, information, development (coordination and convergence), culture, sports, communication and discussion forum. The Continuing Education centre is seen as a permanent institution, located in a public place and open to all."

(p. 12) A major role is played by NGOs and many NGOs offer adult basic education programmes with support from these centres (though such support is in some cases restricted to narrowly defined adult basic education). The implementing agency at district level is usually a registered society, the District Literacy Society (Zila Saksharta Samiti), which acts as the coordinator and funder of the collective efforts of youth clubs, women's organisations, voluntary agencies, cooperative and small industries. Currently the bulk (about 66%) of federal adult education funding goes towards continuing education.

Indian tertiary education institutions are also used by the state to deliver adult education services. The National Institute of Open Schooling and a few state Institutes of Open Schooling have started offering equivalency programmes for neo literates and other client groups of the NLM.

China claims to have the biggest and most-diversified adult education system in the world. "By 2007, there were 53,900 institutions of adult education offering education for different academic certificates, including 413 adult colleges and universities, 742 senior secondary adult schools, 2,120 specialized secondary adult schools, 1,628 junior secondary adult schools, and 49,002 primary adult schools" (with 33,024 literacy classes) (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO and Chinese Adult Education Association, 2008, p. 19).

The Chinese system focuses mainly on post training and continuing education for the employed.

Modes of delivery

Qualifications

Notable in the **United States of America** is the broad range of diploma and degree qualifications:

- An **associate degree** requiring at least 2 years of study at a two year college (with this qualification equivalent to the first two years of a standard 4-year college curriculum and is transferable to such). It will usually also include some terminal vocational courses.
- A **bachelor's 4-year degree** at a 4-year college or university.
- Master's and doctoral degrees at universities and university colleges.
- Post-secondary technical training at a technical or vocational institution related to a specific career.

In **Brazil**, since 2002, National Institute for Educational Studies and Research offers the open access and free National Examination for Certification of Youth and Adults (ENCCEJA).

China has a Self-taught examination system which offers national examinations in diplomas. It had about 9.6 million candidates in 2007.

Community Learning Centres

Community learning centres are common in Asia and have been set up to provide flexible programmes for adults. These centres are outside the formal education system and usually include reading spaces and computer facilities, thus providing a literate environment at community level. They are usually managed locally and are of particular benefit to people with few opportunities for education, especially pre-school children, out-of-school children, women, youth and the elderly. They have been seen as a model for community development and lifelong learning.).

In the **Republic of Korea** there is a Small Library Movement working with both public and private libraries. The small libraries are in essence small multi-purpose community centres focussed around a small library.

In **India** since 1997 the Scheme of Continuing Education (essentially a post-literacy programme) delivers through Continuing Education Centres (CECs) that are manned by a Animator and function as a “library, reading room, training, information, development (coordination and convergence), culture, sports, communication and discussion forum. The Continuing Education centre is seen as a permanent institution, located in a public place and open to all.” (National Literacy Mission, 2008, p. 12) A major role is played by NGOs and many NGOs offer adult basic education programmes with support from these centres (though such support is in some cases restricted to narrowly defined adult basic education). The implementing agency at district level is usually a registered society, the District Literacy Society (Zila Saksharta Samiti), which acts as the coordinator and funder of the collective efforts of youth clubs, women’s organisations, voluntary agencies, cooperative and small industries.

One stop information and access centres

An interesting innovation that seeks to address the difficulty, complexity and administrative burden of coordinating vocational programmes with multiple job training is the setting up of One-Stop Career Centres (OSCCs) to provide information to job seekers and access to a broad range of employment and training services (though so far community colleges and other post-secondary institutions have not participated fully in the infrastructure of the OSCCs except in a few states).

Mobile education centres

China has a pilot system of mobile, in a medium-sized bus, distance education classrooms used in rural areas.

Distance and ICT-based e-learning

Distance and ICT-based e-learning are an increasingly popular modes of delivery, linked as it is with the lives of young adults who move in and out of education, training and work, and who may need to combine learning with work and family responsibilities. E-learning over the web is an important development with the potential to open up learning opportunities. Providers are increasingly responding to these trends by developing IT-based open and distance learning, including across international boundaries (much of it run by multi-national education and training companies).

In **Sweden** so-called National Adult Education is provided by distance education methods.

In the **Republic of Korea** the Korean National Open University (KNOU) has set up a state-of-the-art delivery infrastructure that can respond with high flexibility to the diversity of students' circumstances and learning preferences.

India is particularly prominent in its use of satellite technology for higher and adult education. However its use for basic literacy instruction was found to be not particularly effective.

The broadcast media resources are used extensively by the well known Indira Ghandi National Open University, modelled on the United Kingdom's Open University, and by other universities that also run distance education programmes. Many states also have their own state open universities. IGNOU plays some sort of coordinating and monitoring role via a Distance Education Council. There are a number of IGNOU distance education centres hosted by other institutions (but only one distance education centre per institution).

IGNOU plays a significant role in television broadcasting with their **Gyan darshan** (Knowledge vision) channels. They currently have access to six digital satellite channels which broadcasts 24 hours a day. They have 2000 telecentres.

In **China** the Ministry of Education's 1998 *Action Plan for Vitalizing Education toward the 21st Century* said that modern distance education was a necessity for the construction of an open network for education and the system of lifelong education in the age of the knowledge-based economy. The *Tenth Five-Year Plan of Educational Development in China* of 2002 reiterated this need for information-based education as a key factor in educational modernisation. China has one Central Television University and 44 provincial television universities using broadcast and television, print materials, multimedia courseware and internet courses. They operate on the slogan of "easier entrance and stricter exam marking schemes". There is also the Central Agricultural Broadcast and Television School. There is also much non-formal distance and broadcast adult education.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

What is striking is that the big and successful delivery systems have a wide range of programmes. They do not put all their eggs in one basket.

Because of the complexity of the field various degrees of devolution seems important.

There is not much striking evidence of any new innovative alternative forms of provision for youth and adult education. What leads to success is not any particular type or mode of provision. What **is** crucial is that there are bodies or nodes of governance for whom adult education provision is their sole concern, adequate funding, ease of access (in every sense) to learners, and rigorous assessment, monitoring, and evaluation.

One might single out a few individual pointers though:

- programmes for male youth may need special attention as the evidence is piling up that, once there is a degree of sexual equality in access to conventional schooling and higher education, that males will become the bulk of the undereducated in our society.
- popular local education centres in communities seem to work well in many countries (unlike the Public Adult Learning centres in South Africa).
- the potential for distance education (and including open access institutions) is huge.
- the current South African sole focus on ABET is a mistake. Adult secondary and continuing education must be a priority too.
- education through municipalities should be considered.
- a greater range of post-schooling qualifications is needed (in practice). The idea of two year degrees should also be considered.

The provision of lifelong learning opportunities

In the Republic of Korea lifelong education is seen as all systemic educational activities other than regular school education and includes basic adult literacy education, education for diploma achievement, vocational capacity-building education, liberal arts education, culture and arts education, and education on civic participation. Hence there is a huge range of providers.

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Labor are working together to introduce a lifelong learning account system so as to increase the participation of all citizens in lifelong learning activities. By enacting this system, the administration is particularly keen to internally integrate the diversity of vocational and lifelong education policies that are currently being implemented separately in dual tracks, by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Labour.

Public schools have to be available to offer lifelong education facilities and programmes to students, parents and citizens. A number of pilot schools have selected to do this in addition to the more regular after school programmes operating in about 27% of Korean schools. The current government has also launched schemes to nurture selected higher education institutions into leading providers of lifelong learning programmes for the regional community.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

Policy wise South Africa has an adequate stance on lifelong education. The main problem is 'business as usual' attitudes and practices exhibited by forces in the educational bureaucracies the private sector and their self-interest in making a living or profit from that business as usual.

Assessment

Student assessment policies and practices vary enormously. There is a clear international trend for assessment to be taken much more seriously (parallel to what has happened in conventional schooling and post-school education and training). For assessment that leads to certification, the major issue has been on the nature of the equivalence of such certification to that of the formal initial education and training system.

The **United States of America** is particularly interesting because of the institution of the General Education Development (GED) examinations which are equivalent to the high school diploma. These are widely used in adult secondary education and are a recognised open entry high school diploma equivalency assessment using norm-referenced tests in reading, writing, mathematics, science and social studies. Those who attain it are considered to outperform at least one-third of high school seniors. It is almost universally recognised by employers as equivalent to a high school diploma and successful candidates generally improve their earning capacity.

There are criticisms of GED on two grounds. Some worry that the schools intent on raising their grade 12 pass rates may be tempted to recommend struggling students drop out of high school and pursue a GED certificate instead. Other critics have seen the examinations as easier than conventional ones. However the tests were revised in 2002 to include more essay type questions as well as ones that stressed analytical ability and problem-solving skills.

Clearly it is important that any open access second chance adult examination system must not dysfunctionally provide an incentive for high schools to extrude students as drop-outs. Two ways of preventing this are to make sure that the standard is not easier but more rigorous than that of the equivalent level of schooling and to set a minimum entrance age.

In **Brazil** the National Examination for Certification of Youth and Adults. This was inaugurated in 2002 by the National Institute for Educational Studies and Research (INEP), the independent agency linked to the Ministry of Education which is responsible for evaluation systems in basic and higher education), as a voluntary assessment instrument offered free to people who have not had the opportunity to finish their studies at the proper age. It measures competences and provides educational qualifications at primary and secondary levels. This was a controversial move (as previously municipal, state and district education secretariats had handled examinations and tests) and some youth and adult education committees felt that “it favoured the proliferation of low quality private preparatory courses and threatened the development of classroom-based teaching which included assessment as part of the process, as well as the educational autonomy of states and municipalities.” (Ministry of Education, p. 12).

India’s Total Literacy Campaigns have both internal and external evaluation as well as assessment of learners in terms of NLM prescribed norms/levels of literacy proficiency.

However, there is no certification, neither is there certification for post-literacy and continuing education programmes of the NLM.

In several countries it seems to be a principle that the assessment of adult learners for open access qualifications should be extremely rigorous so that there is no possibility of them being considered inferior to schooling ones.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

In principle South Africa has good system of assessment quality control (particularly for general and further education via Umalusi). However the extent to which Umalusi currently has the interest, capacity or funding to oversee quality control of assessment of the broader field of adult education at this level is questionable.

This situation of quality control of assessment in vocational education and training is more vexing.

It can be well argued that the new Adult Senior Certificate should have very rigorous assessment.

Quality assurance: monitoring, evaluation and research

The African statement (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 6) has several recommendations about quality assurance, monitoring and evaluation:

Governments should develop quality assessment, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms as well as ensure that research and data collection take place in order to formulate and regulate policies and programmes and to evaluate the impact of youth and ALE. They should also develop frameworks for learning validation which are equivalent to systems of formal education, regardless of where and when the learning occurred and ensuring fair equivalence between formal and non-formal learning.

Quality assurance, monitoring and evaluation should be conducted at the sub-regional and regional level. A peer evaluation strategy that involves civil society should be developed. Regional information communication and management systems should be created to produce and disseminate results and best practice.

African states should establish a monitoring mechanism with clear benchmarks and indicators for implementing these recommendations. The results of such activities must be communicated and shared at the regional level.

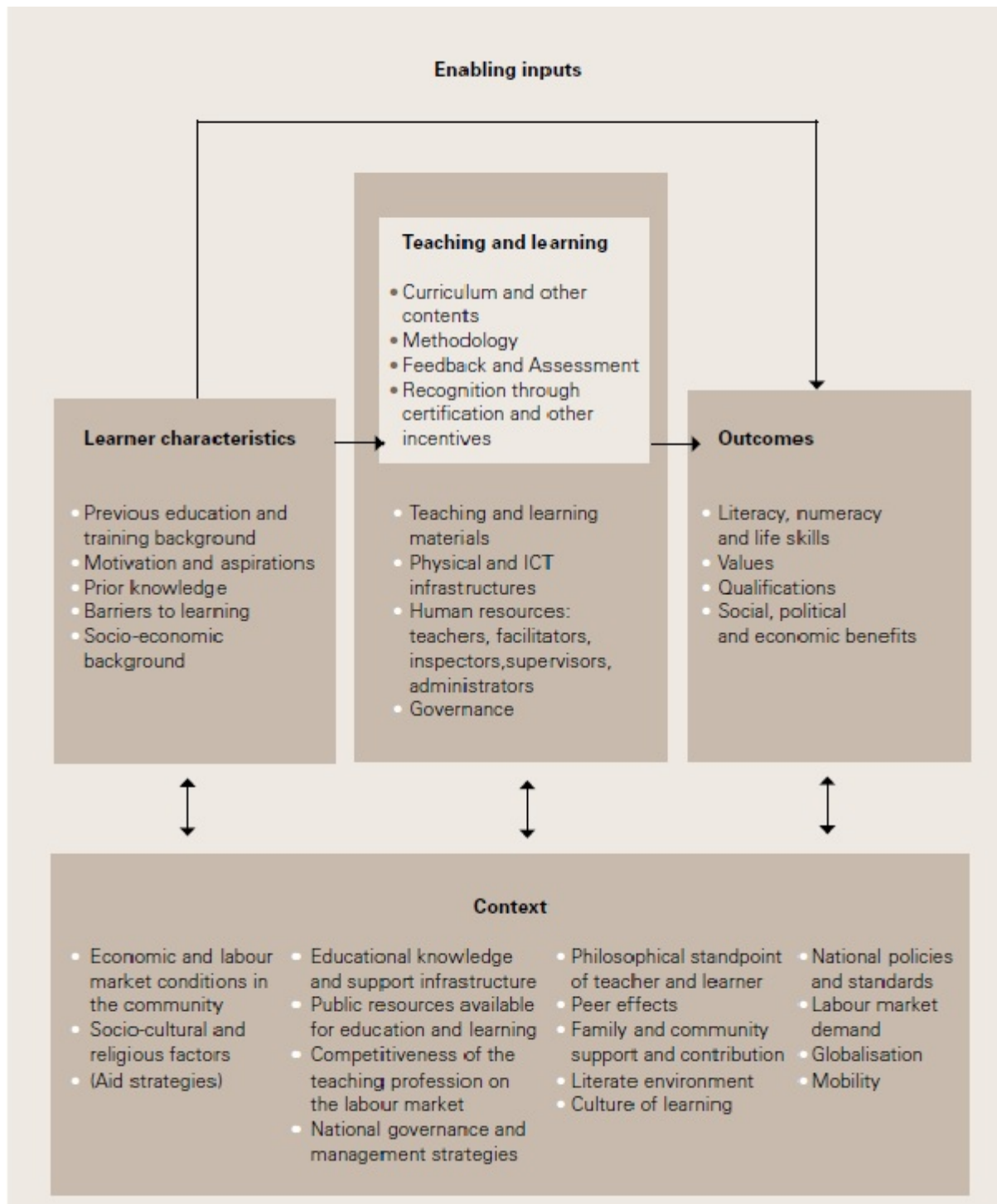
Quality assurance can be seen as combining the verification of the assessment of learning outcomes, the monitoring of adult education programmes and the evaluation, both institutional and programmatic, of adult education provision. Research can be seen as undergirding all aspects of quality assurance.

In the past few decades assuring the quality of adult education programmes and their outcomes has become much more central to policies and practice (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 79):

Three major imperatives underlie this development.

- Aggregate levels of education and qualification must rise to meet the demands of social and economic development. Under-achievement and drop-out rates must fall, and educational outcomes for the majority must improve.
- Public spending constraints, combined with the rapidly-emerging need to enable lifelong and life-wide learning, make it imperative to use resources effectively and efficiently.
- Increased deregulation and decentralisation of educational provision necessitate new kinds of monitoring and evaluation systems and processes, that is, quality assurance mechanisms.

The Global Report on Adult learning and Education (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong learning, 2010, p. 86) provides the following framework for understanding education quality:



Monitoring

There has been an enormous international impetus towards better monitoring of youth and adult education. One of the major recommendations of CONFINTEA VI was on (UNESCO, 2009b, pp. 6-7):

Monitoring the implementation of the Belém Framework for Action

Drawing strength from our collective will to reinvigorate adult learning and education in our countries and internationally, we commit ourselves to the following accountability and monitoring measures. We acknowledge the need for valid and reliable quantitative and qualitative data to inform our policy-making in adult learning and education. Working with our partners to design and implement regular recording and tracking mechanisms at national and international levels is paramount in realising the *Belém Framework for Action*.

To these ends, we commit ourselves to:

- (a) investing in a process to develop a set of comparable data indicators for literacy as a continuum and for adult education;
- (b) regularly collecting and analysing data and information on participation and progression in adult education programmes, disaggregated by gender and other factors, to evaluate change over time and to share good practice;
- (c) establishing a regular monitoring mechanism to assess the implementation of the commitments to CONFINTEA VI;
- (d) recommending the preparation of a triennial progress report to be submitted to UNESCO;
- (e) initiating regional monitoring mechanisms with clear benchmarks and indicators
- (f) producing a national progress report for a CONFINTEA VI Mid-Term Review, coinciding with the EFA and MDG timeline of 2015;
- (g) supporting South-South cooperation for the follow-up of MDG and EFA in the areas of adult literacy, adult education and lifelong learning;
- (h) monitoring collaboration in adult education across disciplines and across sectors such as agriculture, health and employment.

To support the follow-up and monitoring at the international level, we call upon UNESCO and its structures:

- (I) to provide support to Member States by designing and developing an open access knowledge management system to compile data and case studies of good practice, to which Member States themselves will contribute;
- (j) to develop guidelines on all learning outcomes, including those acquired through non-formal and informal learning, so that these may be recognised and validated;
- (k) to coordinate, through the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning in partnership with the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, a monitoring process at the global level to take stock and report periodically on progress in adult learning and education;
- (l) to produce, on this basis, the Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE) at regular intervals;
- (m) to review and update, by 2012, the *Nairobi Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education* (1976).

Also of particular note are the benchmarks developed by the Global Campaign for Education (2005) for monitoring adult literacy provision:

The writing the Wrongs: the 12 Adult Literacy Benchmarks

1. **Literacy is about the acquisition and use of reading, writing and numeracy skills**, and thereby the development of active citizenship, improved health and livelihoods, and gender equality. The goals of literacy programmes should reflect this understanding.
2. **Literacy should be seen as a continuous process** that requires sustained learning and application. There are no magic lines to cross from illiteracy into literacy. All policies and programmes should be defined to encourage sustained participation and celebrate progressive achievement rather than focussing on one-off provision with a single end point.
3. **Governments have the lead responsibility in meeting the right to adult literacy** and in providing leadership, policy frameworks, an enabling environment and resources. They should:
 - ensure cooperation across all relevant ministries and links to all relevant development programmes;
 - work in systematic collaboration with experienced civil society organisations;
 - ensure links between all these agencies, especially at the local level; and
 - ensure relevance to the issues in learners' lives by promoting the decentralisation of budgets and of decision making over curriculum, methods and materials.
4. **It is important to invest in ongoing feedback and evaluation mechanisms**, data systematization and strategic research. The focus of evaluations should be on the practical application of what has been learnt and the impact on active citizenship, improved health and livelihoods, and gender equality.
5. **To retain facilitators it is important that they should be paid at least the equivalent of the minimum wage of a primary school teacher** for all hours worked (including time for training, preparation and follow-up).
6. **Facilitators should be local people who receive substantial initial training** and regular refresher training, as well as having ongoing opportunities for exchanges with other facilitators. Governments should put in place a framework for the professional development of the adult literacy sector, including for trainers /supervisors – with full opportunities for facilitators across the country to access this (e.g. through distance education).
7. **There should be a ratio of at least 1 facilitator to 30 learners and at least 1 trainer/supervisor to 15 learner groups** (1 to 10 in remote areas), ensuring a minimum of one support visit per month. Programmes should have timetables that flexibly respond to the daily lives of learners but which provide for regular and sustained contact (e.g. twice a week for at least two years).
8. **In multilingual contexts it is important at all stages that learners should be given an active choice about the language in which they learn.** Active efforts should be made to encourage and sustain bilingual learning.
9. **A wide range of participatory methods should be used** in the learning process to ensure active engagement of learners and relevance to their lives. These same participatory methods and processes should be used at all levels of training of trainers and facilitators.

10. **Governments should take responsibility for stimulating the market for production and distribution of a wide variety of materials** suitable for new readers, for example by working with publishers / newspaper producers. They should balance this with funding for the local production of materials, especially by learners, facilitators and trainers.
11. **A good quality literacy programme that respects all these Benchmarks is likely to cost between US\$50 and US\$100 per learner per year** for at least three years (two years initial learning + ensuring further learning opportunities are available for all)
12. **Governments should dedicate at least 3% of their national education sector budgets to adult literacy programmes** as conceived in these Benchmarks. Where governments deliver on this, international donors should fill any remaining resource gaps (e.g. through including adult literacy in the Fast Track Initiative).

Source: Global Campaign for Education, 2005

An important international monitoring and research programme is the Improving literacy measurements: The Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP) run by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) since 2003 and piloted in a number of countries. The objective of LAMP is to develop a method that is simultaneously simple enough to be feasible, and complex enough to provide relevant and sound evidence reflecting the complexity of the acquisition of literacy.

Another interesting initiative is the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) managed by the OECD and currently being implemented in 27 countries in Europe, the Americas and Asia, the results of which will be available at the end of 2013. It will extend the scope of the measurement of adult skills to those relevant to the digital age, using recent developments in assessment technology. The target group is persons aged 16-65 years. PIAAC will assess (reading) literacy, numeracy and problem-solving in technology-rich environments. A particular emphasis will be placed on the cognitive skills needed to manage information in digital environments. The assessment will be based on digital texts (web sites and emails) as well as print-based materials.

In the **United States of America** there are strict performance criteria for federal funded programmes. States that achieve superior performance are eligible for incentive awards.

In **Brazil** a range of surveys have been done by universities and non-governmental organisations. A good example of this is the National Indicator of Functional Literacy, an initiative of two non-government organisations which, since 2001, have surveyed the literacy situation among Brazilians aged between 15 and 64.

The Solidarity Literacy Programme has a monitoring system to record the number of enrolments and the progress of learners. It has also carried out impact studies. The Literate Brazil Programme has introduced a register of learners, trainers and partner bodies which has been gradually improved to provide accurate information.

India has developed benchmarks have been determined for literacy and continuing education programmes in relation to participation and drop out of learners, attainment of learning outcomes, gender and other factors, economic impacts, target achievement, etc.

Monitoring Information Systems have been developed and applied to the large programmes. The National Literacy Mission, in particular, gathers data from every centre on monthly basis. Many programmes have prescribed monitoring formats.

Evaluation

Brazil's Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy and Diversity (SECAD), has, together with partners, developed a complex programme of evaluation involving several studies on investment, management, efficacy and programme impact. The evaluation of learning results is now based on standardised cognitive tests developed by university experts. Evaluation data is systematically used to redirect the programmes.

The National Inclusion Programme for Young People evaluates both teachers and learners as well using standardised examinations. Teams from six federal universities assist. Some providers are, however, fearful of this process believing that unsatisfactory results might result in closing programmes and not improving them.

India's National Literacy Mission has a highly developed professional system of evaluation for each component of its adult education programmes. Standardised evaluation guidelines have been developed through several rounds of regional workshops, meetings and consultations with adult education experts, selected representatives of concerned stakeholders and premier research and evaluation organizations and institutions.

The process the NLM uses when it receives an evaluation request to evaluate a district programme of literacy, post-literacy or continuing education is to forward the names of three empanelled agencies, having familiarity with the language of the district, to the National Adult Education Bureau. The three agencies bid for the contract and one is chosen by the State Literacy Mission Authority. Financial provision to meet the costs of evaluations is an in built component of the approved district project.

Botswana's National Literacy Programme has been extensively evaluated many times and is an interesting case study. The many evaluations over the years generally argued against its heavily centralised planning and implementation which provided little scope for local variations responsive to needs and contexts. A more collaborative structure was recommended and the decentralizing of the design and development of learning materials. The centralized curriculum was seen as not supporting linguistic, cultural, or socioeconomic diversity and that it needed a thorough reorganisation. In 2005 the Ministry of Education itself accepted the need for changes (Ministry of Education, 2005a).

The evaluative history of the programme that is the major provider of literacy education in Botswana highlights several important points but also raises concerns about the impact of evaluation:

- It was a state sponsored programme with some degree of political will behind it, though that political will may have overemphasised the centralised control evident in its approach, curriculum and implementation.
- There is evidence of a lack of involvement of other agencies, such as NGOs and churches, as partners in the programme.
- The programme was well exposed to a number of evaluations and monitoring checks. Clearly much monitoring was done, though there is some ambiguity as to how much evaluation recommendations actually led to major renovations rather than technical adjustments. The growing number of critical comments by evaluators and academic commentators suggest that a thorough re-conceptualisation has not happened.
- The main current direction seem to have been towards a more formalised adult basic education schooling equivalence model rather than attempts to extend to the programme to more marginalised and hard to reach communities.

Research

Research capacity is a necessary component of any healthy education system. It is equally clear that the more successful adult education systems have such research capacity, though there remain considerable difficulties associated with the data required for research studies.

The African statement notes that (UNESCO, 2009, pp. 3, 6)

... There is a failure to generate reliable, relevant data and statistics on all youth and ALE in its wide scope. This undermines the development of adequate policy, plans and programmes. A rapid pan-African clarification and standardisation of the terminology and concepts relating to youth and ALE is required to enable comparability of data and to help regional collaboration and the dissemination of information and research. Universities must be re-engaged and strengthened as vital research and practitioner development partners in youth and ALE.

...

Governments should develop quality assessment, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms as well as ensure that research and data collection take place in order to formulate and regulate policies and programmes and to evaluate the impact of youth and ALE.

Also, most countries with effective adult education systems have a signal role for universities as research and policy resources for the system, but the African statement expresses great concern at the lack of recognition of the role of universities in adult education (UNESCO, 2009a, 3, 4, 5):

Universities must be re-engaged and strengthened as vital research and practitioner development partners in youth and ALE.

...

The role of African universities as both research and training institutions is not well recognised, even though it is essential for developing policy-makers, adult educators and facilitators, for researching youth and ALE and also for providing various forms of continuing education and non-formal education for adult learners. Some universities have not been flexible and responsive enough in their role in supporting youth and ALE. Funding institutional development and research at higher education level has been absent, inadequate or poorly sustained.

There is a crisis at the bottom of the field at the level of the literacy, non-formal and adult education facilitators and another (less obvious but of particular long-term importance) at the top, at higher education institutions which are meant to nurture new leaders, specialists and practitioners of adult education. Calls for the professionalisation of adult education practice have been inadequately dealt with. Many adult education practitioner qualifications and training programmes are not recognised and there is a need for better conditions of service, and for the strengthening of the tertiary institutions, both nationally and regionally, that educate and train practitioners, managers and policy developers in adult education.

and

There should be increased training and research capacity-building through the creation and development of higher and other tertiary education institutes (including vocational and technical institutions), ALE research centres and departments for the development of educators and trainers

Historically, in many countries university centres for adult education started as forms of community service – the research, policy development and practitioner development roles came later (as they did in South Africa). The international trend of reducing funding support for higher education community education service in favour of vocational training has had the consequence of harming this essential research resource (as has happened to deadly effect over the last fifteen years in South Africa with the virtual dismantling of higher education's capacity to support adult education research and policy development).

In the **United States of America** there is national dissemination of research findings into usable classroom strategies. There are also regulatory procedures to determine and approve the suitability of tests for measuring educational gain as defined in the National Reporting System. In 2001 the United States Department of Education conducted a National Household Education Survey.

In **Sweden**, in 2001 the School of Education and Communication was commissioned by the Government to develop a unique centre for adult learning and lifelong learning. The centre has launched a research programme on lifelong learning.

In the **Republic of Korea** universities have the same lifelong learning responsibility as other educational institutions and the majority operate lifelong education centres. The national report of 2008 notes that (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and National Institute for Lifelong Education. 2008, p. 49):

Universities hold a comparative advantage over other lifelong education providers and are highly favored by adult learners, in that they possess the capacity to suffice 21st century demands for lifelong learning in a systemic manner.

A major feature of lifelong education centers affiliated with universities is that they offer a much wider range of program options to choose from, such as credit bank programs and specialized vocational programs. In terms of program development and planning, they also show a higher level of professional capacity. By mobilizing the bulk of human and physical resources possessed by universities, university affiliated lifelong education centers are able to formulate tailored programs for learners, thus contributing to enhancing individual capacity and professional skills, and also nurturing talents capable of global competition.

However, a worrisome phenomenon that has come to the fore in recent years is that many of these centers are degrading themselves into practitioners of academic capitalism, concentrating on the goal of garnering profits only and not on expanding educational reach and contribution to the public.

At national level the National Institute for Lifelong Education has a responsibility to carry out research and surveys on lifelong education and to collect and provide information on lifelong education (including maintaining a lifelong education database).

In **Brazil** university research expertise is used for developing better means of assessing learning outcomes. The evaluation of learning results is now based on standardised cognitive tests developed by university experts that provide a more rigorous comparative measurement than the opinions of trainers concerning their students. The National Inclusion Programme for Young People uses teams from six federal universities assist to assist in standardising their assessments. Some providers are, however, fearful of this process believing that unsatisfactory results might result in closing programmes and not improving them. Universities are also responsible for many of the surveys conducted. It has been found that university extension activities can be extremely productive when they are properly integrated with teaching and research.

In the **Russian Federation** much survey research has been done into the demand, funding and obstacles facing continuing professional education and into the role of corporate universities.

Systematic scientific research work in the field of adult education is carried out by the Institute of Adult Education of the Russian Academy of Education in St. Petersburg. This is the only academic institute in the country that conducts research work and surveys on adult education and related areas. This Institute (Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation, p. 18):

- develops strategy and builds social partnerships with state and public
- organisations in the field of adult education – general and professional, formal and non-formal;
- collaborates with international organisations and leading adult education centres of the world in formulating the scientific, organisational and legal prerequisites for elaborating adult education policy in Russia and the CIS countries, taking into consideration modern global tendencies;
- carries out various kinds of complex interdisciplinary research work;
- coordinates scientific research work and practical activities related to adult education and carried out in regional adult education centres in Russia;
- trains people towards higher scientific and pedagogical qualifications recognised in Russia and the Commonwealth of Independent States countries;
- promotes diverse educational activities related to the training of various groups within the adult population (e.g. parents, company personnel, the unemployed, the disabled, retired servicemen, external students, migrants and prisoners);
- carries out publishing activities;
- offers consulting and educational services to institutions, management authorities, the social services and private citizens.

In **India** the Directorate of Adult Education (DAE) under the Department of School Education and Literacy, as part of its regular activities, commissions research on and evaluations of adult education programmes. There are about 70 departments of adult education at Indian universities.

The Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA), New Delhi brings out the quarterly Indian Journal of Adult Education containing research based and scholarly articles on adult education. The Departments/Centres of Adult and Continuing Education and Extensions of

some of the Universities also undertake research studies as part of the degree or diploma courses. Research initiative by IAEA and universities are not funded by the National Literacy Mission though one of three documentation centres set up by the Mission is housed with the Association.

China has about 100 specialized state institutions for adult education research established by the Ministry of Education, such as the Research Centre for Adult Education which is part of the China National Institute for Educational Research and the institutes for adult education research set up by the academies and institutes of education science at the provincial, municipal and autonomous regional levels. Other adult education research bodies are found at adult universities and colleges. Most of the researchers in these institutions are part-time professionals.

There are also a number of societies and associations, the biggest of which is the Chinese Adult Education Association which has 13 secondary committees and research institutes on literacy education, enterprise education, rural adult education, specialized secondary adult education, and research on adult education. Others are the Chinese Society of Workers Education and Vocational Training, the Chinese Association of Continuing Engineering Education, the Chinese Association of Senior Citizens Education and the Chinese Society of Agricultural Science.

In **Botswana**, the Department of Adult Education at the University of Botswana has conducted a number of major studies and evaluations. It is the lead agency responsible for the training of out-of-school education personnel and for research and evaluation in this sector.

A Botswana literacy survey, modelled on that undertaken in Kenya, has provided crucial data on the extent of illiteracy in the country.

The **Kenya** National Adult Literacy Survey of 2006, published in 2007, assessed the adult literacy situation and also evaluated the impact of the national literacy programme and other providers. The survey took place about two decades after the last literacy survey and covered 18,000 households spread over all districts. It combined the traditional self-declaration of literacy competency with the actual testing of the mastery of skills. It sought to establish the magnitude, levels and distribution of adult literacy for persons aged 15 years and above; obtain comprehensive data and information on adult literacy from literacy providers and stakeholders in both private and public sectors; and identify issues of concern which need to be addressed. Kenya has participated in the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) and in the UNESCO's Institute for Statistics' Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP, 2004-06) from which she gained the necessary expertise to conduct her own literacy survey.

The survey was highly collaborative, bringing together several government departments, ministries, CSOs, FBOs, as well as development partners, and it became a major training ground for literacy researchers at various levels including the communities themselves. The preparation, implementation and dissemination of the survey findings all over the country became an effective tool for advocacy for adult education and for the mobilization of learners.

The survey recorded the low visibility of adult education programmes in the country. Despite a general decline in support for adult and continuing education and other social services programmes in the last two decades, it was clear from the survey that the needy adults continued to patronize the programmes offered by the Department of Adult Education and by the many other stakeholders. The survey revealed that there was need to make the adult education programmes relevant to the needs of adult learners and also guarantee effective and efficient monitoring and evaluation to ensure quality. Other findings include acute shortage of teachers, lack of a clear Adult and Continuing Education policy, lack of clear transition mechanisms, limited access to programmes, negative image, inadequate teaching and learning materials, limited capacity for quality assurance and standards and limited ICT capacity for e-learning.

The survey has had tremendous effects on policy and practice of in Kenya. The study has given impetus and dramatic influence on the national Adult and Continuing Education policy which is in its final stages of development. At programme level, it has influenced the initiation, development and implementation of Department of Adult Education programmes in the country. Special focus is now being given to marginalised and hard-to-reach groups. Low participation of men for example is being addressed through initiation of male-only classes in every district. The Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET 1) curriculum has been reviewed to make it relevant to the needs of learners and the next level (ABET 2) curriculum is under review. A literacy centre has been established in every administrative location to ensure increased access and enhanced visibility. At stakeholder level, there has been renewed interest in literacy programmes resulting in increased collaboration and sharing and the development of regional-based action plans.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

The evidence is clear that a healthy youth and adult education system needs monitoring, evaluation and research and that all of these require excellent flows of accurate data. Universities, and departments of adult education in them, play a particularly important part in such work.

It is tragic that unthinking university administrations have virtually dismantled the adult education base that was built up in South African universities from the late 1970s to the mid-1990s. They also received no support, indeed rather much hostility, from the Department of Education during the most of the post-apartheid period. This situation needs to be rectified before it is too late. Much may depend on their being some kind of national institute of adult education to which they could relate more directly.

Data supply is an ongoing problem in adult education, made worse by the variegated nature of the field. The poverty of the Department of Education's own data on the public adult learning centres has been an ongoing scandal for years. Data can be generated, swiftly and efficiently, as the *Kha Ri Gude literacy* campaign has demonstrated. Future funding for all implementation should resolutely be dependent on good data flows.

There are many evaluations done in South Africa. However the capacity (or rather the will) to share evaluation information is weak, as is the will to respond to it.

Relationship with and service to communities and civil society

The current international literature on adult education system is curiously silent on the issue of relationships with and service to communities, business and industry (including graduate placement programmes). This is no doubt partly explained by the dominance of a fairly instrumentalist approach to adult education. Adult education is seen as having obvious outcomes and both state and civil society providers of adult education work directly towards them. Such outcomes may, of course, be extremely beneficial to communities and society.

Historically the linkage of adult education with a discourse of service to communities and society was one the one hand a reflection of the often radical goals of adult education activists and on the other linked to attempts to justify adult education being provided by institutions (such as universities) for whom it was not their main purpose.

The decline of support for university based community education and extension activities has impacted on this. It can be seen in the decline in the United States of federal funding for community education programmes run by higher education institutions.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

The current very instrumental approach to formal adult education in South Africa misses out on the vital importance of adult education's social mission.

Funding

Of the state of funding arrangements for adult education in Africa the Nairobi statement, (UNESCO, 2009a, p. 3) is clear:

Education (and particularly youth and ALE) is seldom viewed as an investment rather than simply as an expenditure. Funding of youth and ALE is seldom based on an adequate needs assessment, research data or adequate costing and budgeting. Existing benchmarks for the proportion of the national education budget dedicated to youth and ALE (as a whole or merely to literacy) are poorly understood and adhered to.

Africa has seen many declines in adult education spending since the immediate post-independence period though, internationally, since the 1960s, the funding of adult education has tended to increase though harmed by the periods of economic recession over the last forty years. These recession years have led to declines in *direct* state funding for adult education in many countries, though this has been counterbalanced by growing investment in vocational training to deal with technological advances and unemployment (and sometimes the unemployability of school leavers). Indeed vocational training is what continues to get the money in the modern world and particularly in the developed countries where an ageing population and technological advances make the retraining of the existing workforce vital.

In examining the funding of adult education, the very diversity of the field makes it very difficult to gain reliable statistics on the funding of adult education provision. Answers to the questions : “Where does the money come from? “ ”What is its scale?” and “How does it actually get to adult education provision?” are hard to come by.

The sources of adult education funding are:

- **public monies**, much expended via ministries of education but in reality there is considerable spend by most ministries (though it is normally poorly documented) either centrally or via decentralised or local budgets,
- **foreign aid** (some public, some from international organisations) which may in many cases be indistinguishable from public funding if the foreign aid is directed through the government,
- **private financing** (from the private or corporate sector),
- **civil society financing** (civil society support to adult learning and education (e.g. religious institutions, unions, NGOs),
- **private donor financing**
- **learner contributions** (through tuition fees and other charges).

In the **United States of America** some money, targeted towards special interest groups comes from the federal government (via the aforementioned legislation). The trends in the disbursement of this money are clear:

- reduction of federal funding of community improvement programmes run by higher education institutions
- increases in literacy, English Second language, and basic education support
- increase in support for more access to college and university.

The Adult Education and Family Literacy Act grants to each state vary according to the ratio of adults with less than a high school diploma level of education. Individual states distribute 82.5 percent of these federal funds **competitively** to eligible **non-profit** providers, using 12 **quality criteria** identified in the law. These include demonstrated improvements in literacy levels and English language acquisition, gaining of a secondary school diploma or equivalent and movement into and retention in post-secondary education and training or employment or advancement in employment. There is strict performance accountability requirements via a National Reporting System (NRS) for states and local programmes that measure programme effectiveness on the basis of student academic achievement and employment related outcomes (entered employment and retained employment).

Although, given the so-called neo-liberal temper of the times, restrictions on the charging of fees for adult education services were lifted in 1998, in practice most programmes remain free.

The Workforce Investment Act of 1998 (WIA) provides grants to states based on a ratio of adults ages 16 and older who do not have a high school diploma and are not enrolled in secondary school. The state agencies designated to receive Title II of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998 (WIA) funds are also required to provide a minimum 25 percent match in state or local funds for adult education and literacy. The state agency generally distributes these federal funds by formula to local educational agencies – community-based organizations, faith-based organisations, literacy organizations, community, junior or technical colleges, institutions of higher education, correctional institutions, libraries and other public or private nonprofit institutions.

Funds from the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006 (Perkins IV) goes to eligible institutions that provide credit-bearing courses and programmes in adult and vocational education that are aimed at aligning adult vocational education with workforce development priorities. This Act's funding is the largest single source of federal funding for high schools.

Some of the problems associated with this federal grants model are the:

- differences between the accountability measures of the main federal funding initiatives which place an increased data collection burden on participating institutions
- extensive re-recognition procedures to meet certification (accreditation) requirements
- inadequate structures to collect the required data
- the substantial effort required to develop new management information systems or to adapt old one.

In **Sweden** the state finances adult education through state grants in the form of general government grants to municipalities plus the municipalities themselves providing facilities. The actual running and financing of schools and adult education takes place at a municipal level through its Local Education Authority which receive state subsidies of up to 95-98% of tuition costs as well as occasional aid for premises and equipment. These government grants aim to equalise inequalities between all municipalities and county councils. There are also special *ad hoc* government grants.

Mature students qualify for a range of financial benefits (including in some cases living costs) particularly those in unskilled strenuous jobs and housewives wishing to reenter the labour market. Grundvux students can get compensation for wages lost or in some cases a study wage. A 1975 Act Concerning an Employee's right to Educational Leave entitles all employees to educational leave to attend Municipal Adult Education on certain conditions and for a limited period of time, though no provision is made for or maintenance of wages or for payment in lieu of them. However state grants and loans are available for both full and part time study. Private providers charge fees and study circle participants pay fees.

The **Republic of Korea** is one of the few countries that provide a breakdown of lifelong learning budgets per ministry (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and National Institute for Lifelong Education. 2008, p.17). It is instructive that the Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development contributes only 9% of the overall spend by government ministries on lifelong education, itself only 1.56% of the national budget. The largest percentage of this lifelong learning spend goes on vocational capacity building (76.8%), 12.8% on self-actualization, 5.7% on general capacity building, 4.8% on civic education, and 0.1% on accreditation of educational qualifications. However they admit that a lack of coordination between budget-providing ministries has resulted in a low level of cost effectiveness.

About 1.88% of the metropolitan and provincial budgets goes on lifelong education. Much of this funding goes towards expenses for the operation of lifelong education facilities, such as pilot schools of lifelong learning, regional Lifelong Learning Information Centres, public libraries, training lifelong educators, and running volunteer programmes and supporting lifelong education festivals.

The corporate sector also plays an important role in funding vocational and workplace training. Some corporates are beginning to support non-vocational lifelong education for employees as well.

With vocational education there is strong fee support to learners:

- workers can freely attend courses of their choice, provided they complete at least 80% of any course they enrol on.
- low-interest rate loans are provided to employees who study at technical universities, cyber universities and junior and higher colleges.
- government subsidized paid leave and study costs support is given for workers who have employment insurance to attend vocational training programmes

- subsidized youth and young adult vocational capacity-building and transport and subsistence support. (This operates on a voucher system).

There are also over 188,750 private teaching institutes, the total expenditure of which is over seven times the government's total lifelong education budget. (They are also very profitable, making, overall, a 30% profit).

Brazil's funding of adult education has, at times been hampered by the problem of unfunded mandates, the recognition of which led, in 1996, a Constitutional Amendment which deleted the provision committing the federal state to eradicate illiteracy and provide universal primary education by 1998 and to provide a half of the education budget for these purposes!

Estimates have been made that twice the current funding for youth and adult education is needed to meet National Plan for Education objectives. The fact that public adult education is not allowed to charge fees (though it is allowed in the private sector) is a major factor here.

Funding for youth and adult education comes from taxes and a 2.5% training levy. Adult education funding has been rising in municipal budgets and declining in federal and state budgets, though there are moves to increase federal funding. The percentage of the federal education budget spent on youth and adult education has risen to 3.5%. Other significant investments come from other ministries.

Initially much literacy teacher training done by NGOs was funded by the state but decreased and stopped in 2007 and now the grants go 60% to states and 40% to municipalities.

In the **Russian Federation** some 1.65% of the Federal budget goes on retraining and further training and 3% of the Funded Budget also goes on retraining and further training.

These budgets fund the following:

- Sponsored study by adults over 25 years at secondary and higher education institutions
- Preparatory courses at state universities for ex-servicemen
- Retraining for ex-servicemen
- Public and armed service retraining (once in five years)
- Retraining for the unemployed referred to educational institutions.

Consideration is being given to fund Russian language and social integration studies for immigrants in the labour force.

Municipal budgets cover the costs of retraining and further training for municipal servants.

There is also considerable corporate sector expenditure on additional training both in house and outsourced to external organisations (including higher education institutions).

In **India** adult education only receives a small percentage of the overall education budget, only about 18% of what is considered a realistic benchmark. About 66% of federal adult education funding goes towards continuing education.

Although India has heavily relied upon volunteer adult educators, many state governments have started experimenting with paying a small stipend to literacy instructors. Continuing education instructors have long received payment.

China's adult education system is funded by the state. The proportion of the education budget devoted to adult education has declined from 3.2% in 1997 to 1.8% in 2006 and is considered insufficient.

The costs for labour preparation training are carried jointly by trainees and employers with some government support.

There is a skills training levy of 1.5% (up to 2.5% in certain industries) of the total salary of enterprise workers that has to be spent on workers' education and training. Some training is funded at training institutions sponsored by enterprise organisations.

Funding for literacy classes is raised by local government and educational institutions. In workplaces literacy education can be funded from the training levy. In addition central finance is also allocated to certain regions and particularly ethnic minority regions.

In **Venezuela** funding is directed to special 'missions' (more or less equivalent to Presidential lead programmes). Since 1999 education in Venezuela has been free, compulsory and inclusive.

In **Botswana** in 2009 the Department of Vocational Education and Training received some 4.3% of the total money allocated to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development and the Department of Non-Formal Education received 1.3%. Considerable amounts of international aid for adult education and literacy have been received by Botswana from UNESCO and the Commonwealth of Learning.

Equity adjustments in funding

Some countries have means of adjusting funding so that disadvantaged and poor regions or groups of people receive preferential support.

In the **United States of America** the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act grants to each state vary according to the ratio of adults with less than a high school diploma level of education. A similar provision based on a ratio of adults ages 16 and older who do not have a high school diploma and are not enrolled in secondary school. applies to grants from Workforce Investment Act of 1998.

In **Sweden** the government grants aim to equalise inequalities between all municipalities and county councils.

In **Brazil** funding of adult education in municipalities is weighed according to the poverty of the area. No fees may be charged for public provision. A number of federally funded institutions now have to reserve a percentage of their places for youth and adult learners.

In Brazil the apportionment of the funding for the state level structures of the National Literacy Mission is done according to the level of illiteracy and under-education in the various states.

Observations on applicability to South Africa

It is clear that South Africa faces the same problem of most countries – getting sufficient funding to meet the estimated need. Positively South Africa already has a skills levy, a growing phenomenon internationally, though how it is distributed may be a point for action. Inter-ministerial coordination is both a challenge and a promising area in respect of funding.

It is also clear that in many countries the granting and continuation of funding is much more rigorously based upon competition amongst providers and well monitored performance.

Many countries have much better regulation of the distribution of funding in an equitable way. One notes that there continue to be enormous disparities between the provinces in state adult basic education spend in South Africa. For example Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal have roughly the same population size though KwaZulu-Natal has a much lower general education level, yet in the period 2003 to 2007 state ABET spending in Gauteng was more than double that in KwaZulu-Natal.

It seems common adult education practice for no tuition fees to be charged for basic adult education.

Case studies of policy and provision – ten international examples

The preceding review placed a particular focus, though not exclusively so, on information drawn from a selection of countries from the developed world (the United States of America, Sweden from the Scandinavian countries, and South Korea), the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China), Cuba and Venezuela, and developing countries (Botswana). The case studies are themselves very dependent on the national reports generated as resource documents for UNESCO's CONFINTEA VI held in Brazil at the end of 2009 (<http://www.unesco.org/en/confinteavi/national-reports/>). These case studies have concentrated on the institutional forms of youth and adult education provision rather than on details of practice.

The developed countries

In the developed countries of Western Europe and North America adult education was originally a set of private, voluntary initiatives as the educational priorities of governments were to support universal schooling for children and to improve higher education. Only with time was adult education able to garner state or public authority financial support. When public authorities did begin to offer some degree of financial support they did not compete with the voluntary bodies which by now had accepted as a political and educational principle that adult education provision should remain under non-governmental control, preferably locally based. Developed countries have by and large continued to accept some form of this position because of their continuing prioritisation of schooling, higher education and vocational education and training. In addition it was argued that it was easier and cheaper to operate through the non-governmental adult education networks that were best equipped (through flexibility, sensitivity, local involvement and even radical political profile) to reach those most in need of adult education. Indeed in a number of countries private sector and non-governmental adult education provision is legislatively protected from undue state interference.

However, with the expansion for adult education in the latter part of the 20th century, voluntary adult education began to lose its monopoly and became increasingly dependent on funding from the state that was to be used for priorities decided on by the state. This was linked to two developments, firstly, the growth of state (or other public sector) provision of formal certificated school equivalency adult education (as governments tried to ensure that all citizens, of whatever age, have attained at least the level of compulsory schooling), and secondly, the viewing of adult education as an integral part of a policy of lifelong learning. Allied to the growth of state funding was the greater centralisation and regulation of adult education and the tendency for professionally trained adult educators to become the decision-makers for adult and continuing education.

Periods of economic recession in the 1970s and subsequently have slowed and distorted this growth and have led to considerable declines in funding for adult education in some countries. This has, however, been somewhat counterbalanced by a growing stress on vocational training to deal with unemployment and the unemployability of young school leavers.

The BRIC countries

The Brazil, Russian Federation, India and China (BRIC) countries are of particular interest because of their size and their particular stage of development as they strive to become modern middle-income countries. Some of the interest arises because, firstly their adult education provision shows a clear move from an original focus on basic literacy towards continuing and lifelong learning and, secondly because South Africa sees itself as having strong commonalities with this grouping of countries, which it has formally allied itself to (hence BRICS).

Cuba and Venezuela

These two countries are included mainly because of their known commitment to adult education as drivers of development and egalitarianism and the recent examination of their models in the planning (in 2006 and 2007) of South Africa's *Kha Ri Gude* adult literacy campaign.

The developing countries

The developing countries, particularly those that became independent of colonial powers after the Second World War have tended to focus on literacy and often, confusingly, this has been seen as being the totality of 'adult education' or 'lifelong learning'. Equally confusingly, much literacy and adult basic education that replicates schooling for children is misnamed non-formal education to the disadvantage of genuine non-formal education, to attempts to get sound certification for this second chance schooling and to enable articulation between 'formal' and 'non-formal' education..

Continuing education (often vocational in character) is, however growing strongly in developing countries as they begin to reach a higher level of primary and secondary schooling attainment.

The regional report on sub-Saharan Africa prepared for CONFINTEA VI is a rich source of information about youth and adult education this region.

Developed Countries

The United States of America

Sweden

Republic of Korea

United States of America

The United States is a very adult learning intensive society – a National Household Education Survey in 2001 showed that almost half of the adults in the country over 16 years old participated in some form of lifelong learning during the year (United States Department of Education, 2003). Some of this is owing to the pressure, because of the decline in population growth, to replace retiring skilled workers and professionals, and from the huge demand for access to post-secondary (college and university) education.

In the United States of America, responsibility for education and adult education is placed at state level and federal government intervention is mainly at level of funding and regulations. The highly decentralized system of education means that there is no national framework laws that prescribe curricula or control most aspects of education. The federal government, although playing an important role in education, does not govern, establish, or license schools or educational institutions at any level. Federal legislation and funding is usually directed at special groups, situations and purposes (and often tends to be motivated by relatively short term goals).

Actual adult education provision is via a very diverse network of adult education providers including welfare agencies. Indeed, precisely because adult education is such a varied phenomenon operating in so many sites and controlled by so many authorities and institutions, it has been argued that efforts to centralise adult education may be self-defeating. Generally adult education theorists and decision makers in the United States have not welcomed centralised co-ordination schemes which they see as unable to cope with diversity and likely to stifle innovation.

The overall trends over the last three decades have been a reduction of federal spending on community improvement programmes run by higher education institutions, increases in literacy and basic education support (sometimes there is a division between adult education acts (applying to literacy and basic education) and higher education acts (which *inter alia* deal with continuing education and post-secondary level adult education)). Though, since 1998, a previous restriction on states charging fees for adult education services was abolished, most programmes remain free.

Up until 1998 there was an Adult Education Act that had served, though frequently amended, since 1964. It was superseded by a number of new laws affecting adult education, notably the Higher Education Act, the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act (Title II of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998) (though it appears to have lapsed in 2003, funds are still being allocated annually), and the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006 (Perkins IV). The Workforce Investment Act (WIA) made adult education part of a one-stop career centre (OSCC) system that includes many federally funded job training programmes. The Federal Department of Education establishes policy for, administers, and coordinates much of, the federal financial assistance for education, in accordance with these laws. It has an Office for Vocational and Adult Education (OVAE).

The federal government has increasingly funded adult education programmes that address the concerns about the one-quarter of the population aged 25-64 that have limited English proficiency and have not completed high school, or have completed high school but earn less than a living wage. Hence much federal funding supports getting greater, affordable access to adult and post-secondary education, focused in three main programmes areas:

- adult literacy/English as a second language programmes
- adult vocational training
- post-secondary education

At state level adult education programmes are located either in departments of (basic) education or, less frequently, in whatever agency is responsible for the community college or higher education system. A very few states (about ten) link them to their workforce development agency.

Adult literacy and English as a second language

The Division of Adult Education and Literacy under the Office of Vocational and Adult Education administers the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act (AEFLA) and has overall responsibility for enabling adults to acquire the basic skills necessary to function in today's society so that they can benefit from the completion of secondary school, enhance family life by giving parents the skills to become partners in their children's education, attain citizenship and participate in job training and retraining programmes. The main AEFLA programmes are below the post-secondary level and include::

- **Adult Basic Education (ABE)** (with a mainly older clientele)
- **Adult Secondary Education (ASE)** for (mainly young) adults whose literacy skills are at approximately high school level and who are seeking to pass the General Educational Development (GED) tests or obtain an adult high school credential (at a full-time adult high school) or pass the National External Diploma Programme. There are two levels – standardised initial placement and progress tests. The General Educational Development (GED) tests are very well used.
- **English Literacy (EL)** for adults (often immigrants) who lack proficiency in English and who seek to improve their literacy and competence in English. It is sometimes integrated with civics education (EL/Civics).

The AEFLA grants to each state vary according to the ratio of adults with less than a high school diploma level of education. Individual states distribute 82.5 percent of these federal funds competitively to eligible **non-profit** providers, using 12 quality criteria identified in the law. These include demonstrated improvements in literacy levels and English language acquisition, gaining of a secondary school diploma or equivalent and movement into and retention in post-secondary education and training or employment or advancement in employment.

The General Education Development (GED) examinations used in adult secondary education are a widely recognised open entry high school diploma equivalency assessment using norm-referenced tests in reading, writing, mathematics, science and social studies. Those who attain it are considered to outperform at least one-third of high school seniors. It is almost universally recognised by employers as equivalent to a high school diploma and successful candidates generally improve their earning capacity.

The GED Testing Service sets minimum scoring requirements, but states may choose to adopt higher passing scores. A handful of states require candidates to take a pretest that screens for whether or not someone is ready for the exams. States that don't screen candidates often have lower passing rates.

The tests were revised in 2002 to include more essay type questions as well as ones that stressed analytical ability and problem-solving skills.

There are criticisms of GED on two grounds. Some worry that the schools intent on raising their grade 12 pass rates may be tempted to recommend struggling students drop out of high school and pursue a GED certificate instead. Other critics see the examinations as easier than conventional ones. Clearly it is important that any open access second chance adult examination system must not dysfunctionally provide an incentive for high schools to extrude students as drop-outs. Two ways of preventing this are to make sure that the standard is not easier but more rigorous than that of the equivalent level of schooling and to set a minimum entrance age.

With AEFLA there are strict performance accountability requirements via a National Reporting System (NRS) for states and local programmes that measure program effectiveness on the basis of student academic achievement and employment related outcomes (entered employment and retained employment).

Adult Vocational training

The Division of Adult Education and Literacy under the Office of Vocational and Adult Education also administers Title II of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998 (WIA) which provides grants to states based on a ratio of adults ages 16 and older who do not have a high school diploma and are not enrolled in secondary school. The state agencies designated to receive Title II funds are also required to provide a minimum 25 percent match in state or local funds for adult education and literacy. The state agency generally distributes these federal funds by formula to local educational agencies, community-based organizations, faith-based organisations, literacy organizations, community, junior or technical colleges, institutions of higher education, correctional institutions, libraries and other public or private nonprofit institutions that offer adult education and literacy education programmes that meet the requirements of the law. Among them are institutions not eligible for Perkins funding that are the main providers of non-credit courses in adult and vocational education.

However, funding for adult vocational education comes primarily from the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act of 2006 (Perkins IV) administered by the Division of

Career and Technical Education under the Office of Vocational and Adult Education. Institutions eligible for Perkins funding provide credit-bearing courses and programmes in adult and vocational education that are aimed at aligning adult vocational education with workforce development priorities. The law aims to use this training to contribute to high school completion, transition into post-secondary education and training, postsecondary degree completion, and the national employment security, earnings, and lifelong career enhancement. It also specifically targets economically and academically disadvantaged recipients. The programmes prepare students for work immediately following high school along with incorporating rigorous and challenging academic content standards and the providing of a non-duplicative sequence of courses leading to an industry-recognized credential or certificate, or an associate or baccalaureate degree.

The Perkins IV Act funding is the largest single source of federal funding for high schools. However, many post-secondary programmes also receive Perkins funding:

- **Associate degree** programmes that provide degree programmes or transfer-up options that require two or more years to complete
- **Institutional certificate** programmes designed for job-related skills enhancement that usually take a year or less to complete
- **Industry skill certification** programmes developed and recognized by industry to build workforce skills assessed by an examination
- **Noncredit course work** that targets specific job-related skills or personal enrichment activities for vocational or avocation purposes

The actual delivery system is therefore very diverse with both credit and non-credit offerings in all the vocational fields. The 1,157 community colleges and technical colleges are the institutions primarily responsible for providing post-secondary adult vocational education. Other providers include business and industry associations, unions, and for-profit educational institutions.

Coordinating vocational programmes with workforce development efforts is a complex matter and there have been attempts to streamline the system as multiple job training programmes created an excessive administrative burden. One aspect of this was the setting up of One-Stop Career Centres (OSCCs) to provide information to job seekers and access to a broad range of employment and training services. So far community colleges and other post-secondary institutions have not participated fully in the infrastructure of the OSCCs except in a few states.

Other problems have been:

- differences between the accountability measures of the main federal funding initiatives which place an increased data collection burden on participating institutions.
- extensive re-recognition procedures to meet certification (accreditation) requirements
- inadequate structures to collect data
- the substantial, effort required to develop new management information systems or to adapt old one.

Post-secondary education

The Office of Post-secondary Education (OPE) administers Title II of the Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended (HEA) and has overall responsibility for administering programmes that increase access to post-secondary education for disadvantaged students, strengthen the capacity of colleges and universities that serve a high percentage of disadvantaged students, and provide teacher and student development resources. OPE also administers international education and foreign language studies programs.

High school graduates (of any age or timing of school completion) can continue their education at a variety of institutions: a technical or vocational institution, a 2-year community or junior college, or a 4-year college or university.

The qualifications offered are:

- An **associate degree** requiring at least 2 years of study at a two year college (with this qualification equivalent to the first two years of a standard 4-year college curriculum and is transferable to such). It will usually also include some terminal vocational courses.
- A **bachelor's 4-year degree** at a 4-year college or university.
- Master's and doctoral degrees at universities and university colleges.
- Post-secondary technical training at a technical or vocational institution related to a specific career.

Professional development and research in adult education

Professional development of adult educators is supported by funding through the National Leadership Activities (section 243) of AEFLA. Multi-year contracts are awarded to eligible providers on a competitive basis to improve instruction and teacher quality, develop new models of service delivery to learners, to improve accountability, and to further research. Generally there has been moves towards increased accountability and the use of research-based practices.

There is national dissemination of research findings into usable classroom strategies. There are also regulatory procedures to determine and approve the suitability of tests for measuring educational gain as defined in the National Reporting System.

States that achieve superior performance across Title I and Title II (AEFLA) of the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Technical Education Act of 1998 are eligible for incentive awards.

The United States of America has a number of adult education networks, research and practitioner associations.

Sweden

Sweden is a very good example of a very comprehensive European system for the provision of adult education that is found in the Scandinavian countries.

Sweden is a welfare state with great deal of consensus between government, labour and employers, expressed in binding agreements on such things as collective bargaining and the settlement of disputes. The economy's stress on high quality and advanced technology has made education an obviously important investment. The highly democratic nature of Swedish society has also led to adult education being considered a good thing in itself regardless of its economic benefits.

The Swedish Government actively promotes opportunities for adults to participate in learning in a variety of ways. Flexibility and lifelong learning are key issues in adult educational development policy. Adult education should serve to support flexible and lifelong learning and fulfil people's need for learning on the basis of individual wishes, needs and abilities. Modern technology and teaching methods enable considerable individualisation and geographic spread. This flexibility should give both men and women the opportunity to combine continued learning with their working and private lives. The role of the state is to create the opportunities for versatile learning and the national strategy to support both organised and non-organised learning situations. The establishment of forms for cooperation between different political spheres of activity is important for the development of support for lifelong learning. (Ministry of Education and Research, 2008, p. 4)

The education system is characterised by management by goals and results with decentralised responsibility for implementation.

The government Ministry of education defines educational goals and issues guides, regulations and ordinances. There is a National Board of Education responsible for schools and basic adult education. It ensures that government goals and guidelines are implemented. There is another National Board of Universities and Colleges. At County level, an Education Committee supervises schools in the county and distributes government grants. The actual running and financing of schools and adult education takes place at a Municipal level through its Local Education Authority which receive state subsidies of up to 95-98% of tuition costs as well as occasional aid for premises and equipment.

A bill on Adult Learning presented in 2001 laid out a strategy for central and local government-financed flexible support for adult learning, based on the needs of the individual. It has moved away from more classroom based education to allowing the individual to study at different levels and in different subject areas at the same time (including with the use of modern technology). Outreach activities, guidance, validation, accessibility and financial study support the cornerstones of an infrastructure for lifelong learning. The policy is clear that the state is responsible for supporting the individual's need for learning and that the state and municipalities should offer the right learning opportunities. This requires a well organised and coordinated infrastructure for flexible learning.

The National Agency for Flexible Learning (CFL) was established on 1 January 2002 in order to encourage and stimulate the local authorities to make decisions in the direction wanted by the Government. As part of the Adult Education Initiative started in 1997, the CFL

has played an important role in supporting the development of flexible learning in municipal adult education, folk high schools, study associations and workplaces.

The CFL has complemented the municipalities by providing courses that could not be arranged through municipal adult education with sufficient geographical spread or regularity and has also provided education on a subcontracting basis by selling places in courses to municipalities.

Adult education involves almost one adult Swede in three.

The adult education system and provision

The Swedish adult education system includes both formal and non-formal adult education:

Formal:

- Municipal adult education
- Education for adults with learning disabilities
- Swedish Tuition for Immigrants
- Independent supplementary education
- Advanced vocational education and training
- Labour market training
- In service training

Non-formal:

- Study associations
- Folk high schools

Formal

Municipal adult education (Kumvux)

This comprises **Basic adult education** (Grundvux) equivalent to the nine years of compulsory school education), **Upper secondary education** equivalent to regular secondary school programmes, and **Supplementary education** which is **Education for adult with learning difficulties**.

Swedish Tuition for Immigrants

This is also provided by municipalities.

Though provided by municipalities and county councils, actually provision may be outsourced to other educational bodies.

Independent Supplementary Education

This is post secondary education focussed on specialist areas such as art, handicrafts, performing arts, etc. and is provided by private organisations.

Advanced vocational education and training

This is provided at a higher education and training level that has a strong workplace component.

Labour market training

This is targeted at the unemployed and includes both basic and supplementary training. It is funded by the National Labour Market Board and the actual courses are purchased from different educational organisations.

In service training

This is workplace-based comprehensive in-service training at various levels and including varying proportions of practical vocational skills and theoretical study. It is carried out in collaboration with higher education institutions, municipal adult education bodies and private training companies.

Municipal adult education (Komvux) provides part time and full time certificated courses in second chance equivalents to compulsory and upper secondary education as well as a large number of vocational education and training courses. There is an adult orientated curriculum and study hours are shorter than in school (usually by 50%). Tuition is free. State grants cover teacher's salaries and other costs are met by the municipality. Most students are in their twenties and thirties and a majority are women. In the 60s it often proved difficult to attract sufficient numbers of the adults at whom the courses were aimed and often classes were run with very small numbers (e.g. a minimum of 8).

A law requires Komvux to be provided for adults:

- with short previous schooling
- with weak personal resources or other social disadvantages
- who wish to re-enter the labour market
- wanting continuing education
- who wish to qualify for further studies

The education provided must be of the same quality but not with necessarily the same course content. The pace and course mix is very flexible. Entrance to a particular level is open. Whether the student has adequate background is judged by the student either after counselling or after having started the course. There is a phased system of school equivalency certification.

- Komvux leaving certificate 1 (equivalent to year 9 of compulsory schooling)
- Komvux leaving certificate 2 (equivalent to second year of 2 year upper secondary school curriculum)
- Komvux leaving certificate 3 (equivalent to third year of 3 year upper secondary school curriculum)

There is also certification and diplomas for certain vocational courses

In Komvux it is possible to arrange vocational courses

- according to national syllabi corresponding to upper secondary school vocational lines
- according to upper secondary school specialised courses
- according to syllabi developed especially for adult education
- according to local syllabi agreed to by local labour and employer bodies and the National Board of Education.

In about half of the municipalities Komvux is administered by units separate from the school system, in about a quarter it is physically housed in school facilities, and in the remaining quarter it is poorly resourced and a sideline of the school facilities. In the early days school teachers used to work in Komvux part-time but this has since been discouraged.

Adult literacy and **basic education (Grundvux)** is a required by law service provided by municipalities. The illiterate individual has the right to receive such training without delay. Grundvux is usually administered within the organisational framework of Komvux.

National adult education is provided by correspondence methods.

Non-formal adult education

Study associations run study circles. Some ten **adult education associations** (which are affiliated to political, cooperative, trades union, church or popular movements) are recognised by the government and funded to run study circles. The associations collaborate and their activities tend to be complementary rather than competitive and there is long standing co-operation in study materials, qualifications of educators, and subject matter. There is a National Federation of Adult Education Associations.

The actual 300,000 **study circles** (a circle of friends engaged in communal, methodically organised studies of a predetermined subject or topic) have about one a half million participants in non-formal education in a year (about 17% of the entire population). Some estimates go as high as over 60% of the whole Swedish adult population. The average study circle meets for about 29 hours. Study circles are aimed at improving education and enhancing democracy. Some training is available to study circle leaders and a variety of materials are available but there is no requirement to have an specialist subject teacher or leader.

Students usually pay a fee to participate but there are grants from government to the adult education associations which subsidises materials and leader fees and certain priority subjects according to various criteria. There is also special subsidy for people of foreign descent, the physically or mentally handicapped and the unemployed.

Folk high schools (148 of them) are state financed free tuition institutions that provide general education for young people in rural areas. Most (over 100) are run by popular movements and 41 by county councils and municipalities). All have residential facilities.

They control their own syllabi and there are a variety of long and short courses. They do not have an examination system but provide progress reports (that have credential status). They are financed by grants from government at all levels.

Labour market training provides vocational (re)training for the unemployed and potentially redundant. It is controlled by the Labour Market Training Board.

In-house training is offered by employers. Institutions of higher and adult education are able to offer their services to employers and public authorities.

Komvux and Grundvux have been very successful (particularly for women) and participation has consistently expanded (an expansion only limited by government cut-backs). Those who drop out completely make up only about 20%.

Mature students qualify for a range of financial benefits (including in some cases living costs) particularly those in unskilled strenuous jobs and housewives wishing to reenter the labour market. Grundvux students can get compensation for wages lost or in some cases a study wage.

A 1975 Act Concerning an Employee's right to Educational Leave entitles all employees to educational leave to attend Municipal Adult Education on certain conditions and for a limited period of time. The Act makes no provision for maintenance of wages or for payment in lieu of them. However state grants and loans are available for both full and part time study.

Access by adults to Swedish Higher Education (Universities and colleges) is made relatively easy through different categories of entrance depending on educational history and certification as well as age and work experience (including housework!) as well as only 20% of places in each category being reserved for people straight out of school. Students can also enrol for a single course credit system (which can accumulate into a degree) and a majority of students now prefer this option.

Finance

The state finances adult education through state grants in the form of general government grants to municipalities plus the municipalities themselves providing facilities. The government grants aim to equalise inequalities between all municipalities and county councils. There are also special *ad hoc* government grants. Private providers charge fees. Study circle participants pay fees.

Research and development

In 2001 the School of Education and Communication was commissioned by the Government to develop a unique centre for adult learning and lifelong learning. The centre has launched a research programme on lifelong learning.

Republic of Korea

Korea's system of lifelong education operates on all three tiers of its administrative system:, namely:

- seven independent metropolitan areas and nine provinces
- district governments in each of the seven metropolitan areas and city and county governments in each of the provinces
- local government in cities, towns and townships.

Legislative, policy, and administrative frameworks of lifelong education

In 1999 the Lifelong Education Act and the Act on Credit Recognition and Others were enacted and the former thoroughly revised in 2007 and the latter in 2008. The Credit Recognition Act allows for bachelor's degrees to be conferred through an Academic Credit Bank System (which operates a Bachelor Degree Examination for self-education and others).

In terms of the Lifelong Education Act, the state and local governments all have a responsibility to secure their own facilities for lifelong education provision.

To support lifelong education the government established a Lifelong and Vocational Education Bureau in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and a National Institute for Lifelong Education under the Korean Educational Development Institute in 2008, as a central governmental body to oversee lifelong education research and policy implementation. (The National Institute is replicated at provincial/metropolitan and local government level by Lifelong learning centres to assist in vertical and horizontal integration).

There are serious efforts at inter-ministry cooperation in lifelong education and the Minister of Education, Science and Technology chairs a Lifelong Education Promotion Committee to deal with policy and planning and Vice Ministers from eleven other Ministries sit on it. Korea's lifelong education policies are planned and implemented in coordination with other government strategies, especially human resources development and vocational education and the ministries concerned with Labour, Gender equality, the Knowledge economy, National defence, Food, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, Culture, sports and tourism, and Health, welfare and family affairs.

At municipal levels, local governments were also required to operate facilities for lifelong education promotion.

The Lifelong Education Act requires the Minister of Education, Science and Technology to establish regular five year promotional plans. An initial five-year National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan (2002-2006) paving the way for rapid development in Korea's lifelong education sector. It (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and National Institute for Lifelong Education, 2008, p. 9):

set forth a vision to promote the joy of learning and sharing, and nurture a society which embraces learning. The key objectives defined in the Plan were to 1) ensure equal and expanded opportunities of lifelong learning for all, 2) encourage lifelong education programs at the regional level so as to develop a local culture of learning, 3) reinforce lifelong education support policies for the educationally underprivileged, 4) promote structured study activities at work places and activate vocational lifelong education, and 5) consolidate infrastructure for the provision of high quality lifelong learning. The objectives were supported by 26 core policy tasks and around 100 detailed actions. As a result of five years of focussed endeavours under the Plan, the government was able to 1) build a solid framework for lifelong education including the establishment of Lifelong Education Information Centers and sub-administrative level Lifelong Learning Centers, 2) designate lifelong learning cities and provide financial support for lifelong education programs targeting the underprivileged, and 3) bring forth an increase in the rate of lifelong education participation and contribute to social integration. In the course of implementation, however, a number of limitations were identified, including the difficulty of effectively coordinating policies and programs due to the lack of a centralized government body that would organically oversee national lifelong education, the inability to present a circular study model that would span across the whole of a person's lifetime, and the difficulties of inducing public participation in lifelong education.

There have been serious attempts to decentralize the administration of lifelong education and in the second five year plan placed particular emphasis on mobilizing the lifelong learning capacity of local governments.

The Act also makes it compulsory for Metropolitan mayors and provincial governors to establish their own lifelong education promotion plans on an annual basis, and to form regional implementation committees, including the setting up of regional Lifelong Learning Councils and Lifelong Learning Centres, in consultation with the Superintendents of metropolitan/provincial offices of education. Local governments develop annual plans.

The Lifelong Education Councils and Centres infrastructure

The Councils

At national level the Lifelong Education Promotion Committee, chaired by the Minister of Education, Science and Technology, deals with policy, the National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan, evaluation of the whole system and general coordination of support for lifelong education. It is an expert body with up to 20 lifelong education experts appointed by the Minister.

At metropolitan cities and provinces level regional Councils are established by ordinances to engage with the National Lifelong Learning Promotion Plan, coordinate lifelong education programmes, and develop linkages with related regional organizations. The Council's chairman is a metropolitan mayor or a provincial governor, the vice chairman the head of the provincial education department, and the membership (apart from ex-officio members) is up to 20 lifelong education experts.

At local government level of cities, counties, and districts, Lifelong Education Councils coordinate lifelong education programmes and build cooperation with other related organizations. The chairman is a head of a local government unit and the members include up to 12 lifelong learning experts.

The Centres

These are responsible for implementation of the policy and plans.

The National Institute for Lifelong Education

The Institute for Lifelong Education has the responsibility to :

- 1) to carry out research and surveys on lifelong education,
- 2) to train lifelong educators (through supporting the development of lifelong educator development institutes), and
- 3) to collect and provide information on lifelong education (including maintaining a lifelong education database).

It operates an Academic Credit Bank System and oversees the Department of Bachelor's Degree examination for Self-Education and broadcast and correspondence high schools.

It is managed within the Ministry of Education.

One of its major tasks is to regionalise lifelong education. This led to the setting up of the Regional and local Lifelong Education Centres.

Regional Lifelong Education Centres

Each metropolitan region and province has a regional Lifelong Education centre. Much of their work relates to funding the operation of lifelong education facilities, such as pilot schools of lifelong learning, regional Lifelong Learning Information Centres, public libraries, and to the training lifelong educators, running volunteer programmes and supporting lifelong education festivals.

They are managed by the respective regional governments though some are still in practice governed by the regional education authorities.

Local Lifelong Education Centres

These implement programmes and encourage civil participation in lifelong education.

Lifelong Education programmes

Although lifelong learning programs are offered by Lifelong Education Promotion Institutes, metropolitan and provincial Lifelong Learning Councils, and local government level Lifelong Learning Centres, these organizations are primarily responsible for managing, coordinating, and supporting the system, rather than being director providers.

Lifelong education is seen as all systemic educational activities other than regular school education and includes basic adult literacy education, education for diploma achievement, vocational capacity-building education, liberal arts education, culture and arts education, and education on civic participation. Hence there is a huge range of providers.

The providers fall into three main groups:

- lifelong education facilities, corporate bodies, and groups that have been approved, registered, and declared according to the Lifelong Education Act.
- private teaching institutes that teach lifelong and vocational education programs under the Act on the Establishment and Operation of Private Teaching Institutes and Extra-curricular Lessons, with the exclusion of private teaching institutes offering courses on school curricula.
- others not categorised in terms of the first two categories. Many of these provide non-formal education and training.

A further categorisation is into diploma/degree-conferring and non-diploma/degree conferring facilities.

Diploma/degree-conferring lifelong education facilities include miscellaneous schools, high schools affiliated with industries, civic schools, civic high schools, technical high schools, special classes for work-study students, air and correspondence high schools, school-type diploma recognizing facilities, distance lifelong learning facilities, industrial universities, technical colleges, cyber universities, broadcast and correspondence universities, and special graduate schools.

Non-diploma/degree conferring facilities primarily take the form of affiliated institutes, such as facilities affiliated with schools, industries, media organizations, and civic groups, institutes for knowledge and human resources development, private distance lifelong education institutes, private teaching institutes, etc.

The current government has also launched schemes to nurture selected higher education institutions into leading providers of lifelong learning programmes for the regional community.

Korea has a large investment in re-employment training schemes, some of them linked to information technology, as well as in career development

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Labor are working together to introduce a lifelong learning account system so as to increase the participation of all citizens in lifelong learning activities. By enacting this system, the administration is particularly keen to internally integrate the diversity of vocational and lifelong education policies that are currently being implemented separately in dual tracks, by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Labour.

With vocational education there is strong fee support to learners:

- workers can freely attend courses of their choice, provided they complete at least 80% of any course they enrol on.
- low-interest rate loans are provided to employees who study at technical universities, cyber universities and junior and higher colleges.
- government subsidized paid leave and study costs support is given for workers who have employment insurance to attend vocational training programmes
- subsidized youth and young adult vocational capacity-building and transport and subsistence support. (This operates on a voucher system).

Public schools have to be available to offer lifelong education facilities and programmes to students, parents and citizens. A number of pilot schools have selected to do this in addition to the more regular after school programmes operating in about 27% of Korean schools.

Universities have the same responsibility and the majority operate lifelong education centres. The report notes that (p. 49):

Universities hold a comparative advantage over other lifelong education providers and are highly favored by adult learners, in that they possess the capacity to suffice 21st century demands for lifelong learning in a systemic manner.

A major feature of lifelong education centers affiliated with universities is that they offer a much wider range of program options to choose from, such as credit bank programs and specialized vocational programs. In terms of program development and planning, they also show a higher level of professional capacity. By mobilizing the bulk of human and physical resources possessed by universities, university affiliated lifelong education centers are able to formulate tailored programs for learners, thus contributing to enhancing individual capacity and professional skills, and also nurturing talents capable of global competition.

However, a worrisome phenomenon that has come to the fore in recent years is that many of these centers are degrading themselves into practitioners of academic capitalism, concentrating on the goal of garnering profits only and not on expanding educational reach and contribution to the public.

The Academic Credit Bank System is administered under the Act on Credit Recognition and Others, with an aim to formally recognize the diversity of learning outcomes and qualifications attained outside school boundaries, and confer degrees to individual adult learners who have successfully earned and accumulated a required amount of credits (many of them earned through government-approved courses at junior colleges or universities). There is a limited curriculum Bachelor's degree for self-education (by examination only).

Among the innovative programmes in Korea is the Small Library Movement working with both public and private libraries. The small libraries are in essence small multi-purpose community centres focussed around a small library.

There are a wide range civil society organisations and associations involved in various forms of lifelong education, including literacy and civic issues.

Finances

Financial support for lifelong education still remains a very small part of the national Ministry of Education budget (0.06%) though other ministries also fund certain adult education activities. Overall about 1.56% of the total national budget goes on lifelong education with about a third of this being part of the Ministry of Labour's budget. However overall the largest percentage goes on vocational capacity building (76.8%), 12.8% on self-actualization, 5.7% on general capacity building, 4.8% on civic education, and 0.1% on accreditation of educational qualifications.

Lack of coordination between budget-providing ministries has resulted in a low level of cost effectiveness.

With the revision of the Lifelong Education Act in 2007 metropolises and provinces and local governments were given new responsibility to provide and fund lifelong learning activities. About 1.88% of the metropolitan and provincial budgets goes on lifelong education. Much of this funding goes towards expenses for the operation of lifelong education facilities, such as pilot schools of lifelong learning, regional Lifelong Learning Information Centres, public libraries, training lifelong educators, and running volunteer programmes and supporting lifelong education festivals.

The corporate sector also plays an important role in funding vocational and workplace training. Some corporates are beginning to support non-vocational lifelong education for employees as well.

There are also over 188,750 private teaching institutes, the total expenditure of which is over seven times the government's total lifelong education budget. (They are also very profitable, making, overall, a 30% profit).

Lifelong Educator training

There is a National Certificate in Lifelong Education offered by regional Lifelong Education Centres and some universities and recognised by the government. It is a generic programme in lifelong education programme development and the Lifelong Education Act describes the criteria for lifelong educators in detail. Lifelong Education Centres have recently been required to hire people with this qualification.

Subject specialist lifelong educators (lecturers) do not have any regulated training.

Having more competent adult educators is seen as a major issue.

The BRIC countries, Cuba and Venezuela

Brazil
Russian Federation
India
China

Cuba
Venezuela

Brazil

Brazil, which has a decentralised system of education with partnerships with local government, civil society organisations and social movements, provides an interesting example of a modernising country where attempts have been made to provide elementary education as a right in night schools and through campaigns for those who did not have access to it at the usual age. This provision has been on a large scale and during the late 1980s night schools contained a majority of the country's secondary education students. However, in Brazil the low rates of completion of primary (8 years) and secondary (3 years) together with dropping out of school create an ongoing demand for Youth and Adult Education. However such provision have been hampered by a lack of concomitant funding provision for classroom-base youth and adult education until recently.

Legislation and policies

The right to free primary education for both children and adults is enshrined in the 1996 Law of Guidelines and Foundations of National Education (Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação – LDB, Federal Law No. 9394/96), which regulates constitutional matters concerning education. The law further states that “states and municipalities, through collaboration and with the help of the Union, should carry out a census of the school-age population eligible for primary education and of the young people and adults who have not had access to it” (Principles and Aims, Article 5, §1) and also states that education systems must provide courses and examinations that offer educational opportunities appropriate to the interests and living and working conditions of young people and adults. (Section V of Chapter II, “Basic Education”3).

Vocational education should also be offered to youth and adults either linked to primary or secondary education or by continuing education for young and adult workers. Article 37 states that “ways for workers to have access to and to remain in school should be made possible and stimulated by integrated actions on the part of public powers”.

Unfortunately, also in 1996, a Constitutional Amendment deleted the provision committing the state to eradicate illiteracy and provide universal primary education by 1998 and to provide a half of the education budget for these purposes.

No fees may be charged for public provision. A number of federally funded institutions now have to reserve a percentage of their places for youth and adult learners.

In 2000 the National Education Council approved the *National Curricular Directives for Adult Education*, which regulated aspects of the *Law of Guidelines and Foundations of National Education*, setting out general rules for provision which allowed high degree of flexibility in terms of the length and curricular structure of courses, approval of which is the responsibility of state and municipal education councils.

Directives distinguish between the remedial, equalising and qualifying functions of adult education. Remedial programmes serve those who were denied their right to primary education at the appropriate age (and enable them to get equivalent qualifications). Equalisation programmes seek to generate equal opportunities for all citizens who, at the end of the period of compulsory schooling, wish to carry on learning and raise their level of education to match the demands of the labour market or for individual or social reasons. The qualifying function aims at providing everyone with opportunities for updating knowledge and developing their human potential in the all areas.

In 2001 federal law No. 10,172 instituted a National Education Plan which defined 26 priority targets for Youth and Adult Education, including the eradication of illiteracy; provision to ensure that 50% of youth and adults without primary education would have access to the first four grades by 2006 and to eight grades by 2011 (with certification); censuses to map demand; provision of teaching material and the training of teachers; and a tripling of basic vocational courses for the unemployed every five years and an expansion of regular vocational training courses. Unfortunately, partly because of funding issues, these aims have not been reached.

Provision and its management

Actual public provision and regulation of youth and adult education courses at primary and secondary levels is almost completely in the hands of state and municipal education councils. The Federal government, however, plays a role policy formation, the defining of curricular requirements, evaluations, materials development and provision, and the financing of projects planned by states and municipalities. It also regulates private education provision and sets up agreements with large national civil society organisations, which may receive state subsidies (particularly for apprenticeships). In recent years municipalities have increased their share of total Brazilian education expenditure on basic education.

During the period 1995 to 2002 the main adult education initiative was the Solidarity Literacy Programme (Programa Alfabetização Solidária - PAS), launched by the Community Solidarity Council (Conselho da Comunidade Solidária), an organ of the Presidency of the Republic that coordinated emergency actions to combat poverty. In 1998, two years after its creation, a non-government organisation took over the running of the PAS which, as well as collecting money from private enterprise, eventually came to be the channel through which almost all Ministry of Education resources adult literacy work were directed.

In 2001 a new Support Programme for States and Municipalities for the Primary Education of Young People and Adults, called the Restart Programme offered financial support to municipal and state governments in poorer municipalities in the poorer states. In 2004 its remit was expanded in scope and geographical coverage (it now covers all states and municipalities though there is some differentiation in per capita financial support in favour of states and municipalities with high illiteracy rates) and retitled as the Programa de Apoio aos Sistemas de Ensino para Atendimento à Educação de Jovens e Adultos - Fazendo Escola (Support Programme for Educational Systems Serving Youth and Adult Education - Making a School).

In 2003, a new administration had the Ministry of Education reassume responsibility for supporting adult literacy, which launched the Literate Brazil Programme (Programa Brasil Alfabetizado – PBA) and set up the Extraordinary Secretariat for Eradicating Illiteracy (Secretaria Extraordinária de Erradicação do Analfabetismo - SEEA). It created the National Literacy Committee (Comissão Nacional de Alfabetização - CNA), which later became the National Literacy and Youth and Adult Education Committee (Comissão Nacional de Alfabetização e Educação de Jovens e Adultos - CNYAEJA), with consultative representation from various sectors involved in the area, inaugurating a method of participative inter-sectoral management of youth and adult education.

In 2004 the Extraordinary Secretariat for Eradicating Illiteracy was incorporated into the Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy and Diversity (Secretaria de Educação Continuada, Alfabetização e Diversidade - SECAD) which, as well as managing the Literate Brazil Programme, also took responsibility for youth and adult education in general. SECAD has played a particularly important role in the funding and production of textbooks, materials, and the training of literacy teachers. It also monitors the application of funds and the linkage of literacy programmes with the supply of post-literacy programmes for those who wish to continue studying.

Recent years have seen the redirection of more funds to state and municipalities to the detriment of NGOs which were previously responsible for most literacy provision.

SECAD has also done much work in including partners in the development of a complex programme of evaluation (including looking at investment, management, efficacy and programme impact). The evaluation of learning results is now based on standardised cognitive tests developed by university experts that provide a more rigorous comparative measurement than the opinions of trainers concerning their students. Evaluation data have been systematically used to redirect programme policies. It was a much more participatory and inter-sectoral initiative. It also produced textbooks and easy readers for youth and adult education.

Vocational education and training in Brazil has mainly been under the control of and funded by employers (though some of these funds are via state collected levies on payrolls). New decrees have increased worker representation on the various private vocational education and training bodies and there is now greater public control and involvement in them.

First launched in 2005, the National Inclusion Programme for Young People (Programa Nacional de Inclusão de Jovens - PROJOVEM) assists young people aged between 18 and 29 with low levels of education and without formal jobs who were living in state capitals and a number of urban regions, offering them the chance to finish their primary education integrated with vocational training and community action in an 18 month programme that includes finishing their primary education, computer literacy, and qualifications in three jobs within a range of similar occupations. They can also develop a community action project and formulate a plan for their further vocational training. There is a similar, though smaller project, Rural PROJOVEM, that works with rural youth.

Other ministries involved in adult education include Labour (which has a 2003 National Qualification Plan for vocational education which increased the length of courses) and Justice (when runs a prisoner education programme).

Universities are also actively involved in agrarian development and literacy work.

There is a range of corporate and non-governmental organisation bodies that contribute to vocational training and literacy programmes and have agreements with the Ministry of Education such as Social Service for Industry (Serviço Social da Indústria - SESI), the Association for Social Development (Associação de Desenvolvimento Social - ADS, linked to the Workers' Trade Union Council), the National Association for Agricultural Corporation (Associação Nacional de Cooperação Agrícola - ANCA), Alfasol (created on the basis of the Solidarity Literacy Programme - Programa Alfabetização Solidária) and Alfalit (an international body linked to Protestant churches).

An important non-governmental body providing vocational training is the 'System S' which involves a number of sectoral bodies: the National Service for Industrial Apprenticeship (Senai - Serviço Nacional de Aprendizagem Industrial), the Social Service for Industry (Sesi - Serviço Social da Indústria), the National Service for Commercial Apprenticeship (Senac - Serviço Nacional de Aprendizagem do Comércio), the Social Service for Commerce (Sesc - Serviço Social do Comércio), the National Service for Rural Apprenticeship (Senar - Serviço Nacional de Aprendizagem Rural), the National Service for Apprenticeship in Transport (Senat - Serviço Nacional de Aprendizagem do Transporte), the Social Service for Transport (Sest - Serviço Social de Transporte), the Brazilian Support Service for Small and Medium Businesses (SebrYAE - Serviço Brasileiro de Apoio às Pequenas e Médias Empresas) and the National Service for Apprenticeship in Corporative Enterprises (Sescoop - Serviço Nacional de Aprendizagem do Cooperativismo). This private sector system is however guided by legislation on how its funds are applied and since 2006 workers' representatives have been included in decision making committees of the cooperating bodies. About 555 of all vocational training is done by the private sector.

There are about 80 youth and adult education forums that are alliances at state or regional level of secretariats of education, universities, social movements, non-government organisations and System S and collectively hold an annual meeting on adult education. They have a representative on the National Committee for Literacy and Youth and Adult Education.

Alfasol

The mass literacy initiative, Alfasol (Alfabetização Solidária – Solidarity in Literacy) is a good example of how things have worked in Brazil. The programme was started in 1997 and by 2009 had reached 5.5 million youth and adults. Begun as a Presidential programme, within two years it was taken over by a non-governmental organisation which is funded by both the Ministry of Education and the private sector.

AlfaSol is noted for this partnership model and the way in which it employs, trains, monitors and supports literacy teachers in this work. AlfaSol partners fund learners individually or in groups, over 2 400 municipalities provide implementation locations, and 76 higher education institutions select and train educators, coordinate the teaching content of the literacy courses and monitor and evaluate the students' learning process. These higher education institutions are free to choose whatever theories and literacy methods they wish to use provided they remain within the broad philosophical framework provided by AlfaSol.

AlfaSol has a six-month programme cycle with two "semesters" a year. Each semester begins with the selection of literacy teachers from the communities targeted and they are trained for a month. The classes for learners take place four times a week for three hours per day and each learner receives approximately 240 hours of instruction. Learners are arranged in classes of between 25 and 30 learners. AlfaSol regards this literacy course as only the first step and on its completion at the end of the five-month period, learners receive counselling on possible learning paths and on entering formal adult education programmes in their municipalities.

AlfaSol does not reuse educators and each semester new groups of teachers are trained. This, AlfaSol argues, provides the opportunity for more people to participate and to receive training as well as for the programme to multiply and spread in the communities. This also encourages those who have already gone through the training process to become part of the official school system by enrolling for formal teacher training and entering the mainstream system of teaching.

The following strengths of the AlfaSol model are important:

- The model of teacher training offers extensive pre-service and in-service support and has proved to be successful and well monitored and evaluated.
- The transfer of teacher capacity from the campaign to mainstream/formal teaching situations can be regarded as a way of capitalising on the training and experience of the teachers.
- The ongoing and integrated model of continuous evaluation provides important formative input into the programme while also offering a way of assessing impact.
- The sustained teaching process of 240 hours can be seen to go some way towards ensuring sustained learning.
- The programme offers a way of encouraging learners to proceed to further learning opportunities and offers counselling to direct them to further learning opportunities.
- The dual semester model allows teachers to be trained at two stages in the year and also enables learners to enrol for the programme at six-monthly intervals.
- The use of radio as a support for in-service teachers is a model which could be usefully replicated in other contexts.

Assessment and certification

In 2002, National Institute for Educational Studies and Research (Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira (INEP)), the independent agency linked to the Ministry of Education which is responsible for evaluation systems in basic and higher education), launched the National Examination for Certification of Youth and Adults (ENCCEJA). This voluntary assessment instrument is offered free to people who have not had the opportunity to finish their studies at the proper age. It measures competences and provides educational qualifications at primary and secondary levels. This was a controversial move (as previously municipal, state and district education secretariats had handled examinations and tests) and some youth and adult education committees felt that “it favoured the proliferation of low quality private preparatory courses and threatened the development of classroom-based teaching which included assessment as part of the process, as well as the educational autonomy of states and municipalities.” (Ministry of Education, p. 12).

Finance

Funding for youth and adult education comes from taxes and a 2.5% training levy. Adult education funding has been rising in municipal budgets and declining in federal and state budgets, though there are moves to increase federal funding.

The percentage of the federal education budget spent on youth and adult education has risen to 3.5%. Other significant investments come from other ministries.

Initially much literacy teacher training done by NGOs was funded by the state but decreased and stopped in 2007 and now the grants go 60% to states and 40% to municipalities.

Public adult education is not allowed to charge fees though it is allowed in the private sector.

Estimates have been made that twice the current funding for youth and adult education is needed to meet National Plan for Education objectives.

Research, monitoring and evaluation

Surveys have been done by universities and non-governmental organisations. A good example of this is the National Indicator of Functional Literacy (Indicador Nacional de Alfabetismo Funcional - INAF), an initiative of two non-government organisations which, since 2001, have surveyed the literacy situation among Brazilians aged between 15 and 64.

The Solidarity Literacy Programme has a monitoring system to record the number of enrolments and the progress of learners. It has also carried out impact studies. The Literate Brazil Programme has introduced a register of learners, trainers and partner bodies which has been gradually improved to provide accurate information.

The Ministry of Education's directorate for evaluation, SECAD, has developed a complex programme of evaluation involving several studies on investment, management, efficacy and programme impact. The evaluation of learning results is now based on standardised cognitive tests developed by university experts that provide a more rigorous comparative measurement than the opinions of trainers about their students. Evaluation data is systematically used to redirect the programmes.

The National Inclusion Programme for Young People (PROJOVEM) evaluates both teachers and learners as well using standardised examinations (that have shown that the results from PROJOVEM are equivalent to the attainments of learners in the ordinary school system. Teams from six federal universities assist. Some providers are, however, fearful of this process believing that unsatisfactory results might result in closing programmes and not improving them.

The *National report* notes that university extension activities can be extremely productive when they are properly integrated with teaching and research.

Adult educators

There are more than a quarter of a million teaching posts in youth and adult education. About 75% of these educators have higher education qualifications, though most of them are not found in rural areas. Literacy programmes still tend to have unqualified instructors.

There are concerns about the lack of specific adult education educator training programmes at Higher Education institutions – in 2003, only 16 of 1,306 educator training courses were specifically in adult education.

Russian Federation

The ageing of Russia's population has been paralleled by a growth in continuing adult education on which the Russian adult education system focuses.

According to the Law on Education of the Russian Federation the education system must adapt to the levels and to their specific development and training needs and every adult person can upgrade his or her education starting at the lower level (including the acquisition of basic literacy skills) within the state system of evening comprehensive schools.

There is a unified system of continuing education that includes the following interrelated components:

- a network of educational institutions (including open and distance learning institutions);
- national, regional and local authorities;
- research centres;
- educational programmes of various purposes;
- didactic approaches designed specifically for adult learners;
- adult education organisations;
- social services with an educational component;
- organisations engaged in public information activities;
- scientific and cultural institutions in so far as they engage in educational activities;
- methodological associations;
- mass media used for educational purposes.

The adult education system is trying to develop more flexible structures for providing educational services in line with the needs of the labour market.

There is a growth of corporate sector based higher education institutions.

There are a small number of folk high schools on the Scandinavian model.

There is a trend towards institutionalisation and accreditation with certificated qualifications.

However, the Russian Federation's national report to CONFINTEA VI argued very strongly for a revalorisation of non-formal education.

Financing of adult education

Some 1.65% of the Federal budget goes on retraining and further training and 3% of the Funded Budget also goes on retraining and further training.

These budgets fund the following:

- Sponsored study by adults over 25 years at secondary and higher education institutions
- Preparatory courses at state universities for ex-servicemen
- Retraining for ex-servicemen
- Public and armed service retraining (once in five years)
- Retraining for the unemployed referred to educational institutions.

Consideration is being given to fund Russian language and social integration studies for immigrants in the labour force.

Municipal budgets cover the costs of retraining and further training for municipal servants.

There is also considerable corporate sector expenditure on additional training both in house and outsourced to external organisations (including higher education institutions). However, staff training in the industrial field is totally insufficient with low investment, lack of innovation, too short term and harmed by employers fearing that retrained staff will be poached. The corporate sector is reappraising the need for training and retraining after the decline in training in the immediate aftermath of privatisation in the 1990s.

Provision

There are three main categories of adult education:

Continuing professional education

For professionals, many of the higher education graduates, at over 2,000 educational institutions and 1,000 on the job training sites. It is a growing sector. Russia has a surplus of graduates in certain fields.

Adaptation and rehabilitation education

For groups who do not have access to the formal system of professional education or who need their basic education upgraded to cope with a changing social and workplace environment. It includes various forms of vocational education. This category includes the retraining of ex-servicemen and the unemployed.

Adult education fulfilling individual educational needs

This includes a wide range of activities including language training, arts and culture, financial literacy, driving skills, etc.

Monitoring and evaluation

Survey research has been done into the demand, funding and obstacles facing continuing professional education. A considerable portion of the National Report is devoted to an analysis of the corporate universities and their role.

Systematic scientific research work in the field of adult education is carried out by the Institute of Adult Education of the Russian Academy of Education in St. Petersburg. This is the only academic institute in the country that conducts research work and surveys on adult education and related areas.

The institute (Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation, p. 18):

- develops strategy and builds social partnerships with state and public organisations in the field of adult education – general and professional, formal and non-formal;
- collaborates with international organisations and leading adult education centres of the world in formulating the scientific, organisational and legal prerequisites for elaborating adult education policy in Russia and the CIS countries, taking into consideration modern global tendencies;
- carries out various kinds of complex interdisciplinary research work;
- coordinates scientific research work and practical activities related to adult education and carried out in regional adult education centres in Russia;
- trains people towards higher scientific and pedagogical qualifications recognised in Russia and the CIS countries;
- promotes diverse educational activities related to the training of various groups within the adult population (e.g. parents, company personnel, the unemployed, the disabled, retired servicemen, external students, migrants and prisoners);
- carries out publishing activities;
- offers consulting and educational services to institutions, management authorities, the social services and private citizens.

India

India is the second most populous country in the world with a population of over a billion people. In spite of the tremendous expansion of adult basic education (ABE) and an increase in the literacy rate from 43.57% to 65.38% between 1981 and 2001, India still has a massive backlog of 300 million non-literates (Shah, 2004, p. 31) mainly because of the failure to fully universalise primary education.

India is a federal state with 35 constituent states and territories. Education under Indian Constitution is a concurrent subject and both the union and state governments have the right and obligation to promote both formal education (from the pre-primary to higher education, including all branches and specializations) and non-formal education.

National and state five year plan spell out education strategies, approaches and priorities. In addition to formulating training policy, the federal government also develops training curricula through a series of national level consultations and workshops and takes the initiative in organising all-India programmes to orient key personnel from different states.

In respect of literacy, the National Literacy Mission as a central government agency formulates policies and strategies in accordance with national education policy and five year plans and with Education for All goals.

The focus on literacy and lately on continuing education

India, since independence, has tended to prioritise literacy instruction as the main form of adult education, often merged with agricultural development campaigns (as in the Farmer's Functional Literacy Programme and the Rural Functional Literacy Programme of the 1960s and 1970s respectively) and often involving more than one ministry.

A slightly broader vision of adult education only came to the fore in 1978 with the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) which defined adult education as literacy, functionality and conscientisation. Literacy remained the core and enormous efforts went into preparing for literacy campaigns. The NAEP "consciously tried to move away from being identified as a government programme, and provided for greater participation of voluntary agencies (VAs), in a host of activities ranging from running the centers, developing learning materials, providing training and taking up research and evaluation." (National Literacy Mission, 2008, p. 7). A critical review in 1980 found that administrative and training components had worked well but that the actual mass mobilisation in the field had not. The multiplicity of participating non-governmental organisations and voluntary associations (many of them of little substance) had further complicated matters.

The revised Adult Education Programme (AEP) of 1984 retained many elements of the NAEP but the duration of the learner programme was lengthened. It still did not come anywhere near reaching the literacy targets

A new National Education Policy of 1986 re-energised commitment to eradicate illiteracy and the National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched in 1988 with a mass campaign approach known as the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) with a stress on “participative delivery through voluntarism, cost-effective and outcome-orientated character” (National Literacy Mission, 2008, p. 10). It was **combined** with post-literacy and continuing education to (p. 10):

consolidate literacy and improve the neo-literates’ functional (literacy application) ability, keeping apace with changing requirements, to solve day-to-day problems and improve their well being. The Post-Literacy Campaigns (PLCs) had three specific learning objectives to address, viz., remediation, continuation and application. The Post Literacy Campaign was also expected to address the skill development of neo-literates – skills relating to life, survival, communication and occupation. And, skill development for women became the major agenda of PLCs. The community was to be fully involved in planning and implementation the Post Literacy programmes.

In 1997 the Scheme of Continuing Education was launched as a **separate** programme with a more life long learning agenda and much flexibility in operation. The main delivery point is at Continuing Education Centres (CECs) that are manned by a Animator and function as a “library, reading room, training, information, development (coordination and convergence), culture, sports, communication and discussion forum. The Continuing Education centre is seen as a permanent institution, located in a public place and open to all.” (p. 12) A major role is played by NGOs and many NGOs offer adult basic education programmes with support from these centres (though such support is in some cases restricted to narrowly defined adult basic education). The implementing agency at district level is usually a registered society, the District Literacy Society (Zila Saksharta Samiti), which acts as the coordinator and funder of the collective efforts of youth clubs, women’s organisations, voluntary agencies, cooperative and small industries. Currently the bulk (about 66%) of federal adult education funding goes towards continuing education.

The State Literacy Mission Authorities have funding powers to support Continuing Education Projects among new literates.

Tertiary education institutions are also used by the state to deliver adult education services. The National Institute of Open Schooling and a few state Institutes of Open Schooling have started offering equivalency programmes for neo literates and other client groups of the NLM.

The National Literacy Mission in India

The National Literacy Mission Authority (NMLA) was set up in 1988 as an independent and autonomous wing of the Department of Elementary Education and Literacy in the Ministry for Human Resource Development, vested with executive and financial powers to approve literacy projects.

An Adult Education Bureau is the secretariat of the NLMA and a Directorate of Adult Education provides technical and academic resource support. It is governed by a General Council which includes members from several ministries and representatives of political parties and NGOs. These structures are replicated at state level with the State General Council being chaired by the Chief or Education Minister. These State structures are funded by the NMLA, the quantum determined in proportion to the level of illiteracy and under-education in the state. The structures are further replicated at District level. District Resource Units located in the District Institute of Education and Training provide technical and academic resource support.

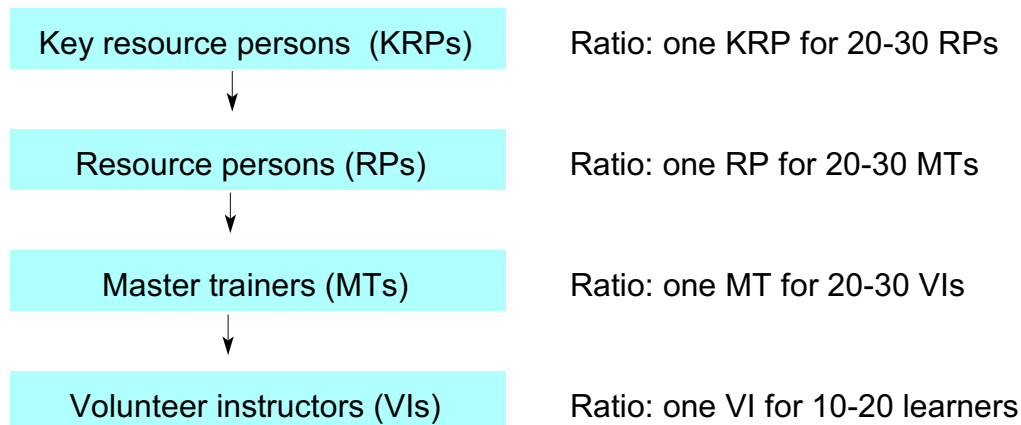
Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) under the broad National Literacy Mission (NLM) are indicative of the decentralised mode of operation via State Literacy Mission Authorities (SLMAs), which are registered societies, in the interest of fast-moving and flexible operations. The NLM's TLC strategy evolved from the centre-based approach since it was recognised at national level that there can be no format or strategy which would be uniformly applicable throughout the country. This decentralisation meant that even within a state, the different districts may adopt variations based on the context of the district, the achievement levels of learners in the literacy phase, learners' needs and aspirations and their social and living conditions, and the needs for continuing education. At the district level practically every development department or programme is involved.

Training educators

The adult education university departments in India all have a mandate to design and present training programmes for educators. Because of the high numbers of functionaries needing training, some of the open and distance learning institutions, especially the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), the BR Ambedkar Open University and the National Open School (NOS), have needed to "go to scale" in offering innovative courses for grassroots level functionaries. This has required a 'cascade' approach.

The cascade approach for training educators for the Total Literacy Campaigns uses a envisaged a four-tier system of training comprising key resources persons (KRPs), resource persons (RPs), master trainers (MTs) and voluntary instructors (VIs). The organisers of the training programme, the District Literacy Committee, identifies a limited number of KRPs (five to ten) with rich experience and expertise and entrusts them with the responsibility of designing the training curricula and training RPs. The RPs in turn train MTs who are then responsible for training VIs. The following diagram shows the ratio between KRPs, RPs, MTs, VIs and learners (Shah, 2004, p.37).

Cascade approach to training



The train-the-trainer curriculum for supporting the above model gives 50% weight to primer-based training and there is very little emphasis on adult psychology, adult teaching strategies and learning styles, which are crucial for the effective mediation of the curriculum. This was often because (given the limited pool from which literacy facilitators are drawn) the level of learning of the VIs themselves was limited, making it necessary for them to have their own literacy developed.

While the cascade approach was useful for increasing the numbers of people working in literacy and going to scale, one of the main problems experienced with the cascade model was that the lower the level on the cascade, the lower the availability of resources for training, materials and time allocated for training and technical inputs. Resources tended to be reduced at each cascade level and reached a minimum at the level of VIs (the very personnel who should have commanded more investment) and whose training therefore remained weak.

As was permitted by the decentralised model of training of trainers, different training providers used different modes of training educators. According to the training guidelines, training should be planned in two phases. The initial phase of training of 11 days (71.5 hours) was followed by a “booster round” consisting of a three-day refresher course after a gap of six months (National Literacy Mission 2001, pp. 85-90).

The direct approach to training developed by the university system during the 1980s targeted student volunteers and non-student animators. The students received ten hours of training, the non-students seventy hours, followed by a refresher course of ten hours after six months. The thrust of the training programme was to acquaint participants with the conceptual and operational aspects of adult education programmes (Shah, 2004, p. 43).

According to Shah (2004, pp. 46-47), certain training bodies also adopted participatory training methods for training trainers. The focus was on experiential learning, and development workers were taught about the need for training, the role of training in social change, how disadvantaged people learn, group behaviour, personal development of trainers,

the effective use of training methods, training design and facilitation skills. These modules were implemented in three phases, with the first and third phases being residential programmes each lasting eight days. During the second phase, the trainees were supported while they taught for a period of four months (during which they were required to practise what they had learnt during the first phase). Reviews of experience, analysis, action and reflection were built in to all three phases.

This methodology was found to be useful in designing a people-centred, locally relevant training programme, but was not effective in training large numbers.

However, adult education as a profession has not been well established and there are few adult education posts *per se* in educational systems. There is a tendency for the actual senior adult education post to be taken by personnel from the formal school education system.

There are about 70 departments of adult education at Indian universities.

Using the media

Over the years India has utilised a range of ICT for reaching learners in the literacy campaign. Some of the experiments referred to below show, however, the importance of well-trained facilitators since the media cannot be expected to mediate the learning.

- **The Satellite Instructional Television Experiment**

In 1975 India became the first country in the world to broadcast mass television from space when it launched a Satellite Instructional Television Experiment (SITE) using the American Satellite ATS-6. During 1975 and 1976, instructional TV programmes targeting young and adult viewers were beamed to 2,400 villages spread over six states. These two-and-a-half-hour evening transmissions for adults covered themes related to agriculture, animal husbandry, health and family planning. However, an evaluation of the experiment showed that lecture formats and on-screen teaching were not very effective and that educators were needed to mediate the learning.

- **Interactive satellite teaching**

The Indian Space Research Organisation took the lead in the INSAT programme which used a combination of both Direct Reception Sets (DRS) and very high frequency (VHF) sets. One of the aims of the project was to promote literacy through the daily transmission of literacy support materials, and programmes were transmitted and viewed using 150 DRS. Satellite talk-back terminals were provided and interactive programmes, with a one-way video and two-way audio conferencing network, were utilised for effective communication among viewers and experts. Altogether, 100 half-hour programmes were produced. Twenty of these were based on awareness building, 60 on the three literacy primers and 20 on post-literacy. These programmes basically served as support materials for voluntary instructors. A typical one-hour teaching session started with thirty minutes of face-to-face literacy teaching, twenty minutes of telecast by learners and ten minutes of recapitulation and reinforcement of learning. The programme was telecast five days a week in the evening. However, the evaluation

found that the success of the learning depended on the educational level and abilities of the instructors and the extent of training received by them (Ghosh 2000, p. 24, in Shah, 2004, p. 51).

These broadcast media resources are used extensively by the well known Indira Ghandi National Open University, modelled on the United Kingdom's Open University, and by other universities that also run distance education programmes. Many states also have their own state open universities. IGNOU plays some sort of coordinating and monitoring role via a Distance Education Council. There are a number of IGNOU distance education centres hosted by other institutions (but only one distance education centre per institution).

IGNOU plays a significant role in television broadcasting with their **Gyan darshan** (Knowledge vision) channels. They currently have access to six digital satellite channels on their own obsolete analog satellite which broadcasts 24 hours a day. They have 2000 telecentres.

Funding

Adult education only receives a small percentage of the overall education budget, only about 18% of what is considered a realistic benchmark.

Although India has heavily relied upon volunteer adult educators, many state governments have started experimenting with paying a small stipend to literacy instructors. Continuing education instructors have long received payment.

Qualifications and certification

The Total Literacy Campaigns have both internal and external evaluation as well assessment of learners in terms of NLM prescribed norms/levels of literacy proficiency. However, there is no certification, neither is there certification for post-literacy and continuing education programmes of the NLM.

However, recently, certification has been introduced via the equivalency programme of the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) and a few State Institutes of Open Schooling (SIOS) for neo literates and other groups of the NLM.

Monitoring, evaluation and research

Benchmarks have been determined for literacy and continuing education programmes in relation to participation and drop out of learners, attainment of learning outcomes, gender and other factors, economic impacts, target achievement, etc.

Tests and examination have also been developed.

Monitoring Information Systems have been developed and applied to the large programmes. The NLM, in particular, gathers data from every centre on monthly basis. Many programmes have prescribed monitoring formats.

The NLM also has a highly developed professional system of evaluation for each component of its adult education programmes. Standardised evaluation guidelines have been developed through several rounds of regional workshops, meetings and consultations with adult education experts, selected representatives of concerned stakeholders and premier research and evaluation organizations and institutions.

The process the NLM uses when it receives an evaluation request to evaluate a district programme of literacy, post-literacy or continuing education is to forward the names of three empanelled agencies, having familiarity with the language of the district, to the National Adult Education Bureau. The three agencies bid for the contract and one is chosen by the State Literacy Mission Authority. Financial provision to meet the costs of evaluations is an in built component of the approved district project.

The Directorate of Adult Education (DAE) under the Department of School Education and Literacy, as part of its regular activities, commissions research on and evaluations of adult education programmes.

The Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA), New Delhi brings out the quarterly Indian Journal of Adult Education containing research based and scholarly articles on adult education. The Departments/Centres of Adult and Continuing Education and Extensions of some of the Universities also undertake research studies as part of the degree or diploma courses. Research initiative by IAEA and universities are not funded by the National Literacy Mission though one of three documentation centres set up by the Mission is housed with the Association.

China

China claims to have the largest, most-populated and most-diversified adult education system in the world. “By 2007, there were 53,900 institutions of adult education offering education for different academic certificates, including 413 adult colleges and universities, 742 senior secondary adult schools, 2,120 specialized secondary adult schools, 1,628 junior secondary adult schools, and 49,002 primary adult schools” (with 33,024 literacy classes) (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO and Chinese Adult Education Association, 2008, p. 19).

Legislation and policy

The 1982 Constitution includes every citizen’s “right and obligation to receive education” (Article 46) and the state is obliged to develop “educational facilities in order to eliminate illiteracy and provide political scientific, technical and professional education as well as general education for workers, peasants, state functionaries and other working people. It encourages people to become educated through independent study.” (Article 19).

Article 19 of the Education Law of the People’s Republic of China of 1995 says:

The State applies a system of vocational education and a system of adult education. People’s governments at various levels, the administrative departments concerned and enterprises and institutions shall adopt measures to develop educational programs and guarantee that citizens receive education in vocational schools or different types of vocational training.

The State encourages the development of varied forms of adult education so that citizens may receive appropriate education in politics, economics, culture, science and technology and professional or life-long education.

In 1987 the State Council of China approved the State Education Commission’s *Decision on the Reform and Development of Adult Education*, in which the important position of adult education in socio-economic development was clarified and the important principle of “developing adult education energetically” was set. The *Decision* pointed out that adult education is the necessary condition for the development of modern society and economy and the progress of science and technology.

In a number of educational documents and plans issued in the 1990s, adult education was seen as a new type of educational system that would facilitate the transition of school education to lifelong education and this has been strongly reaffirmed in the *Outline of the Tenth Five-Year Plan of National Economic and Social Development* of 2005.

The goals of the adult education system

Adult education in China includes primary education for adults (including literacy classes), secondary education for adults and higher education for adults as well as various kinds of distance education, correspondence education and spare-time education for formal schooling record and short-term training classes.

The main tasks of adult education are seen as (Chinese National Commission for UNESCO and Chinese Adult Education Association, 2008, p. 9):

- (1) to provide post training to those employed for enabling them to meet the post requirements in morality, knowledge, professional skill and practical capacity;
- (2) to provide basic education to those employed laborers who have not yet completed primary and secondary education;
- (3) to provide relevant professional and cultural education to those employed people who have completed secondary education or higher education but cannot meet the requirements for their posts;
- (4) to provide continuing education to those college graduates for helping them adapt to the rapid social development and scientific progress; and
- (5) to offer cultural and life education to satisfy all citizens' diversified and increasing needs in their cultural and daily lives.

The main focus is, however, on post training and continuing education for the employed.

Since 1997, a number of new policies, laws and regulations for guaranteeing young people and adults' right for vocational education and training have been issued.

Provision and management

There is both a formal (certificated) component of the adult education system and a non-formal one:

The formal system

The Ministry of Education has a Department of Vocational and Adult Education. Its major functions are to develop guiding principles, policies, laws and regulations for adult education, coordinate the adult education run by different sectors, formulate the standards for varied academic certificates, strengthen the macro-level guidance for adult education and manage the inspection and evaluation of adult education. Local educational authorities are required to work out plans and objectives for the development of adult education in the local context and strengthen the management of adult schools, quality control and the social evaluation of adult education.

Over time the institutions of adult education have been given more and more autonomy regarding enrollment size, objectives, curriculum development, the syllabus, course arrangement, the organisation of teaching and evaluation and certification.

Formal provision comprises:

Primary adult education which includes literacy education and primary school equivalence provision. It is often linked to production skills training as well. It reached 25 million people between 1997 to 2007 but has reduced to less than a third of its original scale (as compulsory schooling reduces the need). It is managed by the Department of Vocational and Adult Education.

Regarding literacy, there is a national inter-ministerial coordination group comprising eleven ministries and commissions. Literacy teaching materials are compiled by educational authorities at the provincial level, with supplementary materials compiled at the county and township levels to reflect local features and customs. Full-time literacy teachers are usually teachers from schools supported by part-time volunteer teachers. There is a graded examination system for literacy.

Secondary adult education is second chance secondary school equivalent instruction. It is offered in dedicated adult junior and senior secondary schools that are orientated either towards urban workers or rural farmers. Secondary adult education is It is managed by the Department of Vocational and Adult Education. **Secondary specialised schools** for adults include vocational schools, rural cultural and technical schools, technical schools, and broadcast and correspondence schools. These cater particularly for people at junior secondary level. It includes pre-service work preparation training.

Higher adult education is available for those who have completed secondary education. It takes three forms: pre-service, two -year level or four-year level. However, as regular institutions of higher education have expanded the role of adult higher education institutions has declined, though they still produce about 25% of all higher education graduates. It is managed by the Department of Higher Education.

Self-taught examination system which offers national examinations in diplomas. It had about 9.6 million candidates in 2007.

The non-formal system

This includes continuing education, the job-training system and the vocational certificate system.

Continuing education for professionals and managers is offered by colleges and universities and by some enterprises, research groups and academic associations.

Post-training is offered to employed people and assists employees obtain the required qualifications for certain jobs and adapt to changes in the workplace. It is seen as one of the key aspects of adult education in China. It takes place in various vocational training institutions including employment training centers, enterprise-based training organs, civilian-run training schools and vocational training ventures.

There have been two three year training plans for Reemployment Training for laid off workers. It includes entrepreneurship training.

The **vocational qualifications certificate system** is essentially an assessment and examinations system. Government-authorised evaluation and identification institutions offer regular assessment of workers' technical skills or vocational qualifications according to national standards and grant certification.

The Ministry of Labour issued a 1999 *Dictionary of Occupational Titles of the People's Republic of China*, identifying over 4,000 occupations in 40 trade sectors. Standards have been compiled for 1838 occupations and more than 3,200 technical rank standards of workers have been formally promulgated. A 8,000 institutional sites have been established in the country to continue this work of occupational skill identification so that there can be objective measurement and evaluation of the workers' technical theory and operational ability required for certain occupations. Occupational certificates had, by 2006 been issued to 70 million workers.

It is important to note that China provides both urban and rural forms of appropriate adult education as well as training for rural people making the transition to urban life.

Distance education has also become of growing importance and the Ministry of Education's 1998 Action Plan for Vitalizing Education toward the 21st Century said that modern distance education was a necessity for the construction of an open network for education and the system of lifelong education in the age of the knowledge-based economy. The *Tenth Five-Year Plan of Educational Development in China* of 2002 reiterated this need for information-based education as a key factor in educational modernisation. China has one Central Television University and 44 provincial television universities using broadcast and television, print materials, multimedia courseware and internet courses. They operate on the slogan of "easier entrance and stricter exam marking schemes". There is also the Central Agricultural Broadcast and Television School. There is also much non-formal distance and broadcast adult education. There is also a pilot system of mobile, in a medium-sized bus, distance education classrooms used in rural areas.

There is also provision for disabled people who have equal rights and there are over a thousand institutions of vocational education and training for disabled people as well as many regular institutions which have capacity to provide vocational training to the disabled..

There are also a range of cultural and welfare activity facilities for older people. There are some 26,000 universities and schools for the aged.

Since 2000 there has been pilots of a community education experiment and in 2006 the Standardization Committee issued a *Community Service Guide Part 3: Culture, Education and Sport Service*, which covered the provision of standardized technical support to community development, helped local governments and social organs popularize community education, and promoted the regularization and institutionalisation of community education within a lifelong elearning perspective and making full use of modern information technology.

Funding

Adult education is funded by the state. The proportion of the education budget devoted to adult education has declined from 3.2% in 1997 to 1.8% in 2006 and is considered insufficient.

The costs for labour preparation training are carried jointly by trainees and employers with some government support.

There is a skills training levy of 1.5% (up to 2.5% in certain industries) of the total salary of enterprise workers that has to be spent on workers' education and training. Some training is funded at training institutions sponsored by enterprise organisations.

Funding for literacy classes is raised by local government and educational institutions. In workplaces literacy education can be funded from the training levy. In addition central finance is also allocated to certain regions and particularly ethnic minority regions.

Research

There are about 100 specialized state institutions for adult education research established by the Ministry of Education, such as the Research Centre for Adult Education which is part of the China National Institute for Educational Research and the institutes for adult education research set up by the academies and institutes of education science at the provincial, municipal and autonomous regional levels.

Other adult education research bodies are found at adult universities and colleges. Most of the researchers in these institutions are part-time professionals.

There are also a number of societies and associations, the biggest of which is the Chinese Adult Education Association which has 13 secondary committees and research institutes on literacy education, enterprise education, rural adult education, specialized secondary adult education, and research on adult education. Others are the Chinese Society of Workers Education and Vocational Training, the Chinese Association of Continuing Engineering Education, the Chinese Association of Senior Citizens Education and the Chinese Society of Agricultural Science.

Challenges

Some of the challenges confronting Chinese adult education noted in the 2008 *National Report* include:

- the low status and of adult education on the national agenda
- the lack of a clear framework of policies and plans for its development
- the absence of a national organization to coordinate adult education
- regional imbalances
- most support for adult education was economic development related and adult education for social development relatively neglected
- more must be done to develop non-formal adult education
- the formal and non-formal systems of adult education are completely independent of each other without the connections
- insufficient training of adult educators and a lack of a full range of adult educator and adult education administrator posts in the civil service.

Cuba

In many ways Cuba does not offer much insight into adult education options – because Cuba eliminated illiteracy with its famous literacy campaign in 1960 and devoted such attention to its post-revolution education system that it has achieved a very high level of education for its small population, the results of “efforts of the past four decades to turn the country into a great school” (Republic of Cuba, 2008, p. 1).

The Constitution of 1976 stipulates universal access and free education at all levels without discrimination because of their economic status, skin colour, sex, national origin, age, religious beliefs, through a vast system of schools in all types and levels of education and free school supplies.

There is currently a significant expansion of higher education with plans for a campus in every one of the 169 municipalities in the country. This universalisation of higher education will make use of television, video, sound recordings and computers. There are special comprehensive courses for young people to help young people enter higher education.

Cuban adult education is characterised by the extensive use of the mass media for educational purposes (as seen in the two educational broadcast channels “The University for Older Adults” and “University for All”) and the development of massive provision of post-graduate studies for teachers. There are number of general education programmes run through other ministries such as those of Culture and the National Institute of Sports, Physical Education and Recreation.

Adult education is seen as a function of the state and various unions and other associations. Teacher training includes an adult education specialisation.

Of particular note is Cuba’s *Yo, sí puedo* (literally “Yes I can”) literacy programme (not to be confused with its original 1960 literacy campaign) which has been exported to a number of countries, notably Venezuela. There is a detailed examination of this method, as applied in Venezual, in the 2006 ***Ministerial Committee on Literacy. Final report*** (Department of Education, 2006, pp. 23-29) which can be summarised thus:

The literacy programme was developed in Cuba by the Pedagogical Institute for Latin America and Caribbean (IPLAC) and applied in Venezuela and some other Latin American countries.

The *Yo, sí puedo* (YSP) approach works with a broad concept of literacy while simultaneously contributing to the (re-)development of the adult education subsystem. It assumes a campaign strategy driven by a significant political will and requiring the involvement of leadership at all levels – national, provincial and local – as well as through the most decentralised level of governance, such as wards, where the programme is actually delivered with the assistance of Cuban advisors. Many of the rudiments of the YSP campaign strategy are based on the Cuban post-revolution campaign experience.

South Africa can learn from the Cuban campaign model which promotes an integrated campaign model which mobilises all spheres and all sectors of government. This is coupled with good operational guidance which is provided by extremely hard-working Cuban advisors and both political commitment and financial resources. In addition, the engagement of all public services departments and directing their functions around the campaign are an important demonstration of the “joined-up government” necessary for serving the poor and managing a successful campaign. Of particular significance, as noted in the application of the YSP in Venezuela, is the contribution made by the Ministries of Social Services, Health (assisted by the inputs of Cuban doctors), Education and Defence.

The YSP model offers a very short and intensive alphabetisation course (of approximately 100 hours, taught on a daily basis, from Monday to Friday, with each learning session lasting about two-and-a-half hours and during which time, two video classes each of 45 minutes’ duration are shown, group work is conducted and a break is taken). However, it is unlikely in South Africa that a sustainable level of literacy can be achieved in this short time and it is well below the internationally recommended norm of about 300 hours or more. The Committee recognises that developing sustainable literacy will require a somewhat longer initial period than the Cuban YSP’s envisaged six to eight weeks and that, in this regard, the core curriculum developed for SANLI should be expanded to achieve the competencies of ABET level 1.

The YSP method of reading and writing is composed of alphanumeric concepts, which in practice means that letters of the alphabet are associated with numbers. The method is based on the premise that illiterate learners are familiar with the system of numbers. According to IPLAC, the association of letters with numbers accelerates and facilitates the learning process, since, it is argued, learners are already familiar with numbers as a result of their life circumstances. The YSP method teaches the names of letters (graphemes) and not the sounds of letters (phonemes), and employs an alphabetic and not a phonetic method. Learners are taught upper and lower case and cursive and numbers at the same time. They are required to learn five isolated letters per lesson, each one allocated to a number to aid memory. In this regard the YSP approach differs conceptually from literacy approaches which have been used successfully in South Africa. The Ministerial Committee perceived the YSP method as being *cognitively cumbersome*, creating a heavy cognitive load for a new learner. It did not recommend itself as a suitable method for South Africa.

The YSP facilitators attend a brief, one-week training course which is supplemented by a brief facilitator’s manual and ongoing teacher support through the programme. During training, facilitators are required to go through the materials which would be used in teaching rather than being trained in methods for teaching adults, problems that adults may encounter or other elements necessary to facilitate adult learning. This is because the lessons are taught by video and do not require much of the classroom teacher. The Ministerial Committee on Literacy argued that a South African plan could draw on already trained ABET educators given the large number that have already received training and that they receive good continuous in-service training as in YSP.

One of the distinguishing features of IPLAC’s YSP and basic education programmes is their use of radio and television (or more usually, audio and video cassettes) to provide the actual

teaching. IPLAC regards this as economical as it does not require highly trained educators. However, there are problems associated with sound (often against background noise) and with viewing videos in daylight and on a small TV screen. These would be important considerations for South Africa, as are the problems associated with lack of electricity and security. Moreover, the Committee noted problems of pacing as learners were unable to keep up with the pace of the video.

The Ministerial Committee on Literacy considered the use of a traditional teacher presenting a lesson via the TV to a class as not being sufficiently able to stimulate learner participation – an essential component in empowering learners. In terms of the South African context, it is suggested that if video is to be introduced, it would need to be well conceptualised and be incorporated as a means of enriching learning, for taking the learners “out of the classroom” into other realities which they could not reach in their life worlds or through a regular classroom interaction. In this way the video could be used as a support to learning. Well-conceptualised video lessons could also be employed to address shortages of skills in, for example, the teaching of numeracy. However, it would be necessary to rely on the skills of an institution such as the SABC to produce high quality videos, and the limitations of electricity would need to be considered.

In its application of the YSP in Venezuela, adaptations have been made for blind and deaf-mute learners with the primer being translated into Braille for the blind. The deaf-mute learners use the original material but benefit from a facilitator who translates the content of the videotapes using sign language. The programme, where necessary, provides learners with a one-on-one teaching experience where the teacher visits the learner in his or her home.

The Cuban model is admirable in providing the basis for a campaign in Venezuela which necessarily leads on to a basic education component (YSP is only the first very basic level of literacy acquisition) that is genuinely both fast track and not a ponderous replication of primary schooling. The South African *Kha Ri Gude* literacy campaign model has, unfortunately, not been backed up by an expansion of post-campaign follow-up.

Venezuela

Venezuelan educational policy is focussed on the development of a quality education for all throughout life, that is, it is very much a lifelong education model, including adult education. Since 1999 education in Venezuela has been free, compulsory and inclusive. The Education Law (LOE) defines adult education as being for people over age fifteen “who wish to acquire, expand, renovate or upgrade their skills or change their profession. It aims to provide cultural and professional training necessary to enable them to social life, productive work, and the pursuit of their studies.” [Article 39]. It makes provision for recognition of prior learning and certification thereof. The Ministry of Education is instructed to create technical assistance centres to provide free schooling and specialised training.

Since 2003 there has been an expanded educational services for adults, aimed at providing a comprehensive inclusive education of quality and relevance to people and gradually incorporating them into the educational system. This has mainly been done through the implementation of educational ‘missions’ (more or less equivalent to a Presidential programme) that run in campaign modes.

There are three main adult education missions that provide coverage from basic to higher education.

Mission Robinson (which has three educational phases starting with basic literacy) provides literacy and basic education using the Cuban *Yo, sí puedo* method. It has a additional fourth phase that gives training for the production of goods and services). **Mission Ribas** provides secondary level education and training to the graduates of Mission Robinson and other people who do not have a secondary education. This is done in collaboration with local government and cooperatives and it includes very practical skills training, production and cooperatives. **Mission Sucre** prepares participants for entrance into the national system of higher education. All missions make considerable use of television, video-class support and pamphlets.

The who set of initiatives have had the support of Cuban advisors and educators and has a very well functioning set of data systems that can provide up to date data on the whole country on a daily basis. There is also very strong collaboration with higher education institutions and special training courses for educators working in the Missions.

Developing countries

Botswana

Botswana

Historical background to adult education

During colonial times, public education generally was neglected and adult education took the form mainly of agricultural extension programmes. After independence in 1966, the Botswana government focussed on the expansion of formal education and adult education received little attention. It was, at the time, one of the poorest twenty five nations in the world. In the 1970s Botswana started dramatic diamond-led growth, the economy expanded four-fold, and by the 1990s it was a middle income state with almost half the population living in urban areas. However, great disparities in wealth have grown, as has been pointed out by Mafela *et al* (2000, p. 3) and with about 37% of the population below the poverty line in 2001. The schooling system has a high drop-out rate and quality problems and these, together with the residual poverty are adduced as reasons for requiring robust non formal education provision “which is presumed to be in a better position to provide opportunities for the enhancement of lives for adults, out-of-school children, drop-outs and other youth.” (Mafela *et al*, 2000, p. 3).

In 1972 a UNESCO consultant proposed a literacy campaign to reach 250,000 people over a period of 18 years. This campaign approach was rejected by government as too ambitious and demanding on existing extension services.

The Botswana Extension College was established in 1973 to provide various Junior and Secondary schooling equivalents and also non-formal courses through distance education, including print, radio and face-to-face media.

Subsequently in 1976 the Government commissioned a review of the education system which came up with the first *National Policy on Education* (Ministry of Education, 1977) that, noting that literacy as a form of basic education is a prerequisite for other development efforts, recommended the Government to take up out-of-school basic education and literacy as a national initiative (Ministry of Education, 1977):

A fully literate population is an important long term objective if Botswana's national principles are to be achieved ... it is required in the context of efforts to achieve greater productivity, health, or have greater control over one's environment and it will contribute to the achievement of other objectives

It started three major programmes: Distance Education, Home Economics, and the National Literacy Programme.

The result of this policy was the establishment of the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) in 1978. In 1977 the Botswana Extension College ran an experimental adult literacy programme and another in 1978 and the Department of Non-Formal Education was constructed out of the Extension College and made responsible for adult literacy work.

The National Literacy Programme (NLP) was developed on the basis of the findings of an inter-ministerial task force established by the Ministry of Education in 1979 to formulate adult education policies and strategies. *The Eradication of illiteracy in Botswana – A National Initiative: A Consultation Document* that listed the objectives of a national initiative as follows (Ministry of Education, 1979):

- to eradicate illiteracy and to enable an estimated 250,000 illiterate adults and youth (40% of the population aged 15-45 years) to become literate in Setswana and numeracy within a period of six years, that is, 1980-1985.
- to enable the participants to apply knowledge in developing their cultural, social and economic life.
- to enable participants to perform community duties on the one hand and to exercise the rights and obligations of citizenship on the other.

Task force recommendations were made on the objectives, strategy, organization, content, method, materials, research, and evaluation of the proposed literacy programme. Literacy was defined as “the ability to read and write with understanding, in either Setswana, English or both; and the ability to carry out simple computations in everyday life.” The government accepted the policy document and in 1980 formally launched a national programme to eradicate illiteracy. Backed with mainly foreign donor funding, the programme began experimentally in five of Botswana’s districts and in 1981 became nationwide. It was targeted to reach 250,000 men, women and adolescents between 1980 and 1985, those who were either illiterate or had dropped out of school before completing five years of primary education.

Unfortunately the DFNE was unable to eradicate illiteracy in six years. The government decided to institutionalize the programme from 1985, took over an increasing proportion of the costs, and added further programme objectives during the process of the National Development Plan Six (1985-1991), as follows:

- To help the learning needs of communities in rural and remote areas by providing education for adults who had a chance to go to school... and for children who are living in villages without schools.
- The Department will expand its non -formal activities beyond reading, writing and numeracy. The needs of rural communities in terms of skills required for income generating activities will form the basis for expansion.

By 1986 the programme had been internally evaluated three times and was seen as effective, though it had not reached its targeted numbers. The whole programme was then externally evaluated in 1986/1987. This evaluation (Gaborone *et al*, 1987) used a combination of methods which included survey, case study and literacy tests. In spite of a paucity of data on learner progress, the evaluation judged the programme to be effective in teaching literacy and numeracy to those who stayed in the programme. Successful participants (78.9% of the males and 81.9% of the females passed a performance test) performed at a level equivalent to grade 6 in the formal school (and this finding has since formed the basis for transfer between the formal school and non-formal basic education). Learning materials were constructed around development issues such as health and agriculture. The programme had administrative

weaknesses and in post-literacy support. There was a large drop-out rate, a lack of qualified staff and low morale amongst the volunteer Literacy Group Leaders who did the teaching. It was suggested that it should continue no longer as a short term five year project (the original target was unrealistic in terms of numbers and time-table and not based on an accurate assessment of the extent, location, needs, and characteristics of the illiterate population) but become a continuous development programme. A number of other changes were recommended including a review of the curriculum and a stronger policy direction.

Subsequently the project was changed into a programme and it became known as the Botswana National Literacy Programme and honoraria for the literacy instructors were increased. The study had also proposed a national house hold survey on literacy.

However, many of the other evaluation recommendations, notably on decentralization, were not followed up. On the control of the programme, the evaluation described it as a highly centralized programme implemented by a single department that had adopted a conventional approach to literacy and was tightly controlled by the government. It used Setswana as the only language of instruction. District adult education officers had limited responsibility and there was little involvement by the local government departments in the districts or by NGOs.

In 1991 a study was commissioned to collect empirical evidence on the need for post literacy (in its ten years of operation the national Literacy Programme had produced 11,857 graduates who presumably might require some post literacy intervention).

Another 1991 study by Mutava, Mutanyatta and Gaborone looked at cooperation and coordination between the National Literacy Programme and other government departments, NGOs and donor agencies. They concluded that there were deficiencies in cooperation and coordination. Literacy provision was seen as the sole responsibility of Department of Non Formal Education and this made it difficult for other agents to engage in this work.

In 1993 the DFNE in conjunction with the Central Statistics Office conducted the first national literacy survey which calculated a literacy rate of 68.9% with a 66.9% rate among men and 70.3% among women. The National Literacy Programme was only reaching about 14.2% of the eligible population. The 1993 National Commission on Education observed that there were high levels of drop-out and inefficiencies in the organisation.

The Second National Commission on Education (1993) and the subsequent ***Revised National Policy on Education*** (1994) (still the officially prevailing policy guideline for the education sector) recommended improvement and expansion of the mandate beyond just adult literacy provisions. All children should receive ten years of basic education and be prepared for the world of work and international competitiveness. The revised mandate included provision and co-ordination of out-of-school education for children, youth and adults with an underlying philosophy life-long learning (Ministry of Education, 1994):

- Education should not be conceived only as schooling, but as a lifelong learning process for all, both young and old. The goal is to create a learning society in which every individual is acquiring new knowledge. It is therefore necessary to provide access to learning opportunities outside formal education to benefit those who would wish to further their education.

- Out-of-School education is a complex area in view of the wide variety of client groups it caters for. The current situation reveals that the various providers of out-of-school education operate parallel to each other and the quality of the programmes is uneven. This sector lacks the status and recognition it usually enjoys in developed and some developing countries. The sector also lacks a comprehensive policy as it was left out of the Government Paper No. 1 of 1977 with a view to prepare a separate policy which was never done.
- Government recognises the need to create learning opportunities outside the formal education system at all levels for those who would want to avail themselves to the pursuit of further learning. An institutional framework will be created for the delivery and co-ordination of all types of out-of-school education.

More specific recommendations in these ***Revised National Policy on Education*** recommendations were (Ministry of Education, 1994)

REC. 81 [para. 8.6.3] With respect to the National Literacy Programme, the Commission recommends:

- a) the continuation of the National Literacy Programme under the direction of the Department of Non Formal Education.
- b) an immediate review of the level of payment and conditions of employment of Literacy Group Leaders.
- c) an evaluation of the National Literacy Programme to take place immediately after the publication of the results of the National Household Literacy Survey.

REC. 82 [para. 8.6.7] With respect to post-literacy stage for adult learners, the Commission recommends that:

- a) the Department of Non Formal Education should give greater priority to post literacy activities, particularly in relation to the development of a literate environment and support to productive activities in traditional agriculture and the informal sector.
- b) the Department of Non Formal Education should introduce an “Adult Basic Education Course” to provide adults with the equivalent of Standard Seven schooling.

REC. 83 [para. 8.6.9] With respect to junior secondary education for adults, the Commission recommends that the proposed Botswana Distance Education College offers the Junior Certificate programme with a support system to meet the needs of adults.

REC. 84 [para. 8.7.9] With respect to the extension services, the Commission recommends that:

- a) provide training in technical and business skills for the rural and urban informal sector should become a new priority.
- b) a review of all training for the informal sector should be undertaken immediately under the direction of the Rural Extension Coordinating Committee (RECC) to provide the basis for expansion and improvement.
- d) all involved in the development of the informal sector should receive gender-sensitivity training.
- e) the Social and Community Development departments and the Department of Non Formal Education take a broader and more innovative approach to the learning needs engendered by contemporary social development, and that the RECC convene a representative conference on the future of social development programmes.

In 1998 a *National Plan of Action for Adult Learning* was prepared by the Botswana National Commission for UNESCO and argued that literacy should be relevant to people's social and economic contexts.

In 2000 Carr-Hill *et al* (Carr-Hill, 2000) completed a UNICEF commissioned analysis of the provision and impact of five non-formal basic education programmes which included some delivered by the National Literacy Programme to the workplace and to income generation skills training projects (taught by Literacy Group Leaders). The workplace literacy provision was highly regarded by its participants, who saw it as empowering on a personal as well as on a vocational level. The basic literacy skills gained improved productivity because employees were able to make the correct requests for equipment where this is required for particular job categories, thus reducing wastage of time and resources. They were also able to write meaningful reports to their superiors about their duties where this was required. On the Income Generation Programmes (IGPs) they reported (Carr-Hill, 2000, p. 123)

Income Generating Projects are an important part of the National Literacy Program. The majority of participants deemed them a success. For some of the program participants, IGPs are the only source of livelihood that they and their families depend on. The combination of the NLP and IGPs is also the only chance that others have to gain the necessary skills in entrepreneurship. IGPs have also been a disappointment to some participants who are reportedly getting very little from the investment that they are making with IGPs. To those, the projects have not made any positive impact in their lives. There was also a noticeable need for group dynamics and record keeping in most of the projects. The participants reported very limited community leadership involvement in the projects but indicated that the community appreciated their contribution to development.

In 2001 the DFNE introduced an Adult Basic Education Course (ABEC) in a one year pilot project and used South African Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) materials. In 2005 the UNESCO Institute for Education was asked to develop a curriculum for the planned Adult Basic Education programme equivalent to Standard Seven (Hanemann, 2005, p. 15). A well designed set of materials was produced.

The national policy framework for literacy and adult education

The *National Development Plan 9* of 2002 (Government of Botswana, 2002) devoted one chapter to education and espoused lifelong learning a central element of the education strategy for the *NPD9*. In a rapidly changing world everybody ought to learn throughout their lifespan and education needed to be made more flexible, so that people can enter and leave the education system at different times in their lives. The Ministry of Education would, in conjunction with relevant partners, develop policies, programmes and projects to enhance the environment for lifelong learning (pp. 277-278).

Programmes will be designed to facilitate easy access to learning packages, such as introducing modularised programmes to enable people to build up qualifications. As one of the strategies to ensure quality lifelong learning, a National Qualifications Framework will be developed and implemented to provide linkages and pathways between education and training and ensure quality delivery at all levels of the education and training system.

The *NPD9* noted (p. 276) that the Department of Non-Formal Education was not able to adequately transform and expand the national literacy programme (as was evident from the

decline in enrolments) due to capacity constraints. The **NDP9** (pp. 299-300) also stated that the Department of Non-Formal Education would transform the National Literacy Programme into three out-of-school education programmes: the Adult Basic Education, the Post-Literacy and Life Skills and the Out of School Education for Children. Curricular, instructional and other learning materials will be developed for the three programmes. Apart from the necessary work to plan, design, develop, and implement, monitor, assess and examine these accredited programmes, the human resources required for their implementation would be restructured and developed and the support system for learners and facilitators would be strengthened. The National Literacy Programme's organisational structure, information management, marketing, examination and testing systems would be reviewed and enhanced. The Department would also construct, equip and staff six out-of-school education resource centres (one per region) to support these out-of-school education programmes. The NDP 9 would expedite the decentralisation further to the sixth Regional Office and to the district and village levels. Provision of transport and office and residential accommodation for both district and village level offices will be strengthened. Resources for all this are not discussed.

Another document, the *Education for All National Action Plan* (EFA-NAP) for Botswana of 2002 (UNESCO, 2002) was influenced by the National Development Plan 9, the Ministry of Education's Strategic Plan for the period 2001-2006, and Vision 2016. In relation to the National Literacy Programme, the EFA-NAP recognised the constraints caused by a lack of policy guidelines on learning outcome standards, assessment and accreditation (certification) since lack of certification disadvantaged them in comparison to people leaving the school system and a National Qualification Framework was seen as one solution to this. Other constraints were quality, coordination and resourcing problems with various providers (though since 1999 there is specialised Sub-committee for Out-of-School Education, which includes literacy, of the Botswana National Council on Education). Provision was uneven, particularly in rural and poorer areas and a major challenge was to reduce drop outs and to increase participation by males in the rural areas. Other challenges were language barriers and the reliance on volunteer part-time staff.

The **EFA-NAP** proposed to reduce illiteracy by 20% by 2009 and to achieve a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for men. The main implementation strategies proposed by the EFA-NAP are the revision of the national literacy programme and integration with other non-formal education programmes; the development of a literacy extension programme; the linkage of adult literacy programmes with commerce and industry and integration into learners' life styles; and the development of appropriate materials and methodologies. However only 1.2% of the proposed **Plan** budget is allocated to adult literacy (52.4% for the development of a literacy extension programme for adults; 23% for linkage of adult literacy programmes with commerce and industry; 20% for revision of the national literacy programme; and 4.5% for development of materials and methodologies to enhance functional literacy in rural and remote communities. About 77% of this would be spent by the DNFE (UNESCO, 2002, pp. 21 and 23). The EFA-NPA did criticize the inadequate funding and marginalization of the non formal education sector.

Particularly striking is that literacy is not considered in the *2002 Revised National Policy for Rural Development* and the *National Strategy for Poverty Reduction of 2003* and the, even

though there is a close interrelationship between illiteracy and poverty and the highest rates of both persist in rural and remote areas.

Another, government commissioned, evaluation of the National Literacy Programme was started in 2003 by the UNESCO Institute of Education (UNESCO Institute of Education, 2004). One of the main aims of this evaluation was to do a comprehensive review of the curriculum and operations of the programme as per the 1994 *Revised National Policy on Education* recommendation 81c and to pave way for the implementation of Adult Basic Education, Post Literacy, Skills Training and Out-of-School Education Children's programmes. The evaluation team concluded that the primary issue facing the DNFE was that of approach: the programme was not conceived as part of a holistic adult basic education strategy and the programme's curriculum, materials and assessment practices were inadequate and outdated (ironically enough, one reason for a lack of national assessment standards was the intention to decentralize the programme). The programme did not issue officially accredited certificates. Various sub-programmes (such as income generation, workplace literacy, etc.) which had attempted to address such curriculum needs were not integrated well. The DNFE needed to focus more resources and attention on the areas where the learners were most concentrated. Overall, the problems lay in implementation rather than policies, which were considered advanced. The evaluation came to the conclusion that there is an urgent need to place more emphasis on and devote more resources to work in the field.

The provision framework

The main literacy and non formal education provider in Botswana is the Department of Non-formal Education (DNFE) (Ministry of Education, 2005a) which is currently responsible for the provision of learning opportunities outside the school system for those who wish:

- to complete a basic level of education (out-of-school children and adults who lack basic education),
- to continue their education and training to a higher level (young people and adults), or
- to acquire new knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to improve the quality of their individual and community life(adults).

The Department has the following out-of-school education goals (Ministry of Education, 2005b):

- establish a learning society in which education is seen as a lifelong process.
- guarantee universal access to basic education for school-age children and adults in order to promote equity and social justice.
- provide opportunities for young people and adults to further their initial education to higher stages in order to raise the general level of education of the population.
- provide opportunities for adults to acquire work-related skills that will improve their productivity and standard of living, and promote economic growth.
- increase the ability of adults to take part in social, political, cultural and sporting affairs in order to improve their quality of life and promote greater participation in the development process.

Adult Basic Education

The **Adult Basic Education Programme** is responsible for promoting, supporting, monitoring rural out of school education at primary level for both children and adults. It is also responsible for post literacy activities particularly towards the development of a literate environment. It has introduced an Adult Basic Education Course equivalent to Grade 10 schooling and provides training in technical and business skills for rural and urban sectors. Furthermore, the Adult Basic Education Programme has the responsibility to review all training for the informal sector as well as to take a broader and more innovative approach to the learning needs engendered by contemporary social developments. Another significant development in ABEP is the hiring of new and qualified facilitators who hold first degrees in different disciplines. These are given orientation programme under a special arrangement between the DNFE and the Department of Adult Education of the University of Botswana.

Other notable ABE programmes are the Literacy at the Workplace Project, Income Generating Projects, the Village Reading Rooms, and English as a Second Language.

The **Literacy at the Workplace Project**, though conceived in the 1980s, only started as an organised initiative in 1991. The purpose of this project is to reach non-literate people at their places of work. The general operational strategy is that the Department of Non Formal Education and the target organisation work together to identify non-literate workers. The organisation is responsible for providing or identifying a venue for classes, arranging a class schedule, releasing employees to attend classes, and for paying the instructor, who is trained by the Department, which also provides the teaching materials. Though slightly more than 51 organisations have participated in the Literacy at the Workplace Project since its inception, the actual number of participants is quite low, 665 in 2003 (Mukumbira, 2005).

An **Income Generating Activities Project** provides training in production and business management skills to people who participate in the National Literacy Programme. This gives participants the opportunity to use their literacy and numeracy skills in real life situations, and thereby strengthen and consolidate them.

The **Village Reading Rooms project** is run jointly by the DNFE and the Botswana National Library Service (BNLS). It was conceived in the 1980s as a post-literacy programme to offer the newly literate an opportunity to read beyond their primers. Mulindwa and Legwaila (2000) describe a break through as having occurred when a 1985 Botswana Library Association organised conference for the first time brought together librarians and literacy educators for the purpose of working out a common strategy to ensure that the Botswana population became functionally literate and that they made full use of the public library service in pursuit of this. What emerged was an agreement to ensure that the two services work in tandem as they were obviously complementary to each other and their work could not be successful if carried out separately. On the basis a pilot Village Reading Rooms project was started and the 6th national development plan covering the years 1985 to 1991 included a commitment to the National Literacy Programme by stating, under the section on public libraries, that, "Village Reading Rooms will be constructed to assist with the National Literacy Programme". Since 1988 the Department of Non Formal Education and the BNLS have co-operated through an Inter-Agency Material Production Committee to produce the

'IPALELE Readers Series'. These are easy-to-read functional books for new literates, and the DFNE and the BNLS take turns in producing this series. These Village Reading Rooms have now been extended to many areas of Botswana and in 2000 they numbered 67. They have succeeded in making books more available in rural areas and to new literates. Molefe (2004) notes the importance of the library service in providing a literacy sustaining environment. However Mulindwa and Legwaile (2000) point out the problems of the multiple ownership of the project, clashes of interests, lack of consultation with literacy learners, unsuitable opening hours, and unsuitable location.

The **English as a Second Language programme** is an outcome of the 1984 and 1987 evaluation studies of the National Literacy Programme (Mukumbira, 2005). These evaluations showed the need and demand for English as a Second Language for communication and further studies and employment.

Interesting though these projects are, they do not provide evidence of any substantial change in the approach to curriculum development. Also, typically, the workplace and income generation activities, remain small scale.

A thorough evaluation study by Mafela *et al* (2000) on the impact of the non formal education programmes gives a fair degree of insight into the status of non formal education in Botswana and the extent to which these programmes are effective.

The Department of Non Formal Education and the National Library Services have been making efforts to provide post-literacy materials for the programme graduates from the late 1980s with the establishment of the Village Reading Rooms (VRRs). The Department has recently started working with various industries on a workplace literacy project. The basic objective of the workplace literacy programme is to provide a learning opportunity for some of the workers who do not have basic literacy skills of reading, writing and numeracy. The organisations allow their workers to attend literacy classes during working hours. The Department of Non Formal Education on the other hand, provides the teachers and the materials such as primers. (Mafela *et al* 2000, p. 14)

The evaluation produced a long list of 55 recommendations (Mafela *et al*, 2000, pp. 146-153) that both overtly and implicitly suggest that there is a need for substantive curriculum development and different approaches in the five areas looked at, namely workplace literacy, income generation projects, distance learning, non formal night schools, and community schools in remote area settlements. It is also clear that those partnerships that exist are at best weak.

In all, though these initiatives are clearly breaking some of the formality of the main literacy programme, they are not on a large scale and they do not seriously change current patterns of centralized management, delivery and curriculum design. This problem is most strikingly seen in relation to the 28 minority languages, spoken by about 30% of the population.

The critique of the National Literacy Programme

Although the initial design of the National Literacy Programme may have been influenced by public consultations, its planning and implementation was heavily centralised and recently a chorus of commentators have critiqued this and urged radical and comprehensive reform.

In 1997 Youngman (1997, p.11) confirmed that: “The National Literacy Program is a centralized and monolithic program which officially provides little scope for local variations.”

Nyirenda (1997) reporting on patterns of public sector – private sector partnerships and collaboration in the promotion of non formal education in Botswana, noted the failure of the NLP to actually eradicate illiteracy and its current low enrollments and lack of resources and mobilizing capacity stated that the Department of Non Formal Education had continued to work with very little or no involvement of other relevant national, district, and local organizations which would otherwise play a part in the implementation of the adult literacy programme. Though the potential for the collaboration of many organizations with the NLP was great, much mobilization would be needed and it was recommended that a collaborative structure operating at all levels – national, district, village, the decentralizing of the design and development of learning materials, and determination of roles and responsibilities of all collaborating partners.

Manowe and Onkabetse (1998) describe the NLP as having a centrally developed, teacher centred curriculum with centrally produced materials used nationwide regardless of needs and contexts.

Mpofu and Youngman (2001) believed the Programme to be stuck in a traditional paradigm and argued that this traditional approach showed little success in improving adult literacy levels. They suggested that a new vision, such as that articulated at the World Educational Forum in 2000, should replace the dominant tradition in adult literacy at the national-policy making level.

Then Maruatona (2002) argued that the centralized curriculum did not support linguistic, cultural, or socioeconomic diversity and that it needed a thorough reorganisation. Maruatona further attributed this centralized curriculum to the concentration of decision making authority at the top of the organizational hierarchy and said it had the effect of facilitating political control by the social and economic elite, representing the perspectives of the politically powerful and leaving teachers and learners with minimal influence on curriculum contents, choice of literacy textbooks, and language. It lead to a top down delivery of education and ignored cultural and political conflicts in the educational process.

Similarly, Maruatona and Cervero (2004) argue that the planning of the National Literacy Programme has promoted a very conventional and uncritical view of literacy. The planning was assumed by government to be an uncontested technical process in which different interests were accommodated. Though there had been both overt and quite dissent and resistance from some planners and literacy facilitators, state hegemony has been perpetuated. It controlled the development of primers and imposed adult basic education materials

imported from South Africa without adjusting them to the context of the learners. Maruatona and Cervero (2004) report that senior management lacked the initiative (and claimed a lack of curriculum specialists) to change the primers and did not allow district staff to take any initiative to change them. They argue for decentralized decision-making and devolution of power to district levels through using a more participatory approach. that involves all stakeholders. This should result in a programme that responds to the learners' life tasks.

The UNESCO Institute of Education evaluation of 2004 recommended a more dynamic language policy that recognised the linguistic diversity of the country and the setting up of a National Qualifications Framework that would assist in creating bridges between formal and non-formal education. Also recommended were the regulation of resource sharing between the DFNE and local authorities, the promotion of community-based and basic education initiatives, and the attracting of community-based and non-governmental organisations and churches into the programme. On decentralization, it noted that there was too much concentration on decision-making structures at central level, and on procedures that meant that, despite the policy drive for decentralization and the existence of decentralized structures at field and village levels, these decentralized structures were unable to do much, partly because of a lack of infrastructure or access to shared resources. Co-ordination with other institutions to improve the quality of the Programme was not working properly.

Maruatona (2005) continues this argument and says that the keys to bringing literacy development, community participation and poverty alleviation together are decentralization, deliberative democracy and the use of participatory approaches. Literacy planning and provision should be decentralized and involve all stakeholders. Dialogue on community issues should be encouraged and teachers and district officers should develop materials that incorporate the histories and realities of learners. Leadership and citizens should act together to resolve issues and work against ethnic, gender and religious divisions. The participatory approach which Maruatona recommends is the REFLECT one with these components:

- Communities turn issues in their favour
- People analyze their situation and engage in action
- Collective community analysis of issues
- Enable them to control their agenda
- Generate content that address the needs of learners
- Educators provide technical information to the community
- People make connections between literacy and poverty alleviation.

In 2005 the Ministry of Education itself accepted the need for changes (Ministry of Education, 2005a):

Although the initial design of the NLP was based on the results of public consultations, these objectives have since been overtaken by events. There is need for a more responsive programme, going beyond basic literacy equivalent to Primary Education Standard Four and responding to wider and specific learner needs beyond just reading, writing and numeracy. This approach has resultant implications for conceptual and policy frameworks, curriculum design, assessment strategies, delivery approaches, staff development requirements, financial and material resources in the development of a responsive Adult Basic Education Programme, an Educational Programme for Out of School Children and a Post literacy Programme. This programme development work will be preceded and underpinned by an overall Evaluation of the National Literacy Programme.

This evaluative history of the programme that is the major provider of literacy education in Botswana highlights several important points:

- It was a state sponsored programme with some degree of political will behind it, though that political will may have overemphasised the centralised control evident in its approach, curriculum and implementation.
- There is evidence of a lack of involvement of other agencies, such as NGOs and churches, as partners in the programme.
- The programme was well exposed to a number of evaluations and monitoring checks. Clearly much monitoring was done, though there is some ambiguity as to how much evaluation recommendations actually led to major renovations rather than technical adjustments (for example to instructor payment levels). The growing number of critical comments by evaluators and academic commentators suggest that a thorough re-conceptualisation has not happened.
- The main current direction seem to have been towards a more formalised adult basic education schooling equivalence model rather than attempts to extend to the programme to more marginalised and hard to reach communities.

That the National Literacy Programme has problems is clearly indicate in the statistics. Enrolments peaked in the mid-1980s (38,660 participants in 1985) and have steadily declined since (to 12,004 participants in 2000). The drop-out rate appears to be increasing annually and the recruitment of literacy teachers or instructors has also gone down. In 1996 Legwaila reported a drop from instructors 1,480 in 1985 to 1,090 in 1993. The UNESCO Institute of Education evaluation of 2004 noted that low and irregular attendance rates represented one of the greatest challenges for the programme.

National Literacy Programme annual enrolments : 1980 to 2000									
1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
7,676	23,630	18,779	27,935	36,068	38,660	35,354	29,999	26,200	33,226
1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
25,905	19,856	26,119	29,667	16,497	20,956	11,072	17,588	15,917	14,474
2000	2001	2002	2003						
12,004	11,771	13,458	13,045						
Sources: Ministry of Education, 2002, p. 41 UNESCO Institute of Education, 2004									

Distance Education

The **Distance Education Programme** is responsible for providing various courses to different groups by distance and open learning (mainly through the autonomous Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning (BOCODOL) that provides out of school secondary education for both young people and adults who wish to obtain certificates at both junior and senior secondary levels as well as post basic vocational, professional and management courses for employed people and/or pre-employment young people). It has five regional centres and a network of part-time tutors.

Adult Vocational Education

The Department of Vocational Education and Training (DVET) in the Ministry of Education and Skills provides some structured work-based instruction on request from industries and small-scale businesses. Vocational education is also provided by the Department of Industrial Affairs. It provides entrepreneurship development training programmes and also runs workshops on technical and business management skills.

The establishment of the Botswana Training Authority (BOTA) has meant the introduction of a system of accrediting vocational programmes both within and outside the mainstreams of provisions.

The Department of Vocational Education and Training (DVET) in the Ministry of Education and Skills Development works with Brigades in diversifying programmes offered in these institutions. Also, the Department of Industrial Affairs (DIA) has provided technical and advisory services to small and medium enterprises.

Extension education and training

A number of ministries, such as Health, Local Government, Finance and Development Planning, and Social and Community Development run various extension programmes.

The Rural Extension Coordinating Committee in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning in collaboration with the Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana has since 1997 been running the Basic Extension Skills Training (BEST) course. This course has attracted extension workers from different Government Departments, the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and private sectors. In 2007, the Course was evaluated and was found to be very effective and its course materials printed.

The Ministry of Agriculture has been sponsoring the Botswana College of Agriculture that now has a number of in-service courses.

Some NGOs such as Emang Basadi, the Kuru Development Trust and the Botswana Coalition of Non-Governmental Organisations also run such programmes. There is also a

Botswana Adult learning and Education Association (BAEA) which runs workshops for its members.

Continuing Education

The Extra Mural Studies Department of the Centre for Continuing Education (CCE) at the University of Botswana and the Centre for In-Service and Continuing Education (CICE) of the Botswana Agriculture Colleges are the main providers. Enrolments have been increasing, including for formal Certificates and Diplomas.

The Botswana College of Agriculture has already responded to the demands by establishing a Centre for In-Service and Continuing Education (CICE) in 2000, aimed at providing short courses continuing education courses on agriculture and it also develops and publishes materials on agricultural extension activities in Botswana.

In 2007, the Department of Adult Education, University of Botswana started offering courses on NGO Management..

Finance

In 2009 the Department of Vocational Education and Training received some 4.3% of the total money allocated to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development and the Department of Non-Formal Education received 1.3%. Considerable amounts of international aid for adult education and literacy have been received by Botswana from UNESCO and the Commonwealth of Learning.

Monitoring, Evaluation and Research

The Department of Adult Education at the University of Botswana has conducted a number of major studies and evaluations. It is the lead agency responsible for the training of out-of-school education personnel and for research and evaluation in this sector.

As already indicated the Botswana National Literacy Programme has been extensively evaluated.

Since its establishment in 2000, the Botswana Training Authority (BOTA) under the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs has acted to coordinate and quality assure vocational training activities for better integration and harmonisation of the Vocational Training System, known in Botswana as Structured Work Based Learning (SWBL).

BOTA is also the recognised body for quality insurance, accreditation and recognition of qualifications of different forms of adult learning and education activities. Quality Assurance is achieved through assistance of the committees of the Board, namely, the Standards

Setting Committee (SSC) and Quality Assurance Committee (QAC). The SSC was established to advise the Authority on matters of National Vocational Qualifications Framework. The QAC advises the Authority on matters pertaining systems, processes and instruments for managing quality.

Decentralization and curriculum renovation – some conclusions

Botswana is a country with a very small population and an only recently acquired degree of modest wealth. An obvious question that arises in relation to government bureaucracy is what degree of decentralization is appropriate. Certainly there is a degree of acceptance of the decentralization discourses in relation to the public service at large and to the education system in particular.

It is clear that there is a capable and democratic central authority and effective policy making and planning at the centre. The Department of Non Formal Education has developed strategic plans. This institutional capacity is important and probably sustainable. It is also clear that there is a culture of evaluation – the National Literacy Programme has had at least three internal and three external evaluations as well as been the subject of several research studies and featured in two reviews and six major policy or strategic plans.

What is more at issue is the effectiveness of decentralization, particularly in relation to implementing adult literacy. A study of the Botswana documentation gives an overwhelming sense of the National Literacy Programme as a good centrally controlled and monitored initiative having reached its natural limits and that the necessary changes – in management, in curriculum development, in trying new strategies – that would be necessary to more or less eliminate illiteracy, are not yet being effectively implemented.

There are few signs of decentralization in any meaningful sense, though there are nominally decentralized structures at regional, district, cluster and village level and there is a National Commission on shared resources. But initiative at the district level is not supported and if practised, is done in spite of the centre. The slight loosening of a totally negative attitude to literacy instruction in the small minority languages has been taken up by NGOs, faith based organisations and minority cultural groups rather than by the Department of Non Formal Education. It can hardly be described as partnership. Alternative curriculum formats – such as the REFLECT approach – are present but small in scale and also not necessarily indicative of local curriculum renovation capacity.

Overall it is a situation where decentralization and an associated curriculum renovation might well bear positive results – if engaged in positively and in genuine partnership with a range of appropriate actors (possibly starting along the lines suggested by Nyirenda (1997)), including those NGOs, cultural and religious groups that are themselves innovating but on a very small scale.

Notes on the Wolf report

The United Kingdom's Review of Vocational Education (The Wolf Report) – 2011 and the government response

Introduction

The Secretary of State for Education commissioned Professor Alison Wolf of King's College London to carry out an independent review of vocational education. She was asked to consider how vocational education for 14 to 19-year-olds can be improved in order to promote successful progression into the labour market and into higher level education and training routes. She was also asked to provide practical recommendations to help inform future policy direction, taking into account current financial constraints.

The review (Wolf, 2011), published in March 2011, was informed by over 400 pieces of evidence from the public, a number of visits to colleges, academies and training providers, and interviews and discussion sessions with key partners in the sector.

In May 2011 a government response (Department of Education (2011)) approved all of the recommendations.

The analysis of the current situation

'Churning' youth

Evidence was up to a third of youth were moving in and out of short low-level vocational qualifications of little labour-market value and of use only for short term employment. They are described as being in a state of 'churn' between periods of unemployment, temporary jobs and ineffective study because of a lack of satisfactory options (rather than from decisions to opt out of the labour force, or, indeed, education altogether). Some data shows that many who take these inferior qualifications would have been substantially better off if they had not taken them at all, and been employed instead (indeed, being on government training courses may actually be harmful, presumably because it sends out poor 'signals' to employers).

There were fewer and fewer jobs for 16 to 18/24 year olds (an international trend) and the best way to get a job was to have one. Not being employed or in education and training (being a NEET) has a long term, persistent negative effect) and being in any kind of work is better. In modern labour markets education and qualification 'pay' and degrees and apprenticeships show high returns.

Because of growing job mobility students need general skills and access to education and training that responds quickly and flexibly to (labour market) change. Increasingly the average young person will change jobs, occupation and sector.

Lack of English and Mathematics skills

Lack of basic fundamental language and mathematical skills was a crucial negative factor. Although English and Mathematics at GCSE level were fundamental to young people's future employment and further and higher education prospects, less than 50% of students had attained these by the age of 18. They are a necessary precondition for access to the most desirable courses. In most European countries genuine skills shortages mainly apply to jobs requiring quantitative and especially mathematical skills.

Failure of the qualifications system

Unfortunately, the funding and accountability systems set up by government for vocational education create perverse incentives to steer youth into inferior alternative qualifications.

Well meaning attempts to treat all qualifications at a given level as substantially equivalent are described in the report as “nonsense” and efforts to get parity of esteem between academic and vocational qualifications has in practice meant making what is practical more academic, to the detriment of both. Downward pressure has been exerted on quality standards and reduced incentives to offer or protect quality programmes. The “perverse incentives created by performance measures combined with indiscriminate ‘equivalencies’ have resulted in large amounts of sub-standard education, in which many young people took courses that were in no sense truly ‘vocational’ or useful.” (p. 112).

A typical example of how this “race to the bottom” in standards” (p. 193) occurs is when a training provider (who is paid by results) takes the rational approach of getting students to take most study units from a really ‘easy’ awarding body, then uses these credits (which have to be accepted) when finishing the qualification with a reputable body who award the final certificate.

The prioritisation of (the often very costly) compliance with the jargon and structuring requirements of the written specifications of qualifications “did virtually nothing in determining what was “actually taught, let alone the standard and quality of the assessment.” (p. 102). Written specifications are an inadequate way of establishing quality standards.

The review saw this as a manifestation of a deeper problem – the government organisations responsible for vocational qualifications: the regulatory triangle of Sector Skills Councils (SSCs), Awarding Bodies (ABs), and the Office of Qualifications and Examinations Regulation (Ofqual) talk to each other, to the exclusion of the groups that should be central: school, colleges, training providers and employers. Yet, “quality and standards depend on establishing networks among users and assessors, and, in the case of vocational awards, ensuring that employers – the ultimate creators and guardians of standards – are actively

involved at the level of delivery and judgment. Employer representation on national panels is no substitute for their active involvement with vocational education at the level of delivery.” (p. 103).

Using government-driven qualification design as the main policy and reform instrument in vocational education is a serious mistake. (p. 139). The review states “concentrating government intervention on qualification design leads repeatedly to officials and agencies concentrating on paperwork rather than on direct safeguards of quality and standards in assessment, which cannot be checked by sitting at a desk and reading submissions. This is always a major risk in bureaucracies, made even stronger by the current ‘audit’ culture which demands a paper trail, and is by no means confined to education. But it has been very strongly evident in the qualifications field, where hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of hours have been (and are) spent poring over the written specifications for qualifications, and scrutinising terminology, and even syntax. This occurs even **though the written specification for a qualification plays only a small part in the quality of the assessment, and in determining the standard of the award**, let alone in the quality of teaching and training of candidates” (p. 140)

A qualifications system unable to cope with complexity

The review also found that because of the complexity of a modern economy, attempts to impose a neat, uniform and logical structure of standards-based qualifications will always fail. The theory was that the government designed standards which qualifications now have to reflect would increase the labour-market relevance of the qualifications (and their attractiveness to employers). The review states that “it is inconceivable that a tiny number of central, government-sponsored organisations can reflect all the concerns and requirements of a fast-changing economy with strong local variations and of young people who will be in the labour market for another 50 years. Yet this is exactly what is being asked of Sector Skill Councils.” (p. 132). It also argues that Ofqual “cannot tell if a vocational qualification is of good quality – because that depends on specific sector and subject expertise which it does not and cannot have across the whole spectrum of awards.” (p. 133).

This highly regulated system may lead to good programmes being refused accreditation and inferior ones gaining it. “There is no way a national regulator ... can possess knowledge relevant to the thousands of qualifications, reflecting myriad occupations ...”. (p. 99).

Lack of progression

Because the standard-based units of these qualifications are supposedly ‘competence-based’, designed for pass/fail assessment and in which every part of each unit must be passed, they are intrinsically unsuited for grading. A competence based approach is seen as unsuitable for the education of the 14-19 age group, with its progression requirements (p. 133). It may be reasonable in an on-the-job context but not in an education system where it places a downward pressure on standards and assessment. As all units at a given level are meant to be of the same difficulty there is no room for progression within a course or qualification. The

breaking up of qualifications into these smaller units also imposes heavy costs in time and money spent on assessing, recording, etc.

There was a lack of programmes that promote progression for low attaining young people. Foundation learning courses (of which there were an astounding 1300 qualifications) had low credit value (and hence were not attractive to provider institutions as they brought in little funding) and were not attractive to employers (who value familiar qualifications and real work experience) and, “fit you to do nothing but take another qualification” (p. 94).

Making only courses that lead to qualifications eligible for funding also lead to dysfunctionality because of the shift of focus within sectors away from educational strategies to qualification strategies.

Need for a broad general curriculum

The review found that there was no indication that adding more vocational options to a common core curriculum motivated young people more or helped them achieve higher grades in their other subjects – young people drop out of vocational provision at much the same rate as they do from uniformly academic provision.

Because to receive Sector Skills Council approval a qualification must be directly related to specified standards most vocational qualifications have had to be comprehensively redesigned to be Qualifications and Credit Framework compliant. But this means that they reflect current practice in a particular occupation (which is alright for adults already employed in that particular occupation) and therefore are “entirely inappropriate for young people who are likely to change jobs, and who are entering decades of employment in a rapidly changing economy.” [p. 75]

The current United Kingdom system of funding of vocational education is on a complex and constantly changing payment-per-registered qualification adjusted by a payment by results. The results of this give government the power to fine tune the relative attractiveness to institutions of various qualifications and have lead to an increase of completion rates as well as an institutional steering of students into well funded and /or easy to pass qualifications. It provides no incentive to offer coherent programmes of study or to respond directly to the local labour market. It discourages the taking of ‘hard’ Maths and English courses.

The review noted that most European countries have a far more general [academic] high school education than in the United Kingdom and this trend is growing with a steady decline in vocational high schools and approvingly quotes Steadman: “German employers are not in the least interested in any training the schools might give... but in the educational level of the applicants. Employers want the training to be done by them, not by a school or college. Schools do their best to get their students’ general education to a decent level.”

Overlapping and non-accountable centralised regulatory bodies

Sector Skills Councils, though non-statutory, are created by government and largely funded by it and are the main designers and accreditors of almost all non-higher education qualifications. There is also a Qualifications and Examinations Regulator (Ofqual) which accredits individual qualifications and monitors their formally written standards.

The Review raises issues about whether important policy decisions have been delegated to non-accountable bodies (SSCs and other agencies), whether lines of authority are clear within government and these agencies, on whether the large and complex system is not overly costly and not responsive enough to those outside this regulatory structure. The bodies which articulate employers' views have consistently promoted very specific and narrow qualifications, even though employers have not, in practice, valued these.

In summary the Review notes that “governments have centralised decision-making on the content of vocational qualifications, vesting control in national-level official bodies and using these to obtain and feed employer content into qualifications. In the past, *there were far more direct links between employers and awarding bodies, and also between employers and their local colleges*. The evidence from the labour market indicates that centralising the development of qualifications has been a very ineffective approach. “But no centralised administrative body can possibly possess expertise in the hundreds and indeed thousands of specialist areas which vocational qualifications examine.” (p. 156)

It was concerned that far too many young people in the 16 to 19 age group “pursue courses and programmes which offer them little progress or even coherence, which are driven by funding considerations, and restricted by tight and universal design rules. This has resulted, in part, from entrepreneurial agencies and organisations pursuing their own agendas, encouraged by a lack of clarity over lines of authority.” (p. 114)

It notes that under current arrangements, heavy use is made of ‘training providers’ who operate as brokers and middlemen between employers and trainers or assessors. The review sees this as an inherently expensive and wasteful use of a third set of institutions, with additional overheads, employees, etc. Only employers and actual training institutions should be involved in apprenticeships.

It also notes that most European countries use inspection rather than formal regulation in order to quality-assure their vocational education systems.

The government response to this analysis

The Government published its formal response to the Wolf Review on 12 May 2011. This response (Department of Education, 2011) acknowledged the causes of vocational education system failure identified by the Review, namely that (p. 2):

- Indifferent teaching of highly specialised subjects from teachers who are not well enough versed in the courses they are leading.
- Young people taking courses and qualifications which have been designed to meet the needs of adults, already in employment, seeking to hone the skills they use every day – but which offer no route to further education nor entry to employment for those still in education.
- Perverse incentives, created by the performance and funding systems, encouraging the teaching of qualifications which attract the most performance points, or the most funding – not the qualification that will support young people to progress.
- Students without a solid grounding in the basics being allowed to drop the study of English and maths – the most vital foundations for employment - when these are precisely the subjects that they most need to continue.
- Not enough Apprenticeships for 16-18 year olds and a lack of incentives for employers to be involved in the programme.
- And underlying these problems, an attitude that vocational education is a second choice, easy option for the less able, which has been reinforced, not tackled, by claims of “equivalence” between qualifications which no one has truly believed.

Key recommendations

The Wolf Report made 27 recommendations, some broad in scope, some quite specific, **all** of which were accepted by the government and will be taken forward.

Information from these 27 recommendations is summarised below:

A broad general academic curriculum with progression

The review urges that all young people should receive “a high quality core education which equips them to progress, whether immediately or later, to a very wide range of further study, training and

employment. ... The period from 14-19 should be one when those remain alive, and not, as is so often the case at present, a time when options close and aspirations shrink. *We have no business, as a society, placing 16 year olds, let alone 14 year olds, in tracks which they cannot leave.*” (p. 141). Vocational education needs to be grounded in a broad academic education so that young people have the necessary basic academic skills to progress freely.

There should be incentives to young people to take the most valuable vocational qualifications pre-16, while removing incentives to take large numbers of dead-end over-specific vocational qualifications to the detriment of core academic study. Accurate and useful information to all so that young people can make sound decisions

Principles should be introduced to guide vocational study programmes for young people post-16 to ensure they are gaining skills which will lead to progression into a variety of jobs or further learning, and, in particular, to ensure that those who have not secured a good pass in English and mathematics GCSE are required to continue in serious study of those subjects taught by qualified teachers.

Learning programmes for young people should be different from occupationally specific training for employed adult workers and should include at least one qualification of substantial size (in terms of teaching time) which offers clear potential for progression either in education or into skilled employment.

Only employers who offer general broad transferable education and training rather than specific skills training should be subsidised

The government response says that for those aged 14 to 16 should be broad and balanced with an academic core supplemented by a vocational element. The GCSE should be reformed in order to reduce modularisation and re-sitting and ensure that exams are typically only taken at the end of the course. Apprenticeships should include a broad programme of study. Premature specialisation would be avoided. The vocational qualifications should be clearly defined, valuable, respected and support progression to further learning and skilled jobs. They should be comparable in terms of rigour of content and assessment (including a percentage of external assessment) to other qualifications that will count in the tables and have subjects that are recognised by employers and higher education.

Stop providing language and mathematics lite

The review found that so-called ‘key skills’ courses (intended to provide generic skills related to communication, application of number, information technology, working with others, improving own learning and performance and problem solving) and ‘functional skills’ courses (which supposedly ‘embed’ English and mathematics (and information technology) in real life examples) to be “conceptually incoherent” and “valueless” in progression terms (p. 170). They are liked by providers because they are ‘easy to pass’ options. Teaching English and maths in particular contexts is actually very difficult to do, because it demands that the teacher of the subject knows a great deal about a wide range of contexts, and can develop high quality materials for each. In practice “they embed to the point of vanishing” (p. 170).

The government response states that key skills courses are not suitable qualifications and will be phased out and only the GCSE and Functional skills courses (practical skills in English, mathematics and ICT) will be retained as recognised pathways to achieving the compulsory English and Maths elements of an apprenticeship. The programmes for 16 to 18 year-olds should follow a broad, rigorously assessed, programme, including English and maths where

they had not yet achieved to GCSE level by age 16, so that they have a secure foundation with which to progress. All young people must leave school or college with good English and maths skills. It has also asked the regulator to consider how spelling, punctuation and grammar can be strengthened in GCSEs. It wanted study programmes for young people to offer high quality, genuine work experience and focus on achievement of English and maths.

Funding and performance measures should be amended to promote a focus on these core areas and on employment outcomes rather than on the accrual of qualifications.

Avoid over specification

The review argues that the system should enable and encourage variety, innovation, and flexibility and that “ means moving away from highly detailed prescription of the content and format of qualifications, which inevitably creates delays and rigidities, and does little for the quality of provision.” (p. 142). Indeed, the detailed central specification of qualifications is a bad idea. The government response agreed that current provision at NQF Entry level and level 1, which presently shapes much of what is taught to this group of young people, is too rigidly structured and qualification driven.

The regulatory framework should move quickly away from accrediting individual qualifications to regulating awarding organisations.

What really matters is teachers and we should stop over-estimating what can be achieved through a written qualification outline.

The requirement that all qualifications offered to 14- to 19-year-olds fit within the Qualifications and Credit Framework should be removed as it has had a detrimental effect on their appropriateness and has left gaps in the market.

Avoid creating new, highly detailed and very complex programmes on a national scale when there are already well established qualifications and qualification pathways.

The government response said that it will develop a new qualification regulatory framework, including new conditions of recognition, by mid-2011 (though Ofqual will continue to intervene in individual qualifications if necessary, based on an assessment of risk, notably to secure that standards are maintained). Policy will remain that only qualifications regulated by Ofqual will be eligible for use in the maintained sector, so that schools, colleges and young people can have confidence in their quality. Certain valued qualifications that have not been approved by SSCs will be funded as a temporary measure.

End the perverse incentives caused by indiscriminate equivalencies and the funding of qualifications

There must be an end to the perverse incentives to institutions created by performance measures combined with indiscriminate ‘equivalencies’ that divert students (especially weak ones) into dead end courses and qualifications.

Institutions should be funded on the basis that they provide a coherent overall programme of study (governed by a set of general principles related primarily to content, general structure, assessment arrangements and contact time) rather than on the basis of individual qualifications (and remove the perverse incentive to pile up large numbers of (easy option) qualifications for ‘accountability’ or ‘profit maximisation’ or ‘minimise effort’ reasons)

There should not be restrictions against students or apprentices moving sideways or even downwards if appropriate

The government response said that there would be a break away from the old equivalency based performance tables. Performance indicators should not inadvertently lead to schools concentrating on particular groups of pupils (whether the less academically successful or the more able) at the expense of others. Hence performance measures should capture the full range of outcomes for pupils of all abilities. At the same time, any point-based measures should also be structured so that schools do not have a strong incentive to pile up huge numbers of qualifications per student, and therefore are free to offer all students practical and vocational courses as part of their programme.

Schools serving the age group 14 to 16 should be free to offer any qualifications they wish from a regulated Awarding Body whether or not these are approved for performance measurement purposes, subject to statutory/health and safety requirements.

Decentralise and simplify management and regulation

There should be a move away from the over-centralised and structurally over-complex management of vocational education with multiple over-lapping agencies.

Government should focus on its key roles of monitoring and ensuring quality, and providing objective information, and withdraw from micro-management.

Apprenticeship frameworks should not be drawn up entirely by Sector Skills Councils, who conceive their role in relation to **current** employers, and **current** occupationally-specific job requirements.

There is a need to recreate and strengthen genuine links between vocational education and the labour market (and especially, for young people, the local one). Employers are the only really reliable source of quality assurance in vocational areas, and, in spite of lip service, have been progressively frozen out of the way vocational education operates.” (p. 143). Employers should be directly involved in quality assurance and assessment activities at local level.

The government response states that the bureaucracy associated with apprenticeships will be removed. A more transparent process for funding apprenticeships, particularly for smaller businesses, will be developed.

Generally the government is committed to reducing the regulatory burdens placed on educational institutions and ensuring that they have as much flexibility as possible to decide for themselves how to deliver a high quality education that meets the needs of their pupils.

Funding recommendations

Funding should be for programmes and not qualifications and the funding should follow the student to institutions rather than to qualifications.

Funding mechanisms should make it easier for institutions to collaborate.

Funding should be on a per student basis (and should follow the student) (and there should be a unique student number to track use of study time credits)

Young people who do not use up their time-based entitlement to education by the time they are 19 should be entitled to a corresponding funding credit towards education at a later date.

Only employers who offer general broad transferable education and training rather than specific skills training should be subsidised

The government response said that perverse incentives to accumulate qualifications rather than provide sensible, balanced and broad programmes of study must be removed. Funding should be on a programme basis. A review will consider how to move from a formula based on qualifications to one based on funding learners. Funding rules should also allow a person to move sideways or down when this is appropriate. There should be no time limit on people to take up English and Maths study opportunities up to the age of 24.

Strengthening vocational teaching in schools

Schools will be given the right to appoint qualified vocational teachers to teach in schools.

Further Education lecturers and professionals should be enabled to teach in schools, ensuring young people are being taught by those best suited. The rules relating to using these qualified professionals who are not primarily teachers or qualified as such have to be revised..

The government response noted that the single most important factor in giving every learner a good education is to have good teachers delivering good teaching and stressed the importance, therefore, of attracting and retaining high quality teachers in all subjects, with a particular emphasis on science, mathematics and other high-priority subjects, is paramount.

Work experience

All young people should be able to gain real experience and knowledge of the workplace.

The government response said it would consider how local employers could be reimbursed. However, the statutory duty on schools to provide every 14 to 16 year old with work-related learning will be removed as it was not serving its purpose.

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