Status of

TVET

in the

SADC

Region

Status of TVET in the SADC Region

Assessment and Review of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in the Southern African Development Community Region and of the Development of a Regional Strategy for the Revitalisation of TVET

Cover Photos: © UNESCO /

Acknowledgements

Table of Contents

Chapter Three: Regional Analysis   36

Chapter Four: Key Lessons and Strategic Priorities   93

Bibliography   104

Tables

Acronyms

AA	Apprenticeship Authority (Zimbabwe)
ABET	Adult basic education and training
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
ALDEC	Adult Learning and Distance Education Centre (Seychelles)
ANEP	National Authority for Vocational Education (Mozambique)
AU	African Union
BNVQF	Botswana National Vocational Qualifications Framework
BOCODOL	Botswana College of Open and Distance Learning
BOTA	Botswana Training Authority
BTech	Bachelor of Technology
BTEP	Botswana Technical Education Programme
CBET	Competence-based education and training
CCF	College Collaboration Fund (South Africa)
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CHE	Council on Higher Education (South Africa)
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CI-ETFP	Inter-Ministerial Commission for TVET (DRC)
CIREP	Inter-Ministerial Commission for Public Sector Reform (Mozambique)
COREP	Executive Committee of Professional Education Reform (Mozambique)
COSDEC	Community Skills Development Centre (Namibia)
CPD	Continuing professional development
CSR	Country status report
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training (South Africa)
DINET	National Directorate of Technical and Vocational Education (Mozambique)
DIT	Dar es Salaam Institute of Technology (Tanzania)
DIVT	Directorate of Industrial and Vocational Training (Swaziland)
DoE	Department of Education (South Africa)
DoL	Department of Labour (South Africa)
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DTVE	Diploma in Technical and Vocational Education (Botswana)
DTVET	Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (Botswana)
DTVT	Department of Technical and Vocational Training (Malawi)
DVET	Department of Vocational Education and Training (Namibia)
EFA	Education For All
EHRSP	Education and Human Resource Strategy Plan
EMIS	Education management information system
EPSP	Enseignement primaire, secondaire and professionnel [Ministry] (DRC)
EQARF	European Quality Assurance Reference Framework
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan (Lesotho)
ETQAs	Education and Training Quality Assurers (South Africa)
EU	European Union
FCTVE	Francistown College of Technical and Vocational Education (Botswana)
FET	Further Education and Training (South Africa)
FTE	Full-time equivalent
GMR	Global Monitoring Report
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit
HDI	Human Development Index
HEI	Higher education institution
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Committee (South Africa)
HEXCO	Higher Education Examinations Council (Zimbabwe)
HIT	Harare Institute of Technology (Zimbabwe)
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome

HND	Higher National Diploma
HRD	Human resources development
HRDC	Human Resources Development Council
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council (South Africa)
ICT	Information and communication technology
IDM	Institute of Development Management (Swaziland)
ILO	International Labour Organization
INEFP	National Employment Institute of Vocational Training (Mozambique)
INPP	National Institute of Professional Preparation (DRC)
ISSDP	Informal Sector Skills Development Programme
ITE	Initial teacher education
IVTB	Industrial and Vocational Training Board
LCE	Lesotho College of Education
LMIS	Labour Market Information System
LQA	Lesotho Qualifications Authority
MANEB	Malawi National Examination Board
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MEDA	Euro-Mediterranean Partnership
MHTE	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (Zimbabwe)
MIH	Mauritius Institute of Health
MIS	Management information system
MITD	Mauritius Institute of Training and Development
MLHA	Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs (Botswana)
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoESD	Ministry of Education and Skills Development (Botswana)
MoEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (Malawi)
MoSTVT	Ministry of Science, Technology and Vocational Training (Zambia)
MQA	Mauritius Qualifications Authority
MTech	Master in Technology
MTTC	Madirelo Training and Testing Centre (Botswana)
MVTTC	Morogoro Vocational Teachers Training College (Tanzania)
NACTE	National Council for Technical Education (Tanzania)
NAMACO	National Manpower and Development Advisory Council (Zimbabwe)
NAP	National Action Plan (Zimbabwe)
NCQF	National Credits and Qualifications Framework (Botswana)
NCV	National Certificate (Vocational) (South Africa)
NEETS	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NESP	National Education Sector Plan (Malawi)
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NHRDC	National Human Resources Development Council (Seychelles)
NQA	National Qualifications Authority/Namibia Qualifications Authority
NQF	National qualifications framework
NTA	National Training Authority (Namibia)
NTT	National trade test
NTTC	National Trade Testing Centre (Nambia)
ODL	Open and distance learning
ODVET	Ordinary Diploma in VET (Tanzania)
OVC	Orphans and vulnerable children
PDF	Portable Document Format
PIREP	Integrated Programme for the Reform of Professional Education (Mozambique)
PQM	Programme and Qualifications Mix (South Africa)
QA	Quality assurance
QAA	Quality Assurance Assessment Unit (Botswana)
QCTO	Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (South Africa)
QF	Qualifications framework
QFL	Qualifications Framework for Lesotho
QNQ	Framework for Technical and Professional Education (Mozambique)
RGZ	Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar
RPL	Recognition of prior learning

RVTSCs	Regional Vocational Training and Service Centres (Tanzania)
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADCQF	Southern African Development Community Qualifications Frameworks
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SCOT	Swaziland College of Technology
SESD	Support to Education and Skills Development (South Africa)
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority (South Africa)
SIT	Seychelles Institute of Technology
SM[M]E	Small and medium [micro] enterprises
SPGCE	Seychelles Post-Graduate Certificate in Education Course
SQA	Seychelles Qualifications Authority
SWATA	Swaziland Training Authority
TDP	Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Development Programme (Zambia)
TEC	Tertiary Education Council (Botswana/Seychelles)
TET	Technical Education and Training (Tanzania)
TEVET	Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (Zambia)
TEVETA	Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority (Zambia)
TEVETA	Technical Entrepreneurial and Vocational Educational and Training Authority (Malawi)
TEVET QF	TEVET Qualifications Framework (Zambia)
TQF	TEVET Qualifications Framework (Malawi)
TVD	Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (Lesotho)
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
TVETMIS	TVET management information system
TVET QF	TVET qualifications framework
TVETSD	Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Skills Development (Swaziland)
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNESCO UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VET	Vocational education and training
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority (Tanzania)
VITA	Vocational and Industrial Training Act (Swaziland)
VOCTIM	Vocational and Commercial Training Institute Matsapa (Swaziland)
VQF	Vocational qualifications framework
VTA	Vocational Training Authority (Zanzibar)
VTC	Vocational training centre
ZIMEQA	Zimbabwe Examinations and Qualifications Authority
ZIMEQF	Zimbabwe Examinations and Qualifications Framework
ZIMSEC	Zimbabwe Examinations Council
ZQA	Zambia Qualifications Authority
ZQF	Zambia Qualifications Framework

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

■ Introduction

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is an important tool of public policy. It can support economic growth and poverty alleviation; facilitate the transition of young people to decent work and adulthood; improve the productivity of existing workers and allow for the reinsertion of the unemployed into work; assist in reconstruction after conflicts and disasters; and promote social inclusion. The value of TVET is clearly recognised in SADC's work, which is governed by the SADC Protocol on Education and Training (1997), and by UNESCO, which sees TVET as one of its three priority areas in its work on meeting the Education for All (EFA) goals.

However, in spite of the importance of TVET for development and a range of national reform initiatives to support TVET over the past two decades, major concerns remain regarding the state of TVET in the Southern African region. These led SADC and UNESCO to intervene through the commissioning of a pilot TVET monitoring tool and a regional review of the state of TVET, with a view to developing a new strategic programme of action for regional cooperation in TVET.

As is made clear throughout this report, the evidence gathering process for these activities demonstrated the very weak current knowledge base for TVET in the region. This means that the report has to be seen as a first step towards better knowledge for better policies and practices. The limitations of the data mean that the findings are often the best currently possible rather than meeting the highest standards of rigour. Equally, the comparative analysis cannot be as sophisticated as may be possible in future years when the data are more robust. Nonetheless, the report represents an important step forward in building an evidence-driven picture of the state of TVET in Southern Africa that provides a valuable basis for future strategic interventions.

A key challenge for this work is that there is no definitional agreement regarding the nature and scope of TVET in the region. Indeed, TVET is the term used in this report as this was agreed by SADC and UNESCO and does reflect (some of) the language of some countries. However, TVET could be replaced by other concepts such as human resources development or skills development, which are seen in some contexts as being broader notions.

It is apparent that there is a pressing need for a better inter-regional understanding of what particular terms mean, even if countries are to continue with their own preferences. It may also be important to develop a glossary of what is meant by certain terms (e.g., life skills, subject knowledge, and technical skills); a taxonomy of how these relate to each other theoretically; and a theory of how their acquisition/development should be sequenced and structured. Such a discussion would also need to clarify what should be included under the rubric of TVET (or any other preferred term). It is necessary, for instance, to decide whether technical/commercial schooling; the provision of occasional vocational subjects in an otherwise academic education; and/or the infusion of a whole schooling with vocationally-oriented notions such as life or employability skills merit consideration as part of a broader skills or TVET strategy. Equally, it is necessary to consider what elements of higher education are also properly parts of TVET: for instance, non-advanced provision in TVET institutions; provision in specialist advanced technical, vocational or professional institutions; the provision of vocational subjects in universities (and whether these include subjects such as law and medicine); and/or the infusing of all university programmes with employability skills.

These numerous definitions and tensions, and the way that they are reflected in the available data, have required the use in this regional report of a pragmatic definition of TVET that largely focuses on initial vocational education and training within dedicated provider institutions that engage with the lower and intermediate levels of national qualifications, and, to a lesser extent, on the provision of formal qualifications either totally in workplaces or in some form of alternance system of work and training.

◼ Key findings

● TVET's purpose and impact: a need for clarification

Although all SADC countries are committed to TVET, national visions of what TVET is for are often not clear. The widespread weakness of data systems, particularly on any key performance indicator, can give the impression that there is little conviction that TVET should lead to employment. Certainly, there is little awareness of recent international concern with promoting employability, and nothing at all about broader notions such as capability or active citizenship.

Whilst there is considerable rhetoric about TVET's developmental role, statements about it rarely go beyond the rhetoric. There is almost no sense that there are national or regional theories of how TVET plays a developmental role. Instead, there is a tendency to present formulae that TVET improves competitiveness and insertion into the global knowledge economy, which tell nothing about what these concepts mean in national contexts or how national TVET systems go about supporting these larger policy objectives. It is not surprising, therefore, that several countries still have little to say about the developmental potential and impact of TVET in their overall national development strategies. This gap seems particularly striking as African countries experience high economic growth levels that increasingly bring about new skills challenges.

● Systemic reform

Although there may be weaknesses of overall vision, all SADC member states clearly have realised the need for systemic TVET reforms and are influenced by the package of reforms that became the international policy orthodoxy in the 1990s. All have made progress towards implementing this package. Nonetheless, some countries have gone much further than others. In trying to understand this, it is important to realise that many factors relate to matters far beyond TVET, such as conflict or national developmental status. Equally, it is necessary to consider that the use of elements of the TVET tool kit may be closely related to issues about systems maturity in particular countries. This may mean that certain reforms are not yet feasible in some contexts.

Qualifications frameworks

Almost all the countries of the region have at least begun developing a national qualifications framework (NQF) and there is also commitment to developing a regional framework. National stakeholders generally considered that progress towards qualifications framework implementation was good, although with room for improvement. Nonetheless, it is clear from the evidence across the region, where NQFs range from 16 years old to still being considered, that NQF reform is a complex and long-term policy process and needs to be understood as such. It is also apparent that there is little clear evidence yet on the impact of NQFs in the region.

There is no consensus regarding the sequencing of NQF reform. It remains unclear whether it is better to get a vocational framework working well before contemplating the greater political challenges of including schools and universities, or whether a comprehensive model should be attempted from the outset.

Although several reports make reference to ambitions for national frameworks to articulate with international qualifications, the reports are generally silent on the issue of implementing the regional qualifications framework and it appears that most countries, at least implicitly, feel that they have more than enough to do in getting their national models working without concerning themselves with the regional dimension. Thus, whilst there is a case for a regional framework as a tool for maximising labour mobility in the region, it appears that regional harmonisation should concentrate for the foreseeable future on promoting dialogue across the region regarding what each country is intending, rather than seeking to be a vehicle for strong convergence of national approaches.

Quality assurance

Here too, there is a strong sense of commitment across the SADC region. Governments seem well aware that challenges of quality remain significant. However, although some countries are very positive about the current state of their quality assurance (QA) systems, self-ratings were lower than for the NQF on average and two countries had ratings of 1 out of 5.

QA systems and the distribution of quality assurance responsibilities differ. In some systems, a single quality assurance agency is responsible for a wide range of quality assurance practices, while in other systems responsibility is distributed across several agencies, some of which are more limited in their role. Different agencies also focus on different quality assurance practices, such as exit assessment and certification; programme approval and provider quality improvement; or provider accreditation and assessment moderation. Furthermore, different agencies may perform similar quality assurance tasks but may do so in different parts of the TVET sector and/or in different kinds of provider agencies.

Even where QA systems are stronger, there is a wide range of approaches and a lack of robust evidence on their effectiveness. Some countries have sought to take a developmental approach to quality assurance, where the QA system pays considerable attention to capacity building of the providers that are expected to be on the front line of quality delivery. This appears to be a fruitful approach for others to explore.

Policy coherence

Part of the challenge of managing TVET is that it is inherently a cross-sectoral issue rather than falling easily under one governmental department. It is not surprising, therefore, that countries commonly struggle with TVET policy coherence. In response, a number of countries have reorganized areas of responsibility for TVET between ministries, have set up new inter-ministerial coordination structures or have linked TVET policy coherence to wider governance reforms by establishing national human resource development structures that include wider stakeholders. Equally, NQFs have been seen by many as a major tool for, or even a guarantor of, TVET policy coherence.

Regrettably, though at present there may be evidence of why reforms have been initiated and what they are intended to do, there is a lack of any significant data on how any of these attempts at policy coherence have worked and whether they provide any lessons for other countries. Nonetheless, it seems likely that policy incoherence may be best overcome when there is a clear sense of a national vision for TVET and strong leadership of the policy coherence process.

National governance reform

Every national report recorded progress in this area. However, it is more typical that reforms are under way rather than that they are fully realised. As was noted above, a number of countries had introduced new structures that encouraged both cross-governmental working and a stakeholder-based approach. Such ways of working are relatively new and the extent of the challenge both culturally and technically should not be underestimated.

Whilst it is accepted that stakeholders should be involved in overall system governance, there is also a strong sense - particularly in the more developed countries in the region - that the state has a legitimate and powerful role to play in national development and should continue to take an active and leading position in the development of TVET.

Employer involvement

The nature of TVET means that employers must be involved in significant ways. TVET reforms across the SADC region are driven by a strong concern to ensure training is responsive to, and relevant for, labour market and industry needs. Forging closer links to industry is advocated at both national and provider institutional levels, and across a wide range of activities from policy development to implementation; and from setting national standards based on occupational profiles to work placements as part of a training programme. However, whilst some countries report significant and formalised employer involvement in the TVET system, others can demonstrate little in this regard. Moreover, the evidence suggests that employers are typically more engaged at the national level than at the local level. As with other areas, there is a paucity of good evidence regarding what has worked and why.

Public provider governance reform

Whilst there has been noticeable progress in national governance reforms, changes in how public TVET providers are governed and managed are less widespread. In some cases, new governing councils have been established and more power has been given to these and/or institutional managers to make operational and even strategic decisions regarding TVET provision. In some cases, stronger QA systems and more clarity regarding key performance indicators have allowed institutions to be more accountable. However, as with such innovations internationally, it appears that there have been some problems in the early implementation of such reforms and some concern from officials that TVET providers are not using their new powers wisely.

It appears that serious governance reform at the public provider level is something that comes later in the sequencing of reforms. This perhaps reflects the relative ease with which the state can attempt national-level reform and the relative lack of reach it has even in small countries in ensuring more local reforms. Nonetheless, provider level governance reforms do appear to be an essential element of any genuine and sustainable TVET quality improvement as it is at this level that the actual teaching and learning must take place. In particular, it may be that such governance reforms open up possibilities for public TVET providers to develop a collective voice that may also feed powerfully into national governance reforms.

Including private sector providers

Some countries in the region have revolutionised their attitude to private training providers and have moved from a position of hostility to genuine attempts to integrate them into a single national TVET system. There may be real benefits in other countries seeking to learn from such experiences. However, in general it appears that there is still too much official ignorance of and disinterest in private providers.

In some countries, the focus is more explicitly on what is termed non-formal provision. This is understood as being part of private provision, reflecting challenges of definitions, as some elements of non-formal provision have been incorporated over time into public systems.

Whilst governance, quality assurance and qualifications frameworks reforms should all assist in better thinking across the range of TVET provision types, it appears that this is not sufficient and that there is a need for a better understanding of all types of provision and how best the state should interact with them.

Decentralisation

There is a long-standing international orthodoxy that decentralisation of public provision is good. However, in some of the small states of the region the TVET system may be too small for decentralisation to have much meaning. In some of the more developed TVET systems in the region, a complex approach to decentralisation appears to be emerging in which local autonomy and greater responsiveness to local economic development opportunities and challenges should be balanced with the development of stronger national structures of curriculum development and quality assurance.

New funding arrangements

Funding, too, is an area where there have been some reforms in some countries but little progress in others. What is striking from the national data is the huge range of public expenditure commitments to TVET. As a percentage of educational budgets, TVET expenditure across the SADC region ranges from 0.6% to 13.6%. However, it is noteworthy that no estimate was possible from two countries, and the data from many of the rest must be treated with caution given the complexities of allocating expenditure to TVET as a result of its cross-sectoral nature. Nonetheless, it may be argued that there is too little public expenditure on TVET in some countries, particularly where there has been little tradition of private sector contribution.

In some SADC countries, levy-grant mechanisms have been introduced to raise finance from employers. These too vary considerably in scope: from 0.5% to 5% of payroll, generating income ranging from less than USD 10 million to more than USD 1 billion per annum. There are concerns at both ends of this spectrum regarding how levies actually translate into training. In some cases, there are worries that too many employers treat levies as taxes and do not change their attitudes towards training; that levies are too small to support sustainable training agencies in poorer countries; and that small, micro and informal enterprises often sit outside the system. Regrettably, there is too little robust evidence regarding the performance of levy-grant systems in the SADC region.

It seems likely that there is much more private, community and employer investment in TVET in the region than can currently be captured by the data. A better understanding of the patterns of such investment might assist policymakers in learning what is publicly valued within the training system and allow them to better target resources.

• Strengthening enterprise-based training

Although much of the focus in the standard tool kit of TVET reform is on reforming public providers and permitting private providers a 'level playing field', there is typically less attention paid to training that takes place in enterprises. Yet, it is clear that what already goes on in enterprises could be supported more, as is being attempted by some levy-grant systems. At present, however, very little is known about the quality or extent of enterprise-based training.

This is particularly true of training that takes place in the informal economy. The SADC region generally lacks the well-developed traditional apprenticeship systems that exist in other parts of Africa, although the national reports do highlight attempts to support traditional apprenticeship in some countries. Again, there is insufficient evidence of how national TVET systems can effectively support and be supported by micro and informal enterprises.

• Tackling inefficiency in TVET systems

There is a persuasive case to be made that national TVET systems in the region have reformed. However, primary judgements of TVET quality and efficiency must take into account the evidence on pass, throughput and destination rates, related to the unit costs of delivering these outcomes. A true measure of efficiency is not possible in any of the SADC countries in the absence of robust data on unit costs. Moreover, the data on the key quality measures are limited in both coverage and robustness. What data are available, moreover, are highly uneven. Only three reports showed pass rates greater than 75%, and pass rates vary worryingly within several countries across institutions, programmes and gender. Furthermore, there is an even greater lack of throughput data, which are crucial if systems' ability to retain learners is to be quantified. Only five SADC countries reported on throughput and it appears that only three can show that over half of their initial TVET learners are exiting successfully.

The quality of TVET learning must be strongly related to labour market outcomes. The best proxy for this is destination rates. However, it is striking that there is very little data available to measure this, and most of what is available comes from small-scale, one-off tracer surveys, sometimes with excessively broad definitions of employment. Thus, although the cited data reports that more than 50% of graduates are employed six months after graduation, this data must be treated with extreme caution in the main. Indeed, the key lesson of the destination data is that not enough attention is being given to the need to gather data on destinations across the region. This may be symptomatic of a wider inadequacy of region-wide attention to the importance of promoting the demand-responsiveness of TVET. This is in stark contrast to the level of engagement in many countries aiming to implement a wider reform package that has such demand-responsiveness as one of its key goals.

• Promoting articulation and progression

Whilst primacy should be given to reforms aimed at improving TVET quality and efficiency, there has also been international concern with improving TVET's articulation with academic schooling and higher education. It is argued widely that young people need to be allowed to make choices about educational and occupational paths as late as possible and that education systems should avoid locking them into particular routes. There is interest, therefore, in trying to better integrate academic and vocational education into more flexible systems. This is also seen as a way to tackle the problem of low esteem for vocational education, which appears to be less of an issue in the non-Anglophone systems. Nevertheless, there are attempts in some other countries to rework the academic-vocational balance. Moreover, this is seen as an issue that an NQF can address, although it is difficult to find evidence of how this has worked in practice.

Another major element in the lack of parity of esteem between academic and vocational education is the historical difficulty of progressing to higher education from vocational pathways. Again, this is something that an NQF could address and a number of national monitoring reports are very optimistic in this regard. Nonetheless, it is clear that progression from TVET to higher education remains uncommon and fraught with difficulties.

Being serious about equity

TVET systems tend to be a source of education and training that is particularly important to the poorer in society, who are disproportionately unlikely to be able to access high status academic education. In particular in Africa, traditional apprenticeship is a highly significant source of pro-poor skills development and employment opportunities. It is imperative that national formal TVET systems are serious about equity, although it is clear that they have a mixed record for this internationally.

Southern Africa has fewer problems of quantitative gender inequality in schooling than many other regions. However, in none of the countries for which we have gender disaggregations is there parity of TVET enrolments, the best being 47%. Moreover, disaggregations by subject, though very limited, suggest that there is still widespread gender stereotyping. Although female pass rates are slightly higher than male rates in a few cases, in other countries there are significant gender imbalances in this area.

In some SADC countries, there is evidence of gender targets for enrolments, and links to employment equity legislation are present in a small number of cases. Specific programmes for training women can also be found in a few countries. However, it may be the case that attempts to change the gender practices of public (funded) TVET systems are easier to achieve than changes in employer and societal attitudes.

There has also been some concern with other dimensions of disadvantage, including disability, ethnicity, orphanhood and rurality. Given the high incidence of HIV/AIDS in the region, SADC has identified a TVET response as a high priority. Some countries have made major efforts in this area but overall progress on a HIV/AIDS strategy on TVET is poor and it does not feature highly in many national policies.

It is evident that there is some emerging good practice in supporting equity concerns within TVET in the region, but this needs to become more systematised. Better documentation of the existing experiences in pro-equity interventions is vital in the pursuit of this issue.

New learning technologies

SADC has prioritised open and distance learning as an important element of TVET transformation, believing that the region has an opportunity to leapfrog technologies, as has been done with considerable success in the area of mobile telephony. However, the national monitoring reports suggest that this has not captured national policymakers' attention as a priority, at least in the early stages of reform. Nonetheless, there are potential lessons to be learned from developments in some countries. Perhaps unsurprisingly, these developments are most apparent in small states with remote communities.

Developing capacity for TVET transformation

TVET systems are complex and they require considerable capacity in order to function well. However, there are multiple capacity challenges for TVET across the SADC region. Some of the biggest challenges are in small, middle-income countries, where size does appear to lead to some constraints on capacity.

Institutional capacity is also limited. Although this is not addressed as an explicit theme in this report, the challenge of developing a new model of institutional leadership under conditions of greater autonomy is touched upon in some national contexts and is of vital importance if reform is to be sustainable. The national data are far more explicit about the limitations of staff development.

There is little evidence in policy, programmes or data systems that staff development is important across much of the region. It can be assumed that qualification levels, overall, are low. Problems may be even worse in the private than public institutions, but the data are inadequate to test this. The situation is exacerbated as TVET instructors tend to have lower income and status than either teachers in academic schools and lecturers in higher education or similarly skilled workers in the private sector. There are concerns, too, that few vocational instructors have a sufficiently strong blend of subject specialist knowledge, industrial experience and pedagogical skills.

Attention to TVET instructor training is highly variable across the region. It is generally weakest among the smaller states, some of which have no provision at all. In spite of the obvious importance of good quality instructional staff, this area appears to have been a low priority across much of the SADC region to date, with very little in the way of potential good practices to explore.

• Reflecting on the state of TVET knowledge

A recurrent theme of this report is the paucity of data, information and knowledge about the state of TVET in the region. This is one of the most pressing problems facing TVET in SADC member states and is a serious obstacle to system development and improved quality.

It is evident that TVET Management Information Systems (MIS) are often absent or weak. This was by far the worst ordinal indicator in the national monitoring reports. There are huge data gaps and weaknesses for several indicators in the pilot monitoring tool and there are real challenges to making any monitoring exercise sustainable. Even getting basic data and ensuring their accuracy is beyond some systems, and the ability to disaggregate for target group, to compare public and private provision or to do any forecasting are beyond the horizon for several countries. It is difficult to see how TVET systems can be successfully transformed when there is a lack of feedback data at both institutional and national levels.

Moreover, it is obvious that there is little in the way of monitoring and evaluation data. Such data would allow observers to judge whether the many interventions in TVET in the region over the past 15 years have been successful. Too often in this report it has been necessary to note that a reform appears to have received some stakeholder approval but there is insufficient data to understand whether it has succeeded and, if so, why and with what implications for other countries. For national TVET systems, such data are vital if policymaking is to become more evidence based, but it is equally essential for regional cooperation that there be something of some substance to be shared between member states. As was noted at the outset of this introductory chapter, systematic learning from best practices is simply not possible with knowledge of TVET in the region as it is.

The other component of an effective TVET knowledge system is research. With very few exceptions, regional governments lack internal capacity, either for the generation or analysis of research. The relative lack of donor interest in TVET has also led to a decline in internationally-funded consultancy work on TVET, although much of the available evidence on TVET delivery in the region still comes from consultancy reports. Whilst such reports are important, it is also widely acknowledged that consultancy is only a suitable tool for learning a relatively narrow range of policy-oriented information and is often constrained by excessively short time frames and the desire and/or need to find answers palatable to funders. Yet there is very little in the way of academic research on TVET in the region to complement consultancy. Universities in many SADC countries are still trying to recover from the austerity-led declines of the 1980s and 1990s, and educational research is still relatively weak in most cases. More specifically, there is an almost complete absence of university-based TVET research.

There has been a recent growth of postgraduate output on TVET in South Africa, but it is likely that there are very few new doctoral TVET graduates emerging from the region as a whole; the lack of focus on TVET teacher training does nothing to encourage universities to build their TVET capability. However, academic knowledge capacity on TVET alongside other forms of knowledge capacity is crucial for TVET system health as this permits the deeper consideration of key issues and the exploration of topics that are not central to immediate TVET policy concerns but which are nonetheless important to the long-term development of TVET provision. For instance, it may be beyond the scope of a monitoring tool such as the one developed in this exercise to permit a deeper understanding of the perceptions and experiences of TVET students and staff, or to provide a detailed analysis of the state of teaching and learning in TVET, but it is nonetheless important that such research does take place.

Without these components of the TVET knowledge system in place, it is not surprising that the monitoring reports are too dependent on policy statements that reflect where policymakers say they want the system to go rather than where the system is. Without data and research capacity, there is a tendency for 'what should be' and 'what is' to be conflated and policy intention to be taken as success. This can seriously undermine genuine attempts at reform.

■ The monitoring tool and its use

It is clear that using the monitoring tool to produce the data and analysis of this report has been challenging. One major implication of the early stage of TVET development in many SADC countries is that data systems and research capacity are both weak. Nonetheless, it is apparent that one successful outcome of the project was that it contributed to both national awareness and capacity building on these issues.

There are methodological lessons that can be learnt from this pilot process and these are discussed at length in the companion report on the tool, available on request from SADC Secretariat. There is broad agreement on the approach taken regarding the data gathering process. It is widely perceived that the challenges will lessen as the study is repeated and as national information and knowledge systems develop. Nonetheless, there does appear to be a need for continued regional training workshops for national consultants and for more time for national consultations both in the design and validation phases of subsequent rounds.

Whilst there are some proposals to add to the scope of the monitoring tool, these need to be treated with considerable caution. First, any increase in the length of the process will inevitably add to cost, timescale and complexity. Second, it is a well-established principle of data collection that an increase in the length of time required of respondents tends to reduce both the quantity and quality of returns. Third, whilst some countries may be capable of providing more and better disaggregated data, it is imperative that comparability should not be sacrificed.

Recommendations regarding SADC's strategic priorities for TVET

Any strategy for future regional cooperation on TVET must of course be driven by SADC and the member states. To this end, each national stakeholder workshop was asked to identify priorities for regional cooperation. This resulted in the identification of a number of strategic priority areas which, taken together with the analysis done by the regional team led to the following five recommended strategic priorities:

• Institutionalising the monitoring tool

The monitoring exercise was envisaged to be a pilot for a longer-term process and the positive experience of developing this report and the feedback from national stakeholders confirm that there is a strong case for replicating the monitoring exercise and for developing it further. For effective monitoring, the exercise will need to be implemented at regular intervals, although capacity limitations suggest that these intervals should not be annual. It is evident that the piloting contributed to capacity development and that this needs to be a major focus of future developments of the monitoring process. National and regional institutional homes for the reporting process will also be vital. Moreover, further development of the monitoring tool will strengthen implementation in the other four intervention areas by monitoring their outcomes and impact.

• Building TVET knowledge capacity

Concerns about TVET MIS and monitoring and evaluation capacity were universal across the member states' national stakeholder workshops. As has been argued, it is difficult to see how genuine TVET reform can take place without adequate data systems and with a current situation of small pockets of excellence, some progress, and huge weaknesses. Given the size of some national systems, and in the light of the broader commitment to developing educational statistics of the African Union and the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), it seems that a programme of TVET MIS capacity building is most appropriately regional in scale and organization. Such an exercise would also have to be linked to definitional and taxonomical work that could encourage the development of a regional discussion of different conceptions of TVET. It would also logically be linked to any future developments of the current monitoring tool and could potentially lead to the development of a broader regional reporting system combining narrative and statistics, as in the European ReferNet model. The development of TVET in the region is furthermore constrained by the lack of academic research. It may be only through regional cooperation between governments and universities that programmes for developing new TVET researchers (and research users) or for training TVET staff (see below) become viable and sustainable.

• Approaches to system development

This executive summary has made reference to an international tool kit for TVET transformation from which all countries in the SADC region have drawn. It is evident that there has been, and continues to be, important progress in the implementation of core reforms, such as qualifications frameworks, quality assurance and governance, and SADC has already played a significant role in trying to promote the sharing of lessons in some of these areas. The national monitoring reports indicate much that has been tried and are suggestive of a number of successes and failures that could provide useful lessons for others in the region. However, it is apparent that more can be done here to encourage a regional understanding of the contextual, sequencing, political and technical issues that are involved in trying to introduce a range of reforms, and which have potentially significant impacts upon each other. Whilst this report is suggestive of some parts of a storyline about the processes of national and regional TVET development, SADC could play a valuable

role in promoting further lesson learning in this area. From the national stakeholder consultations, it appears that NQFs are the greatest concern but there are some concerns too about quality assurance and national governance.

• Institutional development

There appears to have been relatively more attention paid to reform of national system development than to reforms of public or private TVET institutions, in spite of much of the international policy discourse. Yet TVET cannot be successful if providers are weak. There is an urgent need to further develop programmes to reform all forms of providers in terms of governance, leadership and staff. Therefore, there is significant support for a region-wide focus on how to develop a new generation of leaders of TVET institutions and on how to support them in change management.

• Staff development

The analyses of the national stakeholders and the regional team suggest that improving the quality of TVET staff in terms of qualifications and industry experience; improving the system of provision of TVET teacher education; and addressing remuneration/status are key priorities across the region, and would benefit from a regional strategy.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 The global importance of technical and vocational education and training (TVET)

After the Jomtien World Conference on Education for All (EFA) of 1990 there was a sharp decline in international support to TVET in Africa. On the one hand, donors were convinced of the overriding imperative of focusing their resources on basic education, reinforced by the introduction of the Millennium Development Goals in 2000. On the other, a powerful critique of the failings of African TVET became widely accepted. This centred on a lack of relevance in terms of skills developed; a divorce of providers and their staff from industrial realities and interactions; and high costs of provision, all of which were exacerbated by rapid changes in industrial structure. Where support to TVET did continue, it became increasingly focused on a set of systemic changes: new governance structures that gave institutions more autonomy and business more say at the local and national levels; competency-based curricula; and national qualifications frameworks. These are issues that will be returned to at a number of points throughout this report.

This neglect of TVET was not always shared by African governments, which saw the continued need for programmes that dealt with issues of youth transitions to the labour market in particular. Equally, this perspective was present in the donor countries but in their strong focus on TVET at home rather than in Africa. For instance, in Europe, TVET has been an important part of overall economic and social policy, resulting in a transformation of national TVET systems and the development of a common language regarding, and monitoring process for, TVET across the European Union (EU).

In recent years, there have been signs that the orthodoxy regarding a low priority for TVET in Africa has been breaking down. Progress towards the EFA targets, although incomplete, has encouraged African governments to think more actively about where young people will go after basic education and TVET has clearly been identified as one of the answers. At the same time, high economic growth rates across the continent serve to make skills issues more pressing. Donors have increasingly found themselves challenged by this African interest in further and higher education and by the fact that their own domestic systems have continued to emphasise TVET as a solution to competitiveness and inclusion challenges. This has led a number of donor agencies to start looking at their TVET involvement in Africa anew.

These trends rapidly accelerated during 2009. Most significantly, the UNESCO General Assembly ratified a proposal to make TVET one of the three thematic priorities for its Education Sector work. Moreover, a new Inter-Agency Group was established between multilateral agencies to look at their coordinated work in TVET; whilst some bilateral agencies signalled a refound willingness to consider skills as part of their mandate. Then, in late 2010 it was announced that the 2012 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) would be on skills and that UNESCO was planning a Third International Congress on TVET.

Whilst TVET activities have continued across the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region through the lean years of TVET's unfashionability, there is an opportunity now to set a vision for the future. However, the neglect of TVET means that there is very little available research evidence on TVET in the region to help this envisioning process, whether from academic or evaluation sources. Thus, at a regional level, this project seeks not only to provide a comparative overview of the state of national TVET systems but also to explore the current state of data on skills and the challenges and possibilities that lie ahead in trying to develop robust evidence on TVET reform in Southern Africa. There is real potential in this study for the SADC region to contribute to a wider international process of improved information management and research on TVET, as well as to support national governments in their continued efforts to redevelop their education systems and better link them to the world of work.

1.2 The regional priority for TVET

1.2.1 The African Union (AU)

The key AU document on TVET is the 2007 TVET Strategy (AU, 2007). This explicitly marks a return to TVET as an important part of national development.

Its stated main goal is to:

> Promote skills acquisition through competency-based training with proficiency testing for employment, sustainable livelihoods and responsible citizenship.

It is significant that the wider issues of sustainability, livelihoods and citizenship have been included here as opposed to a narrow employability vision. However, the issue of competency-based training may require more consideration, particularly as the document appears to be aimed mainly at the formal education end of TVET, where there may well be some opposition to the training-inspired language of competency.

It stresses the need for a new African strategy that seeks to:

- revitalise, modernise and harmonise TVET in Africa in order to transform it into a mainstream activity for African youth development, youth employment and human capacity building in Africa;
- position TVET programmes and TVET institutions in Africa as vehicles for regional cooperation and integration as well as socio-economic development as it relates to improvements in infrastructure, technological progress, energy, trade, tourism, agriculture and good governance; and
- mobilise all stakeholders in a concerted effort to create synergies and share responsibilities for the renewal and harmonisation of TVET policies, programmes and strategies in Africa.

The Strategy contains a clear acknowledgement that African TVET systems are still poor in terms of quality, relevance and outcomes, although it does point to numerous signs of improvement.

The broad objectives of the Strategy are i) to deliver quality TVET; ii) assure employability of trainees; iii) improve coherence and management of training provision; iv) promote lifelong learning; and v) enhance status and attractiveness of TVET.

It is important to caution that lifelong learning remains a highly ambitious goal. Indeed, most of the document appears to be about initial training.

It goes on to highlight a series of strategic issues that it sees as facing African TVET:

- poor perception of TVET
- gender stereotyping
- instructor training
- linkage between vocational and general education
- linkage between formal and non-formal TVET
- linkage of TVET to the labour market
- traditional skills, business management and entrepreneurial training
- harmonisation of TVET programmes and qualifications.

These clearly all are important and in close harmony with the current SADC/UNESCO approach.

It is noteworthy that the Strategy talks of the need for National Vocational Qualification Frameworks. This focus on vocational frameworks, at least in the first instance, reflects certain national approaches in the region, as will be explored later in this report. This may avoid the problematic challenges of working together with academic systems, as has been experienced in attempts to create full frameworks, which is something that comes out of the national data reported in Chapter Three. However, important issues of sequencing arise. Moreover, it appears that the understanding of qualification frameworks in the Strategy is a technical one that emphasises the simple act of developing a framework. This is in contrast to much of the international experiences that suggest that the real challenges and possibilities of national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) have to do with the extent to which they promote learning and dialogue (e.g. Allais, 2010).

The AU Strategy also highlights the need for the promotion of non-formal modes of TVET, especially in post-conflict situations. Whilst post-conflict contexts are thankfully of limited relevance to the SADC region nowadays, there has been a clear interest in the possibilities of non-formal approaches, both from the leaders of national TVET agencies in the region and from several international cooperation agencies.

The AU, through member states, has identified the following priority sectors:

● agriculture
● public health and water resources
● energy and environmental management
● information and communication technologies
● construction and maintenance
● good governance
● traditional handicrafts.

This is potentially very significant for plans for TVET reform as many of these sectors have not traditionally been major priorities of TVET systems. Elements of this vision are also present in national TVET strategies in the SADC region, as shall be illustrated in Chapter Three.

1.2.2   SADC

The SADC approach to TVET is governed by the *SADC Protocol on Education and Training* (SADC, 1997). However, it is in the nature of such SADC protocols that there is relatively little detail regarding a vision or a policy direction, as SADC protocols are more concerned with the ways in which member states will cooperate in a particular field. Nonetheless, TVET does receive important visibility in the protocol, which legitimates the current exercise.

The *SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan* (2003) also notes the importance of TVET for regional development, having as one of its goals: 'promoting educated and skilled society for regional integration and development and global competitiveness'.

One area of particular focus within SADC regarding TVET has been the drive towards a set of national, and ultimately a regional, qualification frameworks. Plans for a regional qualifications framework for Southern Africa date back to the Education and Training Protocol in 1997. This led to a planning document in 2005 entitled *Towards a Southern African Development Community Qualifications Frameworks: Concept Paper and Implementation Plan* (SADC, 2005). This outlined the purpose of the SADCQF as providing:

> a set of agreed principles, practices, procedures and standardised terminology intended to ensure effective comparability of qualifications and credits across borders in the SADC region, to facilitate mutual recognition of qualifications among Member States, to harmonise qualifications wherever possible, and create acceptable regional standards where appropriate.

Progress towards this goal was reviewed by SADC in 2010. This exercise shows that there has been considerable progress towards developing national qualifications frameworks in several countries, although others are still far behind (SADC, 2010). The report also charts the progress that has been made in getting most SADC countries to agree to important elements of the terminology of qualifications. However, it is important to note that progress towards a regional qualifications framework has been relatively modest in the 14 years since the SADC Protocol. This suggests the need for modesty also in planning other TVET reforms in the region and a realisation that change is often a long-term process.

SADC has also sought to encourage improved approaches to quality assurance of education. In 2007 it published a policy paper on how quality assurance could be improved (SADC, 2007). As part of this exercise, an initial survey was made of national quality assurance systems in the region and each was given a star rating. The predominant rating was three stars, with one country each getting one and five stars, and two each getting two and four. In this classification, three stars was characterised as 'Basic quality assurance system in place, including some sectoral quality assurance bodies'.

SADC's commitment to TVET revitalisation is the driving force behind this assignment, but this SADC commitment needs to be in harmony with SADC's ways of working. These require SADC to support national policy processes rather

than develop regional strategies that are intended to be binding on members. Thus, a SADC strategy for TVET must be grounded in national strategies.

1.3   The purpose of the SADC/UNESCO study

The overall purpose of this assignment was to conduct an assessment and review of TVET in the SADC region and support the development of a regional strategy for the revitalisation of TVET.

The broader process of developing a monitoring tool is intended to enable SADC to take forward its commitment to revitalise TVET in the region. To this end, the overall assignment was designed to:

1. provide baseline information on the status of TVET in 13[1] SADC member states;
2. offer a comparative analysis of key themes across these 13 countries;
3. develop and pilot a data collection/monitoring tool that allows SADC members to track and report their advancement in TVET;
4. identify five key areas of intervention at the regional level as levers for TVET change; and
5. outline a five-year regional strategic framework/programme of action for TVET for the region.

This report examines the first two of these activities, and identifies the key areas for intervention at the regional level (activity 4). A second report of the 'Development and Piloting of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool' is provided separately. The five-year regional strategic framework also forms a separate document and is being taken forward for development within SADC.

As this report provides a baseline survey of the current status of TVET in the region, it provides a 'snapshot' taken in late 2010. Descriptions of developmental status take different forms in the report, in response to different forms of data, and data quality. In some areas, developmental status is presented in relational and comparative terms, for example in tables. This responds to SADC's concern that countries may wish to monitor developmental progress across reporting periods, and also be able to identify others at similar stages of development for peer learning purposes. Where possible, broad regional trends have been identified.

1.4   What this report means by TVET

The issue of definitions in the area of TVET is a fraught one. Indeed, the very term 'TVET' is one that is increasingly unfashionable. Instead, there is a tendency to drop 'technical' as making vocational education and training too narrow; or to find alternative terms, such as 'human resources development' (as in several SADC countries), 'workforce development' (as in the latest World Bank draft policy) or 'skills development'/'skills' (as reflected in the working title of the 2012 GMR).

Then, of course, in the SADC region, there is a need to consider how terms are used in Francophone and Lusophone contexts. In both languages, there is a tendency to use forms of two terms: 'ensino técnico profissional'/'enseignement technique et professionnel' (which can be translated most simply as technical and professional education) and 'formação profissional'/'formation professionnelle' (professional training). However, in DRC, the combined French form ETFP (enseignement technique et formation professionnelle) is also quite common.

The French and Portuguese terms highlight the potential tension between education and training that is often hidden in the English terminology but is clearly present across all systems. This tension is inscribed in ministerial jurisdictions that mean that an inclusive model of vocational education and training potentially crosses not just ministries of education and labour/training but also most other ministries.

Moreover, definitions are also unclear or contested regarding whether there is a clear boundary between the terms 'professional' and 'technical', as used in Francophone and Lusophone countries, and whether such a boundary is

---

1   The study was initially intended to cover 14 countries (namely Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe) but it was not possible to include Angola at an early stage of development.

unequivocally one of differing NQF levels. In some cases it appears that 'vocational' does not include 'professional' but in others it appears that there is an implicit view that high status professions, such as law and medicine, are outside the usual sense of vocational, but lower status professions are to be included.

The boundaries are also unclear regarding whether what is included is only at the post-compulsory level or also incorporates variants of vocational schooling, from the inclusion of vocational subjects within a largely academic curriculum, through vocational streams, to separate vocational secondary schools. Moreover, some interested in a 'skills agenda' would point to the need also to consider the way even 'academic' subjects have become more vocationalised in their increasingly instrumental orientation and their heightened focus on the development of employability skills. Such definitional debates are further complicated by the range of ages and educational levels at which learners may choose or be channelled into more vocational routes.

Recent years have seen the rise of concerns about lifelong learning and the importance of continuing professional development and regular retraining across all skills levels. However, definitions of TVET are often, at least practically, limited to a focus on initial training of young people.

Finally, there are debates as to whether informal and non-formal education and training are to be included in definitions of TVET, considering the huge diversity of settings in which work-related learning takes place.

Recognising that a wide range of definitions of TVET are used across the SADC region, national monitoring reports were required to provide the national definition of TVET in Indicator 1, and to cite in the meta data of all indicator reports, the definition of TVET relevant to a specific report, or the parts of the TVET sector where data were available for a specific indicator.

The following table shows the different terminology used in national policies and programmes in the SADC region:

Table 1.1:
TVET Terminology

Country	Terms Used
Botswana	Technical and Vocational Education and Training Vocational Education and Training Vocational Training Skills Development Human Resources Development
DRC	Technical and Professional Education Professional Training Technical Education and Professional Training
Lesotho	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
Malawi	Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education and Training
Mauritius	Technical and Vocational Education and Training Human Resources Development
Mozambique	Technical and Professional Education Professional Training
Namibia	Vocational Education and Training Human Resources Development
Seychelles	Technical and Vocational Education and Training Human Resources Development
South Africa	Further Education and Training Skills Development Human Resources Development

Country	Terms Used
Swaziland	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
	Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Skills Development
	Human Resources Development
Tanzania	Vocational Education and Training
	Technical Education and Training
Zambia	Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education and Training
Zimbabwe	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
	Skills Development
	Human Resources Development

Note: this list is not necessarily exhaustive.

The ways these terms are defined and used can vary between countries. Furthermore, the distinctions between terms may carry differing significance in different countries; for example, the distinction between technical education and training and vocational education and training is maintained in Tanzania, and distinctions between skills development and further education and training may be clear in policy in South Africa but more blurred in practice, making statistical reporting more difficult.

Thus, in writing this report it was necessary to deal with myriad working definitions of the project's focus. These include the initial terms of reference from SADC and UNESCO that talk of TVET; national consultant, stakeholder and policy definitions; the way that definitions shaped and then were reshaped by the presence or absence of data; and finally the regional team members' own definitions that both influenced our reading of what constituted 'the literature' and how the national data should be interpreted.

These numerous definitions and tensions, and the way that they are reflected in the available data, have required the use in this regional report of a pragmatic definition of TVET that largely focuses on initial vocational education and training within dedicated provider institutions that engage with the lower and intermediate levels of national qualifications, and, to a lesser extent, on the provision of formal qualifications either totally in workplaces or in some form of alternance system of work and training.

1.5   The nature and structure of this report

As Chapter Two discusses, this report draws upon data produced by 13 national consultants, which were derived largely from existing data sources, with limited recourse to additional interviews. The data generated were then validated by national stakeholder workshops. Just as the report as a whole describes systems that are often in early stages of development, so the data itself reflect both a limited availability of data and emerging research capacity within TVET in the SADC member states. The team writing this report remained very conscious throughout of the limitations that the state of data and research in the SADC region placed on what could be written and with what level of confidence. Moreover, the requirements of the third part of the assignment, the development and piloting of a data monitoring tool, meant that some areas of system development and performance had to be privileged at the expense of others, as is discussed in Chapter Two, and in more detail in the 'Report on the Development and Piloting of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'. A recurrent theme of the report as a whole is the need to address the limited state of knowledge about TVET in the SADC region, and the report itself needs to be read as representing a step in a much longer journey towards world class analysis of the state of skills in Southern Africa.

Chapter Two describes the methodology of the project, outlining how national monitoring reports were developed and how these interacted with the production of national literature reviews and the organization of national stakeholder workshops, and ultimately fed into the process of writing a regional report. A more detailed description of the development of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool, and a critical reflection on how well the pilot tool worked, as well as a copy of the tool itself, is provided in the accompanying 'Report on the Development and Piloting of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'.

Chapter Three is by far the largest chapter and comprises the analysis of the major themes to arise from the national data. This is presented through a mixture of narrative accounts interspersed with country examples and comparative

tables and figures. Although the chapter does aim at comparative analysis, it is not an exercise in producing league tables about the various member states. Whilst a reading of both narratives and tables in this chapter may well lead the reader to conclude that some countries have better developed TVET systems than others, the nature of the evidence provided makes it clear that any such generalisation is fraught with at least four problems. First, it is clear that 'better' performance cannot easily be separated from deeply-embedded contextual factors that reflect both the great differences between SADC members in size and history, and the specifics of their TVET trajectories. Second, it is possible to find elements of 'good' and 'bad' comparative performance in each country when one looks across all aspects of Chapter Three and more difficult to find countries that are consistently 'strong' or 'weak'. Indeed, even if one was tempted to develop aggregate scores across the tables that do offer ordinal rankings for countries; the conclusion would be that most of the countries are compressed into a very small band of system-wide performance. Third, whilst the research team were constantly exploring ways in which patterns could be seen across indicators, the early developmental stage of evidence on TVET in the SADC region means that there is very little that can be said in terms of, for instance, a country's good performance on a particular output indicator being because of good performance on certain process indicators. Fourth, it needs to be noted that particularly a reading of the ordinals, but to an extent also a reading of the rest of the text as a whole, would need to take into account the subjective way in which national constituencies read their own performance. As the discussion of the methodology in the accompanying report of the piloting of the monitoring tool notes, this may have resulted, for instance, in some cases of over-optimism based on making the very first steps towards TVET transformation; and, equally, in some cases of over-pessimism in countries that have come to realise the huge complexity and long time scales involved in thorough TVET change. Thus, Chapter Three makes comparisons in order to distil useful lessons for SADC and its member states, and to enable longitudinal monitoring of progress, not to rank countries or 'name and shame'.

The main body of the report concludes with Chapter Four, which provides a series of lessons that emerge from the report and an identification of the five high priority areas for regional intervention.

The appendices include, inter alia, the national monitoring reports, permitting further exploration by readers of national particularities.

Chapter Two: Methodology

2.1   Introduction

Chapter One noted the multiple purposes of the SADC/UNESCO study. This chapter provides a brief summary of the methodological approach adopted by SADC/UNESCO and specific activities carried out by regional and national teams. The details of the development of the SADC TVET monitoring tool are provided in the accompanying report on the 'Development and Piloting of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'.

A key methodological challenge was to achieve goals with different methodological tendencies within the time and resources available. On the one hand, the project was required to develop and pilot a focused, sustainable TVET monitoring tool. This required targeted data collection, analysis and reporting. On the other, carrying out a 'comprehensive' review of TVET across a wide range of areas, including consideration of best practices and constraints, suggested a more expansive and discursive approach to data. The project maintained this tension through a range of strategies, including through the implementation of two key methods, namely national literature reviews and the completion of a national TVET monitoring report, based on the SADC TVET monitoring tool.

2.2   Interdependent research teams

The assignment was achieved through the collaborative work of two teams contracted by UNESCO and SADC. A regional team, contracted through a partnership between SADC and UNESCO, was managed by SPAN Consultants and comprised:

- Professor Simon McGrath, University of Nottingham, UK (team leader)
- Dr. Rosemary Lugg, SPAN Consultants, the Netherlands
- Dr. Joy Papier, FET Institute, University of the Western Cape, South Africa
- Mr. Seamus Needham, FET Institute, University of the Western Cape, South Africa
- Ms. Susanne Neymeyer, associate, SPAN Consultants, the Netherlands.

National consultants were contracted by the UNESCO Cluster Office for that country. National consultants were selected and appointed in partnership with the UNESCO National Commission in the member state. The UNESCO-appointed national consultants were all experts in TVET, with particular expertise concerning the national TVET context, and professional authority to lead a national, consultative study. The national consultants selected are listed in Table 2.1:

Table 2.1:
UNESCO National Consultants

Country	National Consultant
Botswana	Ms. Maria Overeem
DRC	Mr. Desire Nkoy Elela
Lesotho	Mr. Makhele Thae
Malawi	Mr. Robert Kafakoma
Mauritius	Mr. Roland Dubois
Mozambique	Ms. Maria Dos Anjos/Mr. Amadeo Xavier da Barca
Namibia	Mr. Lewis Durango/Dr. Havershee Nekongo
Seychelles	Mr. Selby Dora
South Africa	Ms. Gail Elliott

Country	National Consultant
Swaziland	Prof. Comfort B.S. Mndebele
Tanzania	Prof. Idrisa Bilai Mshoro
Zambia	Dr. Patrick Nkanza
Zimbabwe	Dr. Elijah Chanakira/Ms. Tendisai Chigwedere

National consultants were appointed in 13 out of the 14 SADC member states. The failure to appoint an available national consultant in Angola points to historical weaknesses in the development of TVET research capacity in this post-conflict national context, and the very recent commencement of national reform. As a result, Angola could not be included in the SADC/UNESCO study.

Although contracted separately, the regional and national teams were entirely interdependent. The regional team was responsible for developing the research methodology and research tools; providing research support to national consultants; analysing national findings and writing the regional report; and translating national experiences into a coherent regional strategic framework. The national consultants had primary responsibility for implementing the study within a specific national context; for data collection and reporting; and for facilitating a national stakeholder workshop to validate the national TVET monitoring report and to identify strategic priorities. The regional consultants would not have been able to provide an accurate review of the status of TVET across the region without the information gathered and reported upon by national consultants.

In order to ensure sustained cooperation between regional and national teams, regional consultants worked with three or four nominated national consultants. Support was provided almost entirely through online communication, throughout the research process. The national consultants for DRC and Mozambique were teamed with a regional team member fluent in French and Portuguese. Research tools were translated into both languages, and data collection, reporting and analysis were carried out in the language of the data. The final research outputs were then translated into English for inclusion in the process of comparative review.

2.3　　　Project activities and methodological consistency

The SADC/UNESCO assessment and review of TVET in the SADC region were implemented through seven broad activities.

1. Comprehensive review of the literature and documents concerned with TVET in SADC member states
2. Development of the draft SADC TVET monitoring tool
3. Face-to-face workshop for regional and national teams
4. Completion of national TVET monitoring reports
5. National stakeholder workshops to validate national TVET monitoring reports
6. Completion of regional analysis and writing regional report
7. Development of strategic framework and project proposal.

The review was carried out in 13 diverse national contexts, each with very different social, economic, geographical and demographic histories and trajectories, with different TVET systems and education systems, and with very wide differences in availability of information concerning the status of TVET. Reliability and validity in the research were achieved through methodological consistency with respect to data collection and analysis. Therefore, a primary concern of the regional team was to support coherence and consistency in the implementation of the project activities across 13 national contexts.

2.3.1　Literature review

A comprehensive review of literature and documents concerning TVET in the SADC region and each national context was carried out. National consultants were responsible for the reviews of the TVET literature in their own country. To aid methodological consistency, the regional team provided guidelines on implementing the literature review and a report format for drafting the national literature review. It was organized around a series of themes based on the objectives of the SADC/UNESCO study. National consultants were encouraged to examine different types of literature, including published research papers, unpublished conference papers and research reports, evaluation reports, publications and

reports on TVET by TVET agencies or donors, national policy documents, etc. In order to inform a review of the current status of TVET in the region, consultants were also asked to focus on literature published within the past five years, and only to include older documents that still had a direct bearing on current status.

National consultants encountered several challenges in completing the literature reviews. First, the literature identified and examined is largely based on policy documents, with relatively little attention being paid to research on TVET. National consultants reported that very little research exists, and that research and evaluation reports that may exist are not widely available. Many countries do not have national centres for TVET research with archived publications. Some consultants noted that research on TVET tended to predate current reforms and that, as a consequence of a focus on reform, the production of research knowledge had decreased in recent years.

Consultants also experienced severe logistical problems in gathering literature. The lack of national centres meant that national consultants often had to move between institutions in order to gather documents and literature from a range of places. The project resources for travel were limited, with no possibility for gathering documents housed in distant locations. Many key documents are only available in hard copy, and often not publicly available. TVET colleagues were often reluctant to loan their only copy of a document, and facilities and resources for copying documents were limited. Facilities for scanning documents for electronic transmission and storage are also limited and available scanners are often not suitable for efficient conversion of larger documents.

Planned as the project's initial activity to accommodate difficulties in collecting and reviewing literature, the literature review was continued throughout the data collection phase of the project.

2.3.2   Development of the SADC TVET monitoring tool

The purpose of the SADC/UNESCO data collection/monitoring tool is to enable countries to track their progress in implementing effective TVET systems. SADC wishes to support regular reporting by member states, and to identify areas for intra-regional cooperation and synergy. SADC and UNESCO see the monitoring tool as a means for countries to identify peers in similar stages of reform and enable more coherent and coordinated learning opportunities and discussion of common challenges. This is widely seen as having been a benefit of the parallel ReferNet exercise within the EU.

The development of the SADC TVET monitoring tool and the selection of indicators are discussed in detail in the accompanying report 'Development and Piloting of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'. In summary, 18 indicators were selected to assess key features of national TVET system development. The indicators included measures of inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes. The final list of indicators were prioritised based on a judgment of the importance of the indicator for developmental purposes, and the likelihood of data availability. The completion of monitoring reports against the 18 indicators required collection of both qualitative and quantitative data.

There is strong evidence from the European experience of regional monitoring in TVET that the development of a robust monitoring tool, based on a set of indicators that is owned and understood by policymakers and professionals in member states, is a long process. Such a process requires a recurrent iteration of the model through a dialogue between the national and regional levels (Chakroun, 2007). SADC and UNESCO have begun the process of dialogue with member states, and there appears to be country support for the proposal for a regional monitoring tool. Links to national processes were strengthened in the project methodology through in-country national stakeholder workshops held in late 2010, and through a regional meeting to review the project held in Johannesburg in April 2011.

2.3.3   Face-to-face workshop with national consultants to develop shared use of the monitoring tool

Although not provided for in the original terms of reference, the regional team's previous experience of comparative research strongly indicated that the quality and effectiveness of the research process would be significantly enhanced by face-to-face opportunities to reach agreement on the use of the research tools. Consequently, a two-day workshop was held in Johannesburg in September 2010 with all national and regional experts, and the SADC and UNESCO project managers. The workshop helped build a shared approach to the research methodology and, in particular, the use of the monitoring tool and developing a national TVET monitoring report.

The workshop was held after national consultants had completed an initial literature review. All participants were thus informed about the baseline information already available in their national contexts. During the workshop, strategies for addressing gaps in information and data were discussed.

2.3.4   Data collection and piloting of the TVET monitoring tool

National consultants completed the national TVET monitoring report for each indicator using data collected in the national context. Documents collected and reviewed during the literature review provided an important source of data, particularly for indicators on the state of the policy environment. Data required to complete the monitoring tool but not available in the literature were collected, where possible, through two additional methods: interviews with key stakeholders and collection of statistical data available from lead institutions. Due to time and resource constraints, national consultants were required to plan the interviews around specific data gaps. A small number of stakeholder interviews were held in each country and are cited in the data source section of relevant indicator reports.

Different challenges were encountered in collecting data. First, time constraints for data collection: the national consultants had a very limited period of two months to complete the reports on all indicators. Second, as will be discussed throughout this report, in all countries weaknesses in TVET management information systems (TVET MIS) and TVET research mean that there are significant gaps in data. In many cases, some systems were in place but data were found to be very patchy. Consultants had to establish if data were available, the nature and reasons for gaps, and the quality of available data.

The report format for national consultants included a section for recording notes on the challenges faced with data (quality of data section). The format also included a section for reflection on the indicator itself. These sections have been important for reviewing the appropriateness of indicators in the SADC context.

2.3.5   National stakeholder workshops to validate data for the monitoring tool

In each country, a national stakeholder workshop was held to validate the draft national TVET monitoring report. Workshops were organized by the relevant UNESCO National Commission, and key national TVET stakeholders were invited. Most workshops were attended by 30 to 40 national representatives, and included representatives from the most senior levels of TVET governance. Several workshops were opened by the Minister responsible for TVET. Workshops were facilitated by the project's national consultant.

The workshops were a vital opportunity to validate the data and judge the reliability and validity of the assessment that had been made of the status of TVET. Stakeholders' opinions were canvassed on the nature of gaps in data, and their perceptions about the progress, and challenges faced, in developing TVET in their national context. Stakeholders' comments on data, and the reports, and their suggested changes were incorporated into a final version of the national TVET monitoring report. Suggestions of additional information were followed up by national consultants and included in the report.

In almost all cases, stakeholder workshops agreed with the ratings awarded to ordinal indicators by national consultants. In a small number of cases, following discussion, national stakeholders agreed a change in the proposed rating, usually by one point. Interestingly, such changes were in both directions, rather than always upwards. In only two cases was the change in rating considered so significant by the consultant and the regional team that the indicator report presents the national consultant's initial rating alongside the stakeholders' rating. The stakeholders' additional justification for the change is noted in the relevant reports. In the regional analysis of ordinal indicators, stakeholder-approved ratings of indicators have been used to ensure methodological consistency.

During the workshops, national stakeholders considered national strategic priorities for TVET, and identified five areas where regional support by SADC would be considered valuable. The strategic objectives identified at a national level, and their relationship to the recommendations made in this report, are reflected upon in Chapter Four.

The national workshops were also influential in building awareness of the development of SADC's regional TVET strategy, and presented an opportunity for cooperation with, and ownership of, the strategy through actively seeking contributions and priorities from the national level.

National stakeholders were also asked to evaluate the SADC TVET monitoring tool and assess its potential for monitoring the development of TVET in the region.

2.3.6   Writing the regional report

With the delivery of approved outputs, including 13 literature reviews, 13 national reports, and 13 workshop reports, the regional team carried out comparative analysis across the whole data set. The analysis was carried out through the analytical frame provided by the SADC/UNESCO terms of reference.

2.3.7   Developing a strategic framework and programme

The final outcome from the SADC/UNESCO TVET review is a strategic framework and five-year programme. As this needs to be seen as the first stage in a discussion between SADC and the member states, this has not been presented in this report but it subject to a separate process of consultation. The five strategic priorities are presented in Chapter Four.

2.4   Some key methodological findings

An extended discussion of methodological findings is provided in the report of the 'Development and Piloting of the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'. However, some key findings are summarised below as an essential backdrop to the analysis which follows in Chapter Three.

2.4.1   Two objectives in tension

Given the resource and time limitations of the project, a significant challenge has been to hold in tension SADC/UNESCO's requirements for, on the one hand, a 'comprehensive survey' across a wide range of concerns in TVET system development and, on the other, the development and piloting of a regional TVET monitoring tool. Seeking to achieve both goals involved several methodological compromises.

First, the project focused on data and literature that were already available. New research into any of the themes in the terms of reference was not feasible. Therefore, the survey provides an assessment and review of the state of *current knowledge* about key themes, rather than absolute statements on their material state. As will be discussed, the current state of knowledge is partial.

Second, additional data collection methods (interviews and retrieval of statistical data) focused on specific gaps that had to be addressed in order to complete the indicator reports required by the TVET monitoring tool. Although these methods helped to address some data gaps, they often served to confirm that there was a gap in information.

Third, the tension was managed by developing a draft TVET monitoring tool with a relatively large number of indicators. This ensured that the monitoring tool addressed a wider range of areas, supporting a more 'comprehensive' survey by the tool.

2.4.2   Interdependent consultant teams and management complexity

Methodological lessons can also be drawn from the project management design of the assignment. Reflecting dual commitments both to nationally-driven processes and regional collaboration, the project design was complex. It was funded by a partnership between UNESCO and SADC. As a whole, the project reported to two donors: to SADC through the Education, Skills and Development Programme, and to UNESCO through the Harare Cluster Office. UNESCO Harare appointed a full-time project manager based in the SADC region to support implementation. At a national level the project was driven by UNESCO structures in every SADC member state. National consultants were selected by UNESCO National Commissions, and contracted and supported by UNESCO cluster offices, with further support from the UNESCO project manager. On a day-to-day basis the regional team reported to the full-time UNESCO project manager, with regular reporting to SADC primarily through UNESCO. Lessons may be learned about managing a project of this size and complexity, involving as it did 14 contracts, consultants from 16 countries and research on 13 countries.

The achievement of the project outputs within project timeframes is a reflection of the commitment, partnership and collaboration of all involved. A key feature of the project's achievement is the nature of resources provided by UNESCO and SADC. First, institutionalised support was located within UNESCO structures. National processes were simply not possible without support from staff based at UNESCO cluster offices, and provided to both national consultants

and National Commissions (who facilitated national stakeholder processes). In future projects of this nature, UNESCO will need to ensure that sufficient capacity is available within its cluster offices. It may also wish to consider greater involvement of decentralised structures within project processes, such as workshops where possible. Second, the role of the full-time project manager appointed by UNESCO was crucial. The importance of clearly defined, dedicated and full-time availability of the project manager cannot be overstated, and such capacity is essential for any future interventions of a similar design.

The outcome of the assignment was also shaped positively by the quality of funding agencies' project management and dialogue with the regional team to agree the technical terms of reference for national consultants, setting agreed timeframes and deliverables, and managing these. Moreover, the quality assurance role of the team leader of the regional team was clearly respected by SADC and UNESCO, permitting the team to follow their professional judgement in managing quality. UNESCO may wish to reflect internally on lessons learned through contracting regional and national consultants and the performance management of consultants.

Finally, lessons may be drawn concerning resource demands of complex multi-country studies. During the face-to-face workshop with consultants, it became evident that national consultants were investing considerable personal resources in travel and costs to retrieve data. As a result, UNESCO secured additional funding for printing and copying. UNESCO will have valuable insights concerning the logistics of further rounds of monitoring.

2.4.3   Capacity for TVET research, monitoring and evaluation in the SADC region

A lack of TVET research capacity within the SADC region is both a finding of this study and a significant challenge that has had methodological implications. In many SADC member states, there is no, or only one, academic working in this field and there are very few TVET research centres in the region. Consequently, capacity for research is extremely limited. This had a direct implication for project implementation. Indeed, Angola's exclusion from the study was a direct consequence of the lack of available national research capacity.

Second, with limited research capacity, and a lack of national research agencies for TVET or capacity within those that do exist, very little current information about TVET, including research on policy and systems; on the impact of TVET on development and poverty reduction; or the relationship between TVET and national and regional labour markets, is available. The key findings for many themes examined are of a lack of research and insufficient knowledge. Whilst the terms of reference were designed to elicit examples of best practice; there is rarely sufficient evidence on which to base such claims. Certain forms of research are also rare, such as tracer studies or employer satisfaction surveys. These were serious weaknesses given that the project was funded and designed on the basis of working primarily with available literature and data.

2.4.4   Available literature

Four types of potential literature were reasonably expected to be available to national consultants: research literature, policy documents, donor reports, and monitoring and evaluation publications. However, literature reviews and monitoring reports indicate that it has not been easy for national consultants to have access to a range of literature. It appears to have been easiest for them to gain access to national policy documents. Access to TVET research literature was much more limited. The project also found a striking silence in terms of other forms of literature. For example, very little mention was made of the numerous studies and evaluations in the region concerned with international donor programmes of support to TVET. As a result of skewed availability of different kinds of literature, the project found that much could be said about policy intention, somewhat less about implementation, and even less about impact.

Lack of information also meant that some national reports were largely silent on significant sections of a TVET sector, for example, non-formal TVET, employer-based TVET and private providers. National consultants sometimes went to great lengths to access any data on specific indicators, for example, using newsletters collected from development agencies to gather information on support to SMMEs (small, medium and micro-enterprises) and TVET for the informal economy.

In the absence of recent data (compounded by weak TVET management information sytems, a challenge that will be discussed below), the most recent information available to consultants was often a few years old. For most SADC countries, the independent literature search by the regional team verified the lack of international research literature available on TVET in the region.

2.4.5   Data availability and quality

National consultants persistently noted that the greatest problem with indicators was the non-availability of evidence required to complete the indicator report. This theme was repeated across many indicators and most countries. Given that the 18 areas in the SADC TVET monitoring tool were selected because they are priority areas for monitoring TVET, it is striking that data are insufficient in these areas.

A significant methodological challenge for the completion of the monitoring reports has been the lack of available statistical data due to weaknesses in national TVET management information systems (MIS). The lack of sector-wide TVET data and data management capacity made it difficult to describe the TVET sector and assess key indicators of the quality of implementation. The lack of systems and data made reporting impossible in some instances.

Even when TVET MIS are in place, they tend to focus on some parts of the TVET system rather than on others. Data on informal, non-formal and private TVET were much harder to access than data on the public sector. The quality of data also varied. Many reports (including comments made on data by national consultants and validation remarks by national stakeholders) noted concerns with the reliability and validity of existing data. In some instances, serious concerns about the quality of statistical data were reported.

As a result of weaknesses in TVET MIS and research data available, it is important to reiterate that the SADC national TVET monitoring reports describe what is known about the TVET system and its development. Strengthening data systems will be critical for reducing the large gaps in what is known, and to improve the possibilities for, and quality of, monitoring. Insufficient capacity and systems, and poor quality data will compromise the value of the monitoring tool. However, as stakeholders note, the implementation of a regional monitoring tool could encourage demand for effective national TVET MIS.

2.4.6   Subjectivity in judging system performance

Decisions about how to present data within monitoring reports always involves an element of subjective judgment. Factors influencing how these judgments might be made include the purposes of monitoring, the audience of the report and who is carrying out the monitoring.

Across the national TVET monitoring reports, differing approaches to reporting are evident. Differences in approach can be seen in narrative reports, in how ratings are awarded to ordinal indicators, and in decisions about how to deal with gaps in statistical data. Reports differ in terms of their selection and presentation of evidence of successful performance against indicators and their discussion of challenges. They sometimes differ in terms of emphasis placed on different components or sub-indicators.

A range of factors will have shaped the approach taken to reports. The national consultants' experience in monitoring may have had some bearing. The lack of opportunity to agree a common approach to reporting styles will also have made a contribution. The social positioning of the monitor may also be a factor. The team included academics working in universities, freelance consultants and senior staff of TVET agencies, so national consultants spoke from a range of professional positions. It is often easier for researchers positioned at a distance from the administration to be critical of implementation than those monitoring implementation from within. What may be described as 'national mood' may also have played a part. As has been noted, several countries began the process of TVET reform some years ago. In some of these cases, the experience of having confronted challenges in this reform led to more 'pessimistic' accounts of progress compared to countries in early reform phases. Furthermore, contexts differ in the extent to which critique of policy and implementation is possible or acceptable. This may change over time and between different policy fields.

Accounts from national consultants suggest that the regional comparative nature of the study had a direct influence on some reports. In some cases, national consultants reported reticence amongst stakeholders to award low ratings to performance because of concerns that these would be used to rank countries in league tables. A degree of optimism in awarding some ratings and providing justifications may be attributed to these concerns. Sub-criteria associated with higher rating scores were emphasised even when necessary basic foundations – possibly resulting in lower rating scores – were not in place.

Such subjectivity is a necessary part of any qualitative data gathering about matters of policy, and such qualitative data are necessary for building up a meaningful picture of policy and practice. The challenge, therefore, is in how such data are interpreted critically and reflectively. The national monitoring reports were variable in this regard, and it became the

task of the regional team to add a further layer of critical reflection on what was being reported and how it should be interpreted.

2.4.7   Regional comparative analysis

The SADC/UNESCO project design involved a regional team tasked with responsibility for performing regional comparative analysis on the status of TVET development, and producing a final report. It is hoped that this output will be valuable to SADC, UNESCO and SADC members as a baseline study on the status of TVET in the SADC region at the outset of SADC's strategic framework of support to TVET in the region. In terms of future regional interventions involving the SADC TVET monitoring tool, SADC may wish to consider whether a report of this nature remains valuable, or whether additional regional activities may be appropriate, for example, a brief summary report, focused papers on key topics and/or specific peer regional learning processes based on priority areas.

Methodological reflections on the development of the regional report in this current form may also be useful. It was developed through comparative analysis that took place over a series of iterations. Data available within literature reviews and the national monitoring reports were examined through the lens provided by the themes set by SADC and UNESCO in the terms of reference. The report has been structured in terms of these themes. The primary analytical question concerned the status of TVET development in specific areas, across the SADC region. Possible forms of analysis, particularly for themes addressed by the TVET monitoring tool, clearly depended on the nature of the indicators and the kind of data available.

Given a methodological design based on national processes of data collection and validation, a key methodological decision was that the regional review would be based only on the data available from the literature reviews and national monitoring reports. The regional team did not engage in any further data gathering or literature reviewing to compile the regional report, although they did inevitably draw on their existing funds of knowledge as experienced TVET researchers.

Different members of the regional team took responsibility for drafting various sections of the report, which were then shared with the rest of the team. To their commentaries on each other's work, they brought their wider professional knowledge of having worked in academic, agency and consultancy roles, as well as their insights from having worked with teams of national consultants in the national data collection phase. All of this discussion and insight fed into a final editing task for the team leader who queried data and analysis with other members of the regional team as necessary. This process has resulted in a report that is as robust as the current state of TVET data in the region allows.

Chapter Three: Regional Analysis

3.1   Introduction

In what follows, it will be evident that there is widespread and genuine commitment to improve the SADC region's TVET systems and considerable evidence of positive developments that have taken place over a decade or more and which continue. However, it will also be clear that there are few, if any, areas of generalised success and a number of areas in which most, if not all, countries have much further to go in developing well-functioning skills systems. As has already been noted, the absence of strong independent evidence on the impact of specific reforms prevents this report from exploring best practices.

3.2   TVET's place in national development strategies and policies

3.2.1   TVET and economic development

It is impossible to place any quantitative measure on how important TVET is in national development strategies. Nonetheless, it is clear that TVET is acknowledged in several countries within the SADC region as being an important aspect of overall national development. Indeed, it is likely that this importance is better recognised than a decade ago as countries in the region have increasingly shifted away from the narrow poverty reduction focus of the previous development orthodoxy to a new position that sees growth as an essential part of development.

Across the region, it is evident that there is a largely shared vision that successful economic development requires a well-known set of characteristics, including improved international competitiveness, increased productivity, accelerated technological development and improvements in employment and/or employability (this is perhaps most clearly seen in the Botswana report). The particular national circumstances of certain countries lead, in addition, to a greater emphasis on other elements, such as export-led growth (particularly stressed in Zanzibar[2] and Mauritius); exporting of labour (Lesotho and Swaziland); diversification (Mauritius, Seychelles and Tanzania); creativity (Zambia); and entry into the knowledge economy (Mauritius and Namibia).

These economic policy goals are linked to a belief that human capital development can promote economic development. This is where TVET explicitly comes into economic development strategy. A number of national policies across the region make it clear that TVET has a primary role in developing skills that promote individual and national economic competitiveness and inclusion (e.g. in Botswana, Mauritius, South Africa and Swaziland). However, there is typically very little detail on how these relationships between TVET as human capital and outcomes, such as improved international competitiveness, work, and detailed analysis of TVET's potential contribution to economic development is rare.

Whilst there has been a clear shift since independence away from an initial focus on skills for the public sector and the parastatals, the training and retraining of public sector workers remains an explicit concern in Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The importance of TVET in supporting private sector growth is particularly emphasised in Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi and Mozambique.

Nonetheless, it is apparent in a number of countries across the region that there is still more to be done to place TVET in a sufficiently key place in development strategy (as has been noted in the Malawi and Tanzania reports). This perhaps reflects the continued legacy both of TVET's historically low status and the more recent tendency to emphasise the importance of primary schooling, linked to the MDGs, as noted in Chapter One.

---

2   Although Zanzibar is a part of the United Republic of Tanzania, this report treats it as a separate entity

3.2.2   TVET and the informal economy

There is relatively little emphasis on the informal economy in national development policies, and even fewer highlight the skills dimension of this. Nonetheless, there is an interest in the upgrading of self-employed artisans in Mauritius; in supporting traditional apprenticeship in Malawi, Tanzania and Zambia; and in informal communty skills development in Namibia and Swaziland. What is far more prevalent in policy papers is a focus on small and medium (and sometimes explicitly micro) enterprises (SM[M]Es). This may reflect little more than a preference amongst policymakers to use a less negative terminology. The issue of terminology is most explicit in South Africa, with its use of the language of first and second economies, which it ties explicitly to issues of equity and inclusion more than entrepreneurship development.

Nonetheless, entrepreneurship development is seen as being of considerable importance across the region and is most symbolically reflected in the renaming of some TVET agencies to include entrepreneurship, as in Malawi and Zambia.

Unsurprisingly, these two countries do show a pronounced interest in the way that TVET and development of the informal economy are interconnected. Hence, Malawi has developed the Informal Sector Skills Development Programme (ISSDP). This offers a range of skills programmes, ranging from one week to six months in duration, to a range of clients. Moreover, the Malawian trade test system allows for formal skills certification for informal sector masters and apprentices. In Zambia, too, there has been a tradition of seeking to link skills and entrepreneurship development. This has taken various forms, including the creation of Entrepreneurship Development Centres and Concept for Informal Sector Employment Service Centres, both of which were designed to provide localised access to appropriate training for the informal economy. Informal sector and entrepreneurship development training initiatives in Zambia have been supported through the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Fund.

In South Africa, there have been attempts to support SMME skills through projects of the National Skills Fund, with sector education and training authorities (SETAs) being encouraged to devise specific projects for the smaller and informal elements of their sectors (McGrath, 2005). For Swaziland and Lesotho, the focus is more on an older notion of providing training for cooperatives.

However, across most of the SADC region, TVET and informal economy/SMME policies are generally poorly articulated. This may in part be a result of the long-standing orthodoxy that credit is the most important support required by small and informal enterprises, on the one hand, and a relatively poorly developed traditional artisanal system compared to other parts of Africa, on the other. For instance, in Botswana, 74% of informal business operators have been found to have had no training. Several countries noted a lack of funding for training in the informal sector and most SADC member states are unable to report on skills development for the informal economy, beyond describing specific interventions.

3.3.3   TVET and social development

There is also widespread policy acknowledgement that TVET contributes to social development objectives. The reduction of poverty and inequality clearly span the economic and social domains, for instance. What is noticeable here is that there is more diversity of priorities than in policy statements regarding TVET's role in economic development. Whilst many countries undoubtedly see TVET as central to policies for young people, this appears to be particularly marked in the evidence from Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, for instance. Gender equality is also seen as a policy area in which TVET can play a role, with Mauritius in particular emphasising the potential for supporting women entrepreneurs, and Lesotho and Malawi stressing the importance of increasing numbers of female artisans. The role of TVET in dealing with HIV/AIDS has also been acknowledged in several countries, such as Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe. In DRC, there is particular importance given to the issues of social reintegration after the long civil war; whilst Zambia stresses the need to support retrenchees. These issues of TVET and equity are dealt with in more detail in Section 3.9.

Other areas that receive attention include the role that TVET can play in supporting the management of the environment (e.g. DRC and Tanzania); in developing the health and housing sectors (e.g. Zambia); and in promoting rural development (e.g., Tanzania). Finally, Seychelles sees the role that TVET can play in supporting the promotion of a national cultural identity.

3.3   TVET strategies and policies

TVET policy frameworks across the SADC region mostly reside under broader government strategies for skills development in service of poverty alleviation, employment and employability, economic upliftment and competitive market engagement.

There is clear evidence that countries in the region have been influenced by international trends in TVET reform, as outlined in Chapter One. Across the region there are signs of aspirations to develop TVET policies that address skill upgrading, equity and system coherence, to name but three common goals. However, most countries have struggled to put their intentions into practice.

Elaborate goals for TVET and skills development therefore exist on paper. In some cases, they are still in draft form awaiting finalisation, as in Lesotho and the Seychelles. In other cases, like Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique and South Africa, evolving policy development shows some recognition of the shortcomings of historical TVET implementation. This has led to some attempts to make goal-setting more realistic and concrete with definite activities and targets, as in Malawi and Mozambique.

TVET seems to occupy an uncomfortable space between academic schooling and occupational training, responsibilities for which are located in different government ministries and departments (departments of education or departments of labour/skills development). As Section 3.4.3 will show, many countries have sought to address fragmentation, but it will also demonstrate that they often remain without sound coordinating mechanisms to ensure that policies are synchronised. For example, in DRC, TVET is managed by six ministries and an inter-ministerial committee to deal with coordination. Policy dissonance has resulted in many challenges for implementing TVET policy in the region and has been a factor in the slow development of national TVET sectors. A number of countries are still working with TVET policy frameworks harking back more than 10 years. However, a positive indication of the desire for TVET reform is that most of these older frameworks have come up for review in the last two years, with some countries already in the throes of developing forward-looking, long-term implementation plans which extend beyond 2011.

Deficient policy implementation has also been attributed to a dearth of managerial skills and capacity in the relevant departments, for instance in the Seychelles and in Zambia. This issue, though unreported in other countries as a stumbling block to progress, may well play a role in the systems lethargy that can be perceived across many of the countries' policy development processes given the length of time it has taken some to update and finalise their policy frameworks.

The following parallel policy vignettes are intended to illustrate the current policy position of TVET in each of the 13 countries in the study. More detailed descriptions can be found in each country monitoring report and many points raised here will be developed further later in this chapter.

■   Botswana

Botswanan TVET was reformed substantially in the 1990s with the establishments of the Tertiary Education Council (TEC) in the 1994 Revised National Policy on Education and the Botswana Training Authority (BOTA) under the Vocational Training Act of 1998. These two bodies responsible for vocational education and skills development have similar mandates but partly operate at different levels of the system and have two different target audiences. Concerns about this policy incoherence led to the National Human Resources Development Strategy of 2009, which sought explicitly to bridge the divide between education and training, and sector-based, labour-market orientated planning. This led in particular to the decision to establish a National Human Resources Council under the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, funded by the EU, which will absorb the functions of BOTA and the TEC.

■   Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)

Technical education and vocational training in DRC is managed by six ministries, hence the establishment of the Inter-Ministerial Commission for Technical Education and Vocational Training in 2006 to bring about synergy and regulation of TVET. The Inter-Ministerial Commission has as specific objectives an institutional framework for TVET; curricula

and programmes to enhance employability; ongoing advocacy for TVET; and the mobilisation of resources for TVET. Vocational training is seen as an integral part of general education, which provides access to work and to further training.

■ Lesotho

Lesotho's TVET policy still follows the 1984 Act. Although a new policy was developed with World Bank support in 2004, this remains in draft form and it is unclear when, indeed if, it will be implemented. The Ministry of Education works, therefore, from the Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) 2005-2015, which has specific TVET goals regarding access and equity in technical and vocational training; quality; relevance; the reduction of HIV/AIDS; and partnerships. Without a final policy in place, these goals, as well as a TVET vision advocating new governance arrangements, funding, provision, qualifications, quality assurance and traineeships, are compromised.

■ Malawi

Malawi embarked on a major reform of its TVET policies in the late 1990s, culminating in the TVET Act of 1999, which established the Technical Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education and Training Authority (TEVETA). The inclusion of 'entrepreneurial' in the agency's name was driven by the realisation that Malawi needed to do more to support self-employment and the informal economy, and that skills development was an important component of this (as was noted in Section 3.1.2. above).

The goal of the TEVETA 2007-2012 Strategic Plan is to drive the TVET sector towards adequate and sustainable generation of an internationally competitive and skilled workforce capable of spearheading the country's production and socio-economic growth in a socially responsible manner. The current guiding policy for the education sector in Malawi is the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) 2007-2017, although recent policy support work has been done by UNESCO. In the TVET sub-sector, the NESP has these specific targets:

- raising the student : classroom ratio to 40:1 by 2008/09;
- increasing enrolment of students by 74% by 2017/18;
- increasing use of instructors to support lecturers in classrooms;
- reducing the student : instructor ratio from 67:1 to 20:1 by 2017/18;
- hiring 146 instructors from among graduates of vocational colleges;
- upgrading 180 instructors to Bachelors level in technical and vocational training by 2016/17; and
- reducing the student : workshop ratio to 20:1 by 2017/18.

A notable strategy is the attempt to reintroduce TVET in some 24 model primary and 12 secondary schools that have technical and vocational wings, and the construction of five TVET wings in teacher training colleges.

■ Mauritius

The Mauritius Institute of Training and Development (MITD) was set up in November 2009 under the MITD Act through the merger of the Industrial and Vocational Training Board (IVTB) and part of the Technical School Management Trust Fund. The MITD is responsible for the public TVET delivery system and has also been entrusted the awarding function for all local TVET qualifications. The MITD has as specific objectives achieving excellence in technical and vocational education and training; promoting research and knowledge; increased access to vocational education through the setting up of training centres; exchange of programmes and courses with other institutions of technology; and the apprenticeship of persons who are, or will be, employed in commercial, technical and vocational fields. Earlier reforms had led to the establishment in 2001 of the Mauritius Qualifications Authority.

The Education and Human Resources Strategy Plan (EHRSP) 2008-2020 underlines the importance of the quality of the workforce for sustaining economic and social development in Mauritius. Equally, the Government Programme 2005/2010 set out clear objectives for TVET, including the establishment of new polytechnics specialising in areas of potential economic growth; a levy-grant scheme; and a review of the current training system to give new direction to TVET.

■ Mozambique

The 2001 Strategy for Technical and Professional Education in Mozambique 2002-2011 stated the goals of training more technicians, creating new jobs and improving training quality through competence-based technical and professional training with the participation of public and private sectors, and the creation of a qualifications framework. Moreover, the Public Sector Reform Strategy 2002-2011 promised the improvement of the quality of training institutions; the implementation of curriculum reform through modular courses addressing rural development; and the introduction of a qualifications system for professional skills from basic to higher levels. Three levels of TVET (elementary, basic and middle) are being developed for the technical training of school-age young people to prepare them for a vocational specialism.

■ Namibia

Namibia was an early introducer of a national qualifications authority in 1996 as part of a first wave of post-independence reforms that included the establishment of a Vocational Training Board. The most recent policies and legislation have been the Vocational Education and Training policy of 2005 and the VET Act of 2008. This Act established the Namibia Training Authority, which is responsible for regulation of TVET. There is a drive towards giving public providers more autonomy and to establish a registration and accreditation system that includes private providers.

■ Seychelles

Policy formulation and development on TVET in Seychelles have been undertaken in a variety of forms and by different sectors or sub-sectors, for instance by the Department of Education as part of its mandate for education and training and by the National Human Resources Development Council (NHRDC) as part of its mandate for human resources development. However, there is no integrated policy framework even though the need for such was articulated by the then Minister of Education in 2006. A draft Policy Framework on Technical and Vocational Education and Training was developed that year but has not been finalised. The process is also compromised by significant blockages linked with management/resource capacity at sector and/or sub-sector level related to policy formulation and development. The need for coherence and coordination is seen as crucial. A Seychelles Qualifications Agency was established in 2005. A Tertiary Education Bill, envisaged for 2011, will legally define TVET in the tertiary sector.

■ South Africa

South Africa has had a raft of legislation affecting TVET since 1994. One of the first Acts of the new government established the South African Qualifications Authority in 1995. In spite of its overarching vision, the departments of education and labour largely proceeded with parallel policy developments.

The Further Education and Training (FET) Act of 1998 led to the reorganization of 152 apartheid-era public technical colleges into 50 multi-site FET colleges and set out broad and long-term intentions for curricula transformation, learning and teaching, funding, quality assurance and institutional arrangements. The emphasis of the second FET Colleges Act of 2006 was on increased college autonomy illustrated largely by new staffing arrangements. A new curriculum policy framework was gazetted in 2006 ushering in a suite of FET National Certificates (Vocational) (NCV) as the official curricula for college learners. The National Plan of 2008 aimed to increase the number of college learners from around 400,000 in 2002 to 1 million by 2014. Colleges were recapitalised by the government in order to modernise and improve facilities, but the participation target was adjusted in 2010 to 650,000 learners.

The Skills Development Act of 1998 established a parallel set of industry qualifications, called learnerships, as well as a National Skills Authority to advise the Minister of Labour, a set of Sector Education and Training Authorities and a National Skills Fund, underpinned by a new levy-grant system.

In 2001 a Human Resources Development (HRD) Strategy was introduced to strengthen articulation between the two departments but major concerns remained regarding policy coherence. This has been addressed by a new HRD Strategy and a reform of the NQF architecture that has seen the establishment of a new Quality Council for Trades and

Occupations (QCTO), mirroring existing structures for general and further education and for higher education. Perhaps most significantly, the second wave of reforms resulted in a new Department of Higher Education and Training being established in 2009. This is leading to a further wave of reforms that are still being developed.

■ Swaziland

The key TVET legislation in Swaziland is the Vocational and Industrial Training Act (VITA) 1982, supplemented at the policy level by the National Education Commission Review in 1985. However, a new Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Skills Development (TVETSD) policy was implemented in 2010 with support from the World Bank. This has a vision of developing a quality, relevant, sustainable TVETSD system, including an NQF. Since this policy is in a very early implementation stage there is as yet no information on progress.

■ United Republic of Tanzania

Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar have different TVET policies, legislation, systems of national governance, quality assurance agencies and levels of development so these two entities are dealt with separately in this section.

• Tanzania

Mainland Tanzania has two separate vocational systems under different government ministries: Vocational Education and Training (VET) and Technical Education and Training (TET).

VET is governed by the Vocational Education and Training Act of 1994, which covers training leading to a skilled occupation. TET is governed by the National Council for Technical Education Act of 1997, which covers tertiary education obtained in a non-university institution and refers to education and training undertaken to equip learners with higher levels of skill, knowledge and understanding and enable them to take responsibility for an area of specialisation.

There are draft policy plans to reorganize the two components into a single system.

• Zanzibar

VET in Zanzibar is governed by the Zanzibar Vocational Education and Training Policy of 2005 and the Vocational Training Act of 2006, which was amended by the Vocational Training (Amendment) Act in 2007. This legislation established the Vocational Training Authority (VTA) to supervise vocational training in Zanzibar by determining standards of training, assessing training centres, and by evaluating and approving the capacity and skills of trainers and trainees.

■ Zambia

In 1996, Zambia reformed its TVET system and established the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority (TEVETA). During the period 2001 to 2007, Zambia, with the support of international cooperation partners, implemented the TEVET Development Programme (TDP). The TDP was created to act as a vehicle for the implementation of various interventions aimed at improving major components of TEVET reforms, including responsiveness to the demands of both the formal and informal sectors of the economy; improvement in the quality of training; greater equity (gender, disability and vulnerability) in the delivery of training; and mechanisms for ensuring the financial sustainability of the training system. However, implementation has been constrained due to an inadequate supply of mid-level management skills to administer the system.

■ Zimbabwe

A systematic reform of the post-independence TVET policy in Zimbabwe has not yet taken place. However, a number of reform initiatives are noteworthy. In 2005, the Higher Education Examinations Council was established with responsibility for TVET programmes in polytechnics, to sit alongside the Apprenticeship Authority, which is responsible for lower-level TVET qualifications. A policy review of 2006 stressed the need for an overall human resources development strategy and this was followed by a draft skills policy in 2010. A qualifications framework and authority have been proposed but not yet implemented.

As these summaries demonstrate, over the past twenty years all SADC member states have engaged in TVET policy reforms. Countries that began system reform in the 1990s include Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. During the 2000s, DRC, Mozambique, Mauritius and Seychelles implemented TVET system reform, whilst Swaziland and Lesotho also began policy discussion. More recently, some countries (Botswana, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe) have begun to consider further reform. Whilst the reforms across the region share similar features, including the establishment of TVET sector coordination bodies, qualification frameworks, and levies, the timing and combination of reforms have differed in each national context.

3.4   Articulation with schooling and higher education

Articulation with academic education, whether at school or higher education levels, tends to be poor across the SADC region. Indeed, most of the national monitoring reports are silent about the possibilities of horizontal articulation with academic schooling. Only the report from Mozambique sees this as being unproblematic, whilst Mauritius expects to deal with this issue through a new credit accumulation and transfer system. However, it is notable that a number of other countries (e.g. Malawi, Seychelles and Zanzibar) are trying to blur the boundary between academic and vocational schooling through the widespread introduction of vocational elements into formal schooling.

There is more discussion in the national monitoring reports of the possibilities of progression from TVET into higher education. However, the picture here is generally not a positive one. In some countries (e.g. DRC, Lesotho and Swaziland), there is no evidence of progression to university, and progression between basic and post-secondary TVET even is problematic in Swaziland. In Botswana, the situation is seen as having worsened as the technical certificate and diploma programmes that facilitated progression in engineering have been discontinued by the universities.

In some SADC countries, for instance Tanzania and South Africa, progression is possible but rare. Only 1.8% of the 2010 entrants into the University of Dar es Salaam came from TET programmes, for example. However, South Africa has seen a recent (2009) move by Higher Education South Africa (the universities' own organization) to set Minimum Admission Requirements for holders of the NCV 4 qualification (the exit FET College certificate). While this admissions policy has been critiqued because the bar is set higher for college leavers than for school matriculants, it is recognised as a potentially significant step forward for vocational graduates. In Tanzania and Zanzibar, it is possible to progress on certain routes through a bridging programme.

Again, Mozambique is the country where the problem is seen as least significant. Those who complete TVET programmes equivalent to the 12th grade of schooling are eligible to enter higher education, although the national report does not make it clear how this works practically.

Several national monitoring reports commented on a stakeholder view that the development of NQFs would help solve this problem (e.g. Malawi, Namibia, Seychelles, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe). However, this optimism needs to be tempered by the slow achievement of progression in South Africa. More than a decade on from their introduction, learnerships still do not have an articulation route into higher education.

The challenge with learnerships, and in many other cases across the region, is that TVET qualifications are not primarily designed with a view to progression to higher levels but with a view to the competencies required for a specific occupation or set of occupations. This typically means that TVET graduates have much less prior formal learning and are less prepared for higher education programmes than academic school graduates. Given the low esteem for TVET in many cases, it is not surprising that universities are concerned about offering places to TVET graduates, and there are particular, and rational, worries about levels of formal mathematical and scientific knowledge. Thus, it may be far easier

to persuade higher education of the principle of progression than to find particular cases where progression is deemed to be appropriate.

3.5 System development

3.5.1 Qualification frameworks

Twelve of the 13 SADC member states participating in this study have agreed to develop and implement some form of qualifications framework (QF). DRC is considering the possibility, but a decision has not yet been made. The 'developmental status' of NQFs in the SADC region is summarised in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1
Progress in qualification framework implementation in the SADC region

Country	QF under discussion	QF policy drafted	QF approved	QF authority established	QF implemented in TVET sector	Policy evaluation and review	Monitoring and evaluation of QF performance	NQF implemented, TQF linked
Botswana*	●	●	●	●	●	●		
DRC	●							
Lesotho	●	●						
Malawi*	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Mauritius	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●
Mozambique	●	●	●					
Namibia	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Seychelles	●	●	●					
South Africa	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Swaziland*	●	●	●					
Tanzania	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Zambia	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	
Zimbabwe	●	●	●					

● QF under discussion; ● QF policy drafted; ● QF approved; ● QF authority established;

● QF implemented in TVET sector; ● Policy evaluation and review; ● Monitoring and evaluation of QF performance;

● NQF implemented, TQF linked; ○ No action reported on.

Note: Countries with a * against them have approved a QF for TVET.

Group 1: Early stages of NQF development

DRC, Lesotho, Zimbabwe and Swaziland are at the earliest stages of national qualifications framework development. Although proposals to implement an NQF have been discussed, none of these countries has yet formalised the decision to establish a full NQF within approved policy and legislation. Therefore, the future development trajectories of these NQFs are not yet entirely clear. Zimbabwe appears to be furthest along the path towards policy: the Zimbabwe Examinations Qualifications Authority (ZIMEQA) Act, which makes provision for the development of an NQF, is in draft form and under discussion in Parliament. Although policy proposals for an NQF are not yet approved in Swaziland, a policy to develop a qualifications framework for TVET has been approved. This could place Swaziland on a developmental pathway similar to the countries discussed in Group 2. However, data from Lesotho and DRC suggest some ambivalence about the development of an NQF. DRC has not yet approved policy to develop an NQF, and in spite of the large and unregulated qualifications sector (including unregulated qualifications in public providers), the national monitoring report notes that an NQF would only include formal vocational education and training in secondary schools, tertiary institutions and universities. In Lesotho, whilst draft policies have been prepared, including proposals for a nationally-accredited system

of standards and qualifications that addresses the issues of registration, curriculum, and accreditation, these are not finalised. It has been reported that both officials and donors share concerns that an NQF will be a major challenge given the limited resources available, and that implementing an NQF should not take up resources that might be better utilised in other ways.

The SADC TVET monitoring tool tracks NQF development using an ordinal scale and a narrative report. Sub-indicators are proposed to aid countries define a developmental stage. Whilst DRC, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zimbabwe might all be considered to be in an early phase of NQF development, national stakeholders awarded very different ratings to their progress in NQF development (from 2 in DRC to 4 in Zimbabwe). However, in each case, stakeholders argued that the status of qualification framework development was more advanced due to the existing coordination of TVET qualifications through established agencies (e.g. Zimbabwe), or because of pilot processes and draft procedures already taking shape in some areas of implementation (e.g. standard setting in Swaziland).

Group 2: NQFs based on an established TVET qualifications framework

Four countries in the region are now beginning to develop an NQF, having already established a framework of qualifications for the TVET sector: Botswana (BNVQ), Malawi (TQF), Zambia (TEVET QF), and Tanzania. With policy and a pilot for developing a framework for technical and professional qualifications, Mozambique may fall into this 'developmental pathway', albeit at an earlier stage than other countries in this group.

Whilst the formal policy approval of a TVET qualifications framework may have taken place at different times (for example, formal approval for the TEVET QF in Zambia was given in 2010), the countries in this group share a common trajectory in their development. Each established a TVET agency in the 1990s with responsibility for the reform and accreditation of TVET qualifications. The purposes of reform were to address the fragmentation of TVET qualifications across diverse institutions; to improve the quality and relevance of TVET through qualification and curriculum reform and new training standards; and to improve assessment and quality assurance practices. The TVET qualifications frameworks differ from each other; for instance Mozambique is establishing a 5-level framework; Botswana has a 3-level TVET framework; Zambia and Botswana have established 4-level frameworks, and the Tanzania TVET framework covers 10 levels (with levels 1 to 3 managed by VETA and levels 4 to 10 by NACTE). In each country, the TVET qualifications framework was established prior to the decision to develop an NQF. However, the more recent decisions to implement NQFs will articulate the existing TVET framework, and qualifications within it, into the broader system of education qualifications.

Within this group, stakeholder ratings clustered around rating 3 or 4, even though the group includes countries that have just begun to establish frameworks, as well as those with more mature frameworks in place and that have implemented monitoring and evaluation activities.

Group 3: SADC member states with NQF implementation in progress

Four countries are already implementing an NQF, three for a decade or more: South Africa (since 1995), Namibia (since 1996), Mauritius (since 2001), and Seychelles (since 2005). Based on challenges faced during implementation, South Africa is currently reforming its NQF. These four countries have followed a developmental pathway based on establishing a comprehensive NQF from the outset. The relationship between the NQF and a TVET qualifications framework was largely implicit in the approach taken to the governance of TVET qualifications authorities, as discussed further below. In spite of the longevity of the frameworks, stakeholders in these countries tended to rate progress at 3, although stakeholders in Mauritius rated their progress at 5. It should be noted that the relatively low rating awarded to South Africa was reported as being due to the framework's transitional status and the current reforms of the governance of qualifications.

Purposes of NQFs

National qualifications frameworks in SADC member states share similar purposes, although differences in emphasis are evident in overarching social goals. For example, the proposed framework for Lesotho is more explicitly directed towards the reduction of poverty, and the South African framework to redress. The frameworks share a common concern to make the qualifications system more responsive to labour market and industry needs. They are implemented as mechanisms to ensure quality of education and training; to promote coherence in qualifications; to enable access, mobility and progression; and to improve links and articulation between qualifications and between different parts of the qualifications system. Significantly for SADC, QFs are also intended to aid the recognition of foreign qualifications (Tanzania); ensure international comparability of national qualifications (South Africa and Malawi); clarify the position

(articulation) of international qualifications within a national system (Lesotho); enable regional cooperation (Mauritius); and facilitate articulation with other economic regions, particularly East Africa (Tanzania).

Coherence in TVET qualifications

Early phase NQFs: status quo – In countries that do not yet have an NQF or a functioning TVET QF, the qualifications landscape currently reflects the 'status quo'. DRC and Lesotho both report an unregulated TVET sector, with a wide variety of agencies offering awards and certificates. In both cases, this is associated with poor quality provision, fragmentation and duplication. In Lesotho, where institutions may offer their own award as well as the national certificate awarded by the Ministry of Education's Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVD), the practice is that students take two examinations: one for the institutional certification, the other for the national certification. However, where no national examinations are available, the institutions develop their own courses and run their own examinations. The level and quality of such courses may vary considerably from institution to institution.

In Lesotho and Zimbabwe, the proposed NQF will build on – and is intended to strengthen coherence across – the existing institutional landscape. The Zimbabwe report notes a decentralised model of an NQF in which the proposed Zimbabwe Examinations and Qualifications Authority (ZIMEQA) will oversee the development of the framework and will formulate policies for the registration and accreditation of qualifications and quality assurance bodies. At present decentralised quality assurance and certification bodies include the Higher Education Examinations Council (HEXCO), which examines TVET certificates and diplomas at 5 levels, the Apprenticeship Authority, as well as the Ministry of Youth, Indigenisation and Empowerment, which awards certificates at skills training centres. In Lesotho, the proposed structures for the implementation of the NQF also suggest a decentralised model, in which the Lesotho Qualifications Authority (LQA) will work with the Ministry of Education and Training (including the TVD), the Examinations Council of Lesotho, the Council on Higher Education Quality Assurance Committee, and a proposed Lesotho Skills Agency. The DRC report indicates that an NQF would only include formal vocational education and training in secondary schools, tertiary institutions and universities. In the 'early phase' frameworks, inclusion of qualifications delivered by private providers and enterprises appears problematic.

Coherence through TVET qualification frameworks – Amongst the countries that have implemented TVET qualifications frameworks, the monitoring reports for Tanzania and Zambia are more positive than those for Botswana and Malawi regarding their progress in terms of creating coherence and planning TVET qualifications. In Tanzania and Zambia, TVET governance structures have been mandated with responsibility for all TVET qualifications, including those delivered by public as well as private providers. The National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) (Tanzania), the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) (Tanzania) and TEVETA (Zambia) are responsible for development and quality assurance of all TVET qualifications. In both cases, the NQF is anticipated to build on the strengths of the TVET qualifications framework.

In contrast, the reports from Malawi and Botswana note that implementation of a coherent TVET qualifications framework has been challenging, constrained by overlap, duplication and a lack of clarity about roles between different agencies that have responsibilty for TVET qualifications. In Malawi and Botswana, the departments of labour and education have maintained responsibility for trade tests and craft qualifications, whilst the newly established TVET agency is focused on developing new unit standard-based occupational qualifications and accrediting their delivery. In Botswana, BOTA is responsible for qualifications offered by private and employer-based providers. In Malawi, TEVETA has developed new occupational qualifications to be delivered by colleges and workplaces. The recent review of TEVET policy in Malawi has focused particularly on addressing duplication in the roles and responsibilities of the three national agencies involved in TEVET qualifications.

In Malawi, the National Trade Test (NTT) curricula are almost two decades old but are currently being reviewed. The Malawi Craft Examinations are based on United Kingdom City and Guilds qualifications that may not be relevant to current national requirements, but these too are under review and in the process of being harmonised with the new TEVETA awards. TEVETA students are funded through the authority. However, colleges are able to generate additional income through charging fees to students taking 'parallel' examinations. This has led to increases in student admissions and enrolments, to the detriment of the quality of provision.

The duplication of functions between the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoESD), and the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs (MLHA) in Botswana has led to duplication of work on the design and production of standards, two sets of qualifications, with their own credit systems, rules of operation and quality assurance, and a

number of providers registering with both systems. Four different agencies are developing 'standards' based on input from employers, which have slightly different functions and a number of different names.

In Botswana and Malawi, the development of an NQF has been recommended to address problems of overlap and duplication, and the process of harmonisation is beginning.

Coherence through an NQF – NQFs were established in Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles and South Africa as mechanisms to coordinate qualifications in education and training and to enable articulation between qualifications and sub-systems. In Mauritius, for example, the emphasis has been on articulating TVET with higher education. In all four cases, the development of an NQF has involved the establishment of new institutions with responsibility for the NQF. In the case of Mauritius and Seychelles, the National Qualifications Authority has also been mandated as the qualification body for private TVET provision. However, in Nambia and South Africa, many of the old national qualifications have continued to be offered alongside new awards, leading to confusion and problems of articulation.

The monitoring reports from Mauritius and Seychelles point to increasing coherence of TVET qualifications through the implementation of an NQF. Prior to the establishment of the NQF in Mauritius there were 25 different certification systems operating in parallel. The NQF has provided a coherent framework whereby all public TVET institutions are accredited by the MITD, and all private and public providers may seek accreditation with the Mauritius Qualifications Authority (MQA) for qualifications that are based on national, registered standards. The NQF in Seychelles has been implemented more recently, and the qualification registration process is still in early stages. Consultation with training providers has taken place, and training providers have been advised on amendments required prior to re-submission for validation and registration. The Seychelles Qualifications Authority (SQA) has not yet begun the process of accreditation of providers due to time and capacity constraints.

In Nambia, whilst the NQA has responsiblity for the overall coordination and quality assurance of all awards, there are stakeholder concerns regarding the continuation of the work of the National Trade Testing Centre and a series of old awards that are still in place. Registration of all providers and the development of TVET standards and qualifications is the work of the National Training Authority. Accreditation and quality assurance of TVET are shared between the NQA and the NTA.

In South Africa, a decentralised model of quality assurance was introduced for the first NQF. This involved two quality assurance bodies in the education sector: the Council on Higher Education's (CHE) Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC), which is responsible for qualifications in higher education, and Umalusi, responsible for general and further education. In addition, 25 SETAs were established with responsibility for quality assurance of unit standards-based qualifications in an economic sector. Professional bodies could also be accredited as quality assurance agencies. As a result, the implementation of the NQF initially involved 31 accreditation agencies with overlap in accreditation practices. This gave rise to a variety of problems, including severe difficulties for TVET provider institutions offering a range of programmes falling under different quality assurance agencies. For instance, a FET college offering diverse skills programmes could be accredited by Umalusi and a series of SETAs. These challenges contributed to the reform of the NQF based on three sub-frameworks, each managed by a single quality council. The South Africa monitoring report states that the TVET sector spans two of these sub-frameworks. Vocational education qualifications and adult basic education certificates delivered by public and private providers will be accredited by Umalusi, and occupational qualifications by the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO).

Qualifications frameworks have been established to increase coherence and articulation of TVET qualifications. However, as several of the frameworks are in early phases of development, and as monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are not yet widespread, the information available in the national monitoring reports does not provide any strong indication of best practices in framework implementation that demonstrably lead to the achievement of this policy goal. However, the data available do seem to suggest that establishing new qualification bodies alongside existing structures can weaken the potential for coherence. Countries that have established a single national TVET qualifications body with clear responsibility for all qualifications report greater stakeholder satisfaction with progress.

Registration and uptake of NQF qualifications

Several monitoring reports were able to provide information concerning the development of qualifications on NQFs and vocational qualifications frameworks. Table 3.2 provides information regarding registration of unit standards and qualification on TVET qualification frameworks

Table 3.2:
Registration of unit standards and qualifications on TVET qualifications frameworks

Country	Agency	Unit standards registered	Qualifications registered on QF
Botswana	BOTA	1421	115
Mauritius	MQA (TVET qualifications)	3223	121
Mozambique	Approved by COREP[3]		21
Namibia	NTA	975	91
South Africa	SETAs	9000 (unit standards and qualifications)	
Tanzania	VETA		84
	NACTE		46
Zambia	TEVETA		50

The recent operationalisation of the TEVETA Qualifications Framework (TQF) in Zambia is evident in the relatively low number of qualifications registered on the TQF. In October 2010, 50 qualifications were registered on the TQF. Since 2009, responsibility for certification of TVET qualifications has been in the process of transfer from the Examinations Council of Zambia to TEVETA. The number of qualifications *certified* by TEVETA as an examinations board is much higher (376 in October 2010 and increasing as the transfer takes place).

For frameworks with more advanced implementation, large numbers of qualifications have been registered. However, several monitoring reports note that the actual uptake of these qualifications is much lower, with qualifications registered but not implemented. In Botswana, delivery of the programmes has been hampered by slow progress with the development of curricula and assessment guides. In addition, providers have not applied for accreditation to deliver the new qualifications, and show a strong preference for existing qualifications such as BTEP, Trade Tests and City and Guilds qualifications.

Recognition of prior learning

Several qualifications authorities are developing policies and guidelines for the recognition of prior learning (RPL) (e.g. South Africa, Botswana and Mauritius). The MQA is implementing RPL and notes that the number of applications is constantly increasing: 49 candidates have been awarded a full qualification through RPL, and 72 candidates are due for assessment. A national credit system has been established by NACTE in Tanzania as a strategy to recognise prior learning for purposes of entry to technical awards at level 4. VET students without prior secondary education or trade tests are required to attend and complete bridging courses for which credit is given in order to access technical education. The qualifications framework in Tanzania includes credit guidelines at each level as the principal means for measuring and expressing learning equivalence at the respective levels.

It is to be noted that several monitoring reports mention the development of credit and accumulation systems within the NQF, for example in Mauritius, Tanzania and Botswana, suggesting an additional developmental phase in NQF trajectories in the SADC region, as elsewhere.

Monitoring and evaluation of qualifications frameworks

Most countries have not yet implemented a systemic approach to monitoring and evaluation of their TVET or national qualifications framework. However, SAQA has carried out an impact study of the NQF in three cycles, and several evaluations have been undertaken concerning qualifications in Botswana and Namibia.

The monitoring of qualifications frameworks requires efficient information systems, including registers of qualifications and standards and their accredited providers, as well as records of learner achievement of qualifications (and possibly credits). Information systems are being developed in Zambia, Mauritius and Seychelles, and are proposed in Tanzania.

---

3   Executive Committee of the Professional Education Reform.

South Africa has implemented a National Learners Records database of learner achievement. However, this is currently not available to researchers for analytical purposes. Namibia has plans for a similar database.

As most SADC countries are not yet monitoring or evaluating the performance of their frameworks, this would appear to be an area where regional support may be useful.

The state of NQFs in the region

There is a growing international debate regarding the nature of evidence illustrative of NQFs' impact. Indeed, the strongest conclusion that can be made regarding NQFs from this study is that such evidence is lacking. Of course, some NQFs are so new that evidence of impact is not to be expected. Nonetheless, there is a clear challenge of gathering sufficient robust evidence of NQFs' impact. Such a challenge is made harder by the very wide and deep ambitions that many countries have for their NQFs. It seems unlikely that any NQF could achieve all that is expected of it, but this is not to say that NQFs cannot and do not have positive impacts. Rather, the challenge lies in measuring these and placing them in the context of a robust costing of what NQFs cost. There are further issues here as it is important to be clear in such an analysis what are genuinely additional costs of having an NQF and what are costs that would be incurred in any case.

3.5.2   Quality assurance

Throughout the SADC region, national TVET reforms are driven by concerns to improve the quality of TVET provision. To a large extent, these reforms have focused on strengthening the governance of quality and quality assurance systems. Quality assurance processes are also critical for the implementation of arrangements that determine equivalence between TVET systems in the SADC region, such as NQFs. This section explores the status of quality assurance systems that are in development and/or implementation in SADC countries in order to monitor and strengthen the quality of TVET provision. It does not explore the quality of TVET *per se*. However, it should be noted that improving the quality of TVET requires more than implementing a quality assurance system. Several monitoring reports discussed challenges constraining the quality of TVET, for example, capacity, infrastructure and resource levels at TVET provider institutions; availability and capacity of TVET teaching and instructional staff; availability of learning resources; and work placements. Many of these issues are dealt with elsewhere in this report.

SADC member states' assessments of the status of their national TVET quality assurance system demonstrate a wide range of levels of development. In some countries, particularly DRC and Swaziland, policy discussions about quality assurance are taking place although a sector-wide quality assurance system has not yet been established. In Lesotho and Malawi, the lack of coordination of quality assurance was considered to be hindering the further improvement of TVET standards, although in Lesotho stakeholders proposed a higher rating for that country based on the quality assurance role of the TVD. In Mozambique, stakeholders felt that basic elements of the system were in place, and they were positive that implementation was progressing and was informed by current pilot initiatives. In Namibia, the view of stakeholders was that the system was largely in place but was not working effectively. In several countries (Botswana, Mauritius, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe), stakeholders were satisfied that the quality assurance system was established and working well, although most identified at least one area of the system for further development; for example, weaknesses in coordination in quality assurance practices by different agencies in Botswana, and monitoring and evaluation of the quality assurance system in Zambia. Two countries, South Africa and Seychelles, received a rating lower than may be expected given that quality assurance agencies are in place, but stakeholders argued that this rating (3) reflected the current status of a system in transition from one set of quality assurance arrangements to another. The overall mean rating was almost identical to that of SADC's assessment of quality assurance systems in 2007 (see Chapter One).

Table 3.3:
Stakeholder assessments of the status of the quality assurance system

Country	Stake-holder rating	Justification
Botswana	4	Quality assurance systems are in place in TVET and are fairly advanced. There are some mechanisms for coordination and coherence, but TVET quality assurance systems (BOTA and QAA) are not integrated, and are not aligned with an overarching QA system. There is some external verification of QA systems (in particular BTEP/QAA), but it is not clear whether they are regularly reviewed and monitored.
DRC	1	DRC does not yet have a coherent and concerted national system for analysing quality in TVET, although discussions on this are underway.
Lesotho	3	As the overall coordination mechanism for TVET has not been established, there is no coordination for quality assurance. The current body playing the coordination role is TVD. However, plans for the establishment of a quality assurance system and what it should entail are in place and clearly stated under the Education Strategic Sector Plan 2005-2015 and the Education Act of 2004. Stakeholders argued for a 3 rating based on the quality assurance work carried out by TVD.
Malawi	2	Quality assurance in the TVET sector is still fragmented and uncoordinated, although this problem is beginning to be addressed.
Mauritius	5	Mechanisms for coordination and coherence are in place, through the MQA and the NQF. The quality assurance system for training providers is maintained through registration and accreditation, subject to constant review in order to monitor adherence to a set of quality criteria. The quality assurance system itself is subject to review and monitoring. The MQA's fixed set of provisions for registration and accreditation were reviewed and a new set of quality assurance standards were developed so as to keep pace with new forms of training practices. Committees have also been set up by the MQA Board to advise the Authority on registration of trainers, approval of courses and accreditation of training institutions to offer award programmes.
Mozambique	2/3	A basic system of quality assurance is in place, approved and being implemented as a pilot project. Requirements for ratings 2 and 3 are met. There is agreement on what the quality assurance system should entail. Initial steps are being taken to establish quality assurance agencies, while their role in the assessment is agreed and and basic registration and accreditation of providers is in place.
Namibia	3	Although quality assurance systems, policies and procedures are in place, the efficiency of the system is relatively low. Accreditation and registration systems for public and private providers are not yet implemented; and there is no database of TVET providers.
Seychelles	3	The quality assurance system is in transition. Policies and frameworks on quality assurance, including the quality assurance mechanism as a responsibility of the SQA, are in place, but are not yet strongly implemented. Existing quality processes in public post-secondary institutions, such as monitoring student performance in exams and completion of annual reports, are on-going, though not yet used at the level of the SQA's quality assurance system.
South Africa	3	The architecture and system of quality assurance assessment in South Africa are currently in a transitional phase linked to the establishment of the Quality Councils for Trades and Occupations. Three Quality Councils have responsibilities for quality assurance, including: setting and maintaining standards for qualifications development and registration; assessments and certification; and accreditation and monitoring of providers for the three sub-frameworks of the NQF. This new system will replace the existing one of quality assurance and accreditation for accrediting bodies (Education and Training Quality Assurance bodies) in place since 1998.
Swaziland	1	The national TVET policy clearly articulates the significance of quality assurance. However, monitoring instruments are not yet developed, nor operational, and there is no monitoring body.
Tanzania	4	Two quality assurance agencies have been established for over 12 years. VETA sets training standards, registers VET providers, accredits training courses, assesses and certifies competencies of VET learners in line with clear and transparent guidelines it has developed. NACTE sets training standards, registers and accredits technical institutions, registers technical teaching staff and other pedagogic staff, all in line with clear and transparent standards and guidelines it has developed. It also validates training programmes and courses; oversees the National Technical Awards it has established and their certification; and monitors technical institutions to assist them in providing quality TET and maintaining approved academic standards. Both VETA and NACTE have in place operational modalities for monitoring and evaluation of TVET quality at respective levels. The modalities are participatory involving respective stakeholders.

Country	Stake-holder rating	Justification
Zambia	4	A quality assurance system is in place for TVET. Zambia has established TEVETA to regulate the TVET sector. The Training Quality Assurance System still needs to be strengthened in monitoring and evaluation, aimed at promoting quality improvements. There are continuing efforts to involve professional bodies, trade associations and subject experts in the quality assurance system, although current results show that this is being done only in a few sectors.
Zanzibar	3	VTA is the quality assurance body for VET in Zanzibar. VTA is still in its infancy but significant efforts are ongoing towards operationalisation. VTA has already started to determine some standards for training, evaluating and registering VET centres, and evaluating and approving capacity and skills of trainers. VTA does not, however, perform assessment of VET learners on its own and neither confers nor coordinates awards, but is validating all certificates issued by registered vocational centres in Zanzibar. There is some monitoring and evaluation of VET centres through inspections with a view to ensuring continued quality of VET provision after registration.
Zimbabwe	4	A quality assurance system is in place across sector-specific line ministries and private providers. Quality assurance bodies, the accreditation of providers, and practices for reviewing the accreditation of providers are in place. There is also external verification of quality assurance. While the mechanism for quality assurance has been developed, it remains decentralised. A rating of 5 was not awarded because the Zimbabwe Examinations and Qualifications Framework, under which quality is assured, has been designed, but has not yet been ratified for implementation.

Table 3.3 provides a snapshot of the status of quality assurance systems in the SADC region, as judged by stakeholders against the ordinal rating in the SADC monitoring tool. Systems in place range from weak quality assurance systems at the beginning of reform, to quality assurance arrangements that are viewed to be working well across the whole sector (Mauritius; Zambia) or across a large part of the sector (Zimbabwe). Progress in quality assurance reforms may be monitored as systems develop and strengthen in the coming years.

Agencies responsible for the governance of quality of TVET in the SADC region use a variety of practices, including:

● registration of TVET providers against quality criteria
● monitoring and/or inspecting TVET providers' adherence to registration requirements
● registering TVET trainers, managers, technical teachers, assessors and examiners
● setting national standards for TVET trainers
● accreditation of providers to deliver qualifications / programmes
● approving training courses
● setting and maintaining standards (for qualifications development)
● registering standards and qualifications
● quality assurance of assessment and certification
● external verification of quality assurance
● assessment and certification.

Most SADC TVET systems use most or all of the practices listed above, although the organization of these practices within different systems varies. A mapping of quality assurance practices of each TVET quality assurance agency, as presented in the national reports, is presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4:
Quality assurance practices of national TVET quality assurance agencies

Country	Governance structure	Domain of operation	Registration of public providers	Registration of private providers	Registration of trainers	Accreditation of providers for qualifications	Quality assurance of certification	Assess-ment and certification	Standards development and review	Course approval
Botswana	Ministry of Education and Skills Development: Department of TVET Quality Assurance Assessment Unit (QAA)	Colleges (BTEP)	X (public)			X	BTEP programme in technical colleges		X	
	MLHA: Madirelo Training and Testing Centre (MTTC) Directorate of Apprenticeships and Industrial Training	Trade tests					X (trade tests)			
	BOTA	Private and enterprise-based TVET		X (private)	X	X (private)	X		X	
DRC	Ministry: EPSP		X				X	X		
	INPP (National Institute of Professional Preparation)	Non-formal VET					X			
	CI-ETFP (Inter-Ministerial Commission for TVET)								x	
Lesotho	Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVD)	Technical and vocational education				x			x	
	Industrial and Vocational Training Board	Advisory board on TVET							?	
	Council on Higher Education (CHE) HE Quality Committee	HE providers				X	X			

Country	Governance structure	Domain of operation	Registration of public providers	Registration of private providers	Registration of trainers	Accreditation of providers for qualifications	Quality assurance of certification	Assess-ment and certification	Standards development and review	Course approval
Malawi	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Public colleges	X			X (MAC)	X		X	
	Ministry of Labour					X (NTT)	X		x	
	TEVETA QA Division	Employer-based and informal	X	X		X (CBET)	X	X	X	
Mauritius	Ministry of Education and Human Resources		X	X						
	MITD	Public TVET provision	X (public)			X			X	
	MQA Mauritius Qualifications Authority	Quality assurance of all TVET	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Mozambique	Ministry of Education	Provision of public technical and professional education								
	Inter-ministerial Commission for the Reform of Professional Education (COREP)		X		X	X	X		X	
	ANEP National Authority for Vocational Education	Proposed								
Namibia	National Training Authority	Public and private techncal and vocational education and training	X	X		X		X	X	
	Namibia Qualifications Authority	Accrediting programmes			X					X
	Ministry of Education, DVET, NTTC	Trade tests				X	X	X		
Seychelles	Department of Education, Employment and Human Resources: Technical and Further Education Division	Post-secondary public technical training institutions	X	X		X (apprentice-ships/TTs)			X	
	SQA Seychelles Qualifications Authority					X (not yet implemented)	X		X	X
	Tertiary Education Commission	To be established								

Country	Governance structure	Domain of operation	Registration of public providers	Registration of private providers	Registration of trainers	Accreditation of providers for qualifications	Quality assurance of certification	Assess-ment and certification	Standards development and review	Course approval
South Africa	DHET Department of Higher Education and Training	Public FET colleges Skills development Registration of private providers	X	X (FET providers)						
	SETAs Sector Education and Training Authorities	Occupational qualifications In public, private and enterprise providers				X	X	X	X	
	Umalusi	Public and private providers of general and further education and training				X	X National Certificate (Vocational)	X	X	
	Council on Higher Education					X	X		X	X
	Quality Council for Trades and Occupations	To be established Will take over QA role of SETAs								
Swaziland	Ministry of Education:	Public technical and vocational education	X	Unregulated						
	Ministry of Enterprise and Employment Directorate of Industrial and Vocational Training	Apprenticeships and trade tests	X				X			
	IVTB Industrial and Vocational Training Board					X (apprentice-ships and trade tests)				
	National Training and Qualifications Authority	Proposed								
	SWATA Swaziland Training Authority	Proposed								
Tanzania	NACTE National Council for Technical Education	Post secondary technical education (Mainland)	X	X	X	x	X		X	X
	VETA	Post primary vocational education and training (Mainland)	X	X		X	X	X	X	
	VTA	VET in Zanzibar	x	x	x				X	x

Country	Governance structure	Domain of operation	Registration of public providers	Registration of private providers	Registration of trainers	Accreditation of providers for qualifications	Quality assurance of certification	Assessment and certification	Standards development and review	Course approval
Zambia	TEVETA Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority	All VET programmes	x	X	X		X	X	X	X
	ZQA Zambia Qualifications Authority	Proposed								
Zimbabwe	Ministry for Higher and Tertiary Education	Public post secondary TVET institutions	X (public and private)							
	Ministry of SMEs	VTCs	X							
	Ministry of Youth Development, Gender and Employment Creation	VTCs	X							
	HEXCO	Higher education qualifications	X	X		X	X	X	X	X
	ZIMSEC							X		
	National Manpower and Development Advisory Council									
	ZIMEQA Zimbabwe Examinations and Qualifications Authority	Proposed to manage NQF								

From this summary, it is evident that quality assurance systems vary and the distribution of quality assurance responsibilities differ. In some systems, a single quality assurance agency performs a wide range of quality assurance practices (for example MQA in Mauritius, TEVETA in Zambia or HEXCO in Zimbabwe), whilst in other systems responsibility is distributed across several agencies, some of which are more limited in their role (for example, in South Africa where several quality assurance agencies operate in the TVET sector and the Department of Higher Education and Training registers FET providers and carries out inspections).

Different quality assurance agencies also focus on different quality assurance practices. For example, in South Africa, Umalusi principally follows an exit assessment and certification quality assurance mechanism, the Council on Higher Education focuses on a programme approval and provider quality improvement model, whilst SETA Education and Training Quality Assurance bodies (ETQAs) generally focus on provider accreditation and assessment moderation systems.

Furthermore, different agencies may perform similar quality assurance practices but may do so in different parts of the TVET sector and/or in different kinds of provider institutions. For example, the SETAs in South Africa are responsible for the quality of occupationally-based provision in specific economic sectors; in Botswana, BOTA focuses on quality assurance of private and enterprise-based provision, whilst the Ministry of Education is largely responsible for quality assurance of TVET qualifications in the public sector; and in Tanzania, NACTE focuses on quality assurance of technical education and training at higher education levels (public and private), whilst VETA is responsible for the quality of post-primary vocational training (public and private).

The information available in the monitoring reports indicates that whilst most systems in the SADC region use a broadly similar set of quality assurance practices, their distribution within the system and significance for assuring quality varies between countries, and between different parts of a TVET sector. Evaluation studies, such as those cited in the monitoring reports for South Africa, Swaziland and Botswana, have been useful in providing data on the performance of specific quality assurance systems.

Reports from some countries recognise weaknesses in the current quality assurance arrangements in TVET. Indeed, in Swaziland, many of the practices associated with the governance of quality are absent. The Swaziland monitoring report notes that there is very weak regulation and quality control of public and private TVET provision. Public provision is largely regulated by circulars from the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Enterprise and Employment. Private providers are required to register as a business but are otherwise largely unregulated. There are no occupational standards and no national curricula for TVET. Certification is provided by providers but without external quality assurance; and programmes offered for the same occupation by different providers vary in terms of duration, content, assessment and certification. DRC also does not yet have a quality assurance system that monitors quality across a range of criteria, including quality of curricula, TVET teacher training and institutional standards concerning, for example, equipment, laboratories and workshops. Thus, in a few SADC countries, systematised quality assurance is not yet agreed.

In some countries, quality assurance practices may be agreed but the responsible institutions do not have the capacity to implement them. For example in Swaziland, the Directorate of Industrial and Vocational Training has insufficient resources and capacity to maintain trade tests, and in Malawi, the Ministry of Education has lacked capacity to inspect colleges regularly. As a result, some institutions are offering programmes that are not registered with the Ministry of Education, and have staff that do not meet qualification requirements. Namibian stakeholders argued that the registration and accreditation systems were not yet fully functional.

Systems that work well may also not have the capacity to reach all providers. For example, the rural training centres in Botswana largely fall outside the quality assurance system and this exclusion is reflected in the quality of provision.

Countries in which stakeholders perceived the quality assurance system as needing strenthening included DRC, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia and Zanzibar.

In addition to describing their quality assurance practices, countries that were awarded higher ratings for the state of their quality assurance system also provided some details of developmental approaches taken in order to improve their quality assurance systems. For example, in Mauritius, MQA regulations have been strengthened recently, and the legislation requires that all training institutions must be registered with the MQA and all programmes must be accredited. Compulsory registration is also required by the agencies in Tanzania.

These countries are taking a developmental approach to registration, based on different levels of approval to practise. NACTE (Tanzania) uses three categories of registration. At Category 1, registration providers are not allowed to enrol students until certain minimum standards set by Category 2 are achieved. TEVETA (Zambia) also has three categories of registration. Both agencies have information management systems that enable reporting on the number of providers in each category. Furthermore, TEVETA Zambia is able to track movements in quality, noting the proportion of providers that move from category 1 to 2, and from 2 to 3 per year.

Several agencies, for example BOTA in Botswana and TEVETA in Malawi, close providers that do not comply with registration standards. TEVETA (Malawi) reports that it has had to threaten to close at least one public provider based on inadequate infrastructure.

It is striking that in several systems that score highly, the quality assurance agency is also involved in capacity building of providers. In Tanzania, using resources from the VET Fund, assistance is given by VETA to develop capacities of VET institutions, including private providers, and to support providers to meet the quality assurance criteria required for registration. In Mozambique, the piloting of the quality assurance system has included the appointment of advisors in the pilot TVET institutions, seminars in quality assurance and support in setting up management systems. In Zambia, inspection reports prepared by TEVETA for registration purposes are passed to its Training Support Service Section. Strengthening links between the governance of quality and building provider capacity appears to have a beneficial effect on the developmental status of the quality assurance system.

Several countries noted that developing a coherent sector-wide TVET quality assurance system has been compromised by overlap and duplication between quality assurance agencies operating in the TVET sector. The impact of this duplication and lack of coherence is felt most keenly by TVET providers. In Botswana, BOTA and the QAA Unit in the Ministry of Education and Skills Development are implementing parallel quality assurance systems relating to their separate qualifications. The national report notes that there are no formal arrangements for cooperation between these systems yet, although the QAA Unit of the Ministry sits in BOTA's Quality Assurance Committee meetings, and is exploring possibilities for cooperation. However, TVET providers that offer both the BTEP programme and BOTA programmes have to comply with both sets of quality assurance arrangements.

The Namibia report also comments on the challenge of overlap and duplication between the NTA and NQA, and attempts to manage this through a memorandum of understanding. Furthermore, the transition from older systems of TVET quality assurance towards new institutional arrangements also needs to be managed, as existing practices are maintained (such as trade tests implemented under the authority of the Ministry of Education) alongside new quality assurance practices established by the NTA. The report notes that this leads to confusion for trainees and providers.

In South Africa, FET providers that wish to offer learnership programmes at NQF levels 2-4 and practical training leading to occupationally-directed qualifications have to comply with the requirements of the various SETA ETQAs and receive programme approval for the qualifications, courses or programmes they wish to offer that fall within each SETA's primary focus. In addition, they are required to register with the DHET and to be accredited by Umalusi for provision of the National Certificate (Vocational). As has been commented upon above, the models of quality assurance used by Umalusi and SETA ETQAs are very different. Umalusi's quality assurance practices focus on curriculum approval and external examinations, whereas SETAs use a decentralised model of quality assurance that includes programme approval, verification of internal systems of assessment, and the registration of accredited assessors. There is also a lack of uniformity in the way that SETAs apply the decentralised model. TVET providers offering a range of occupational subjects are required to be accredited by several quality assurance agencies. Incoherent duplication of accreditation is expensive and time consuming to both providers and quality assurance bodies.

The challenges presented for providers by multiple quality assurance agencies with differing quality assurance requirements have led to reforms of the quality assurance system in three SADC countries. For example, the recent reforms of the NQF in South Africa have led to a rationalisation of the quality assurance system and the establishment of only three quality councils: Umalusi, HEQC and QTCO.

In Botswana, quality assurance may be brought together under the auspices of the Botswana Examinations Council, established in 2007. The Steering Committee of the NCQF is considering a merger of the two main existing TVET quality assurance systems, the Education Ministry's QAA unit and BOTA. Similarly, a new department of TVET has been formed by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training in Tanzania to enhance coordination of VET and TET for improved efficiency and effectiveness.

Coherence remains a challenge in systems where different agencies are involved in assuring quality of different TVET programmes offered by providers. Several countries in the SADC region (South Africa, Botswana, Namibia and Tanzania) are considering further reforms in an attempt to strengthen coherence.

Monitoring and evaluation of the quality assurance system

Practices to monitor and develop the quality assurance system itself are less well developed in most SADC member states, and several countries held back from awarding a rating of 5 due to gaps in this area. Even so, monitoring and evaluation of quality assurance systems is taking place. Some of the strategies used include:

- ### National quality assurance standards for the TVET system

The MQA in Mauritius has developed quality assurance standards that apply to the whole education sector including TVET. These standards are monitored and improvements have been made to the TVET QA system. The Ministry of Education in Botswana also plans to set national standards and indicators of quality for the education sector (including the TVET sector) with support from the African Development Bank. These standards include standards for policy and planning and coordination as well as for measuring the quality of TVET provision.

- ### Monitoring indicators that signal the quality of the TVET system

Some countries monitor indicators of TVET quality, such as pass rates, throughput rates, transition rates, and TVET staff qualification levels. However, as is evident in the national TVET monitoring reports, in most SADC countries monitoring the quality of the TVET system using indicators of system performance is compromised by the lack of TVET MIS (see Section 3.3.6 below).

- ### Systemic monitoring of the national quality assurance system including performance of the quality assurance agencies

The performance of the quality assurance agencies is measured against quality standards in Mauritius and Tanzania. These agencies have functioning information management systems and are able to report on registrations, accreditations, approvals of institutions, courses, trainers, etc.

- ### Evaluations

Evaluations of quality assurance systems have been carried out in South Africa, Swaziland and Botswana. Tanzania is currently implementing a survey of the quality of VET and plans to distribute the findings on the quality of providers to the public. Difficulties in implementing some kinds of evaluation were noted. Employer satisfaction can be a valuable indicator of TVET quality and relevance. However, such surveys are difficult in Malawi due to rules that forbid TVET staff to make contact with private industries or to conduct outreach with former students working in private firms.

Practices to monitor and evaluate the status and performance of the quality assurance system are emergent in the region. Opportunities for regional peer learning could strengthen their use.

Exploring relationships between the status of the quality assurance systems and the NQF

Whilst no direct relationship can be drawn between the state of NQF development and the state of the TVET quality assurance system, broad patterns may be evident. This is explored in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5:
Stakeholder ratings for the status of the national quality assurance system and for the NQF

Country	Stakeholder rating for quality assurance system	Stakeholder rating for NQF	NQF development phase
DRC	1	2	Early phase
Swaziland	1	3	Early phase
Malawi	2	4	Vocational qualification framework (VQF)
Mozambique	2/3	3	Early phase VQF
Lesotho	3	3	Early phase
Namibia	3	3	NQF
Seychelles	3	3	NQF
South Africa	3	3	NQF
Botswana	4	3	VQF
Tanzania	4	4	VQF
Zambia	4	3	VQF
Zimbabwe	4	4	Early phase
Mauritius	5	5	NQF

Countries in the earliest stages of governance reform, which have not yet implemented quality assurance reforms and are just starting to consider development of NQFs, have tended to rate both their quality assurance and NQF development status at the lower end of the ordinal scale. This includes DRC and Swaziland, which consider NQF development to be further advanced than quality assurance reform. Stakeholders in Lesotho awarded their quality assurance system a 3 rating due to the quality assurance work that the TVD performs. However, the national consultant maintained a 2 rating based on the evidence presented across all sub-criteria proposed in the SADC monitoring tool.

In spite of the development of the TEVETA Qualifications Framework (TQF), Malawi gave a relatively low rating to the quality assurance system citing fragmentation and lack of coordination as a significant problem. It appears that the reforms being undertaken are not yet sufficiently embedded to make stakeholders move from a very cautious position regarding progress.

The countries that occupy the middle of the table in the quality assurance ratings are also in the middle of the table for NQFs. All are in the process of transition: Mozambique and Seychelles have both recently started to reform the quality assurance system in TVET, with the recent reorganization of technical colleges under the Ministry of Education and establishment of the SQA in Seychelles, and the early development of the QNQ in Mozambique. Namibia and South Africa, also in the middle of the table in spite of having initiated quality assurance reforms in the 1990s, are also in transition. In South Africa's case, a radical reform of the qualifications framework and quality assurance system is underway, whilst Namibia is still trying to implement elements of its first reforms. Lesotho's position in the table reflects stakeholders' particular observation that the TVD is responsible for quality assurance, and carries out this role.

Botswana and Zambia have well established TVET quality assurance systems and vocational frameworks, and have recently commenced the development of an over-arching qualifications framework.

Stakeholders in Mauritius, Zimbabwe and Tanzania view both the implementation of the NQF and the quality assurance systems positively, although only Mauritius has established a mature NQF at this stage. The quality assurance systems of the three countries are different; Mauritius has an NQF and a single quality assurance agency for TVET; Tanzania has a TVET qualifications framework with two quality assurance bodies, in TET and VET; and Zimbabwe has yet to finalise plans for a qualifications framework. The quality assurance system in Zimbabwe is decentralised with several agencies involved, and the Ministry of Education and HEXCO playing a major role. With the development of a framework based on a decentralised model, the inclusion of VTCs and private providers within a sector-wide quality assurance framework may face challenges similar to those in other SADC states.

Given the concern of qualification frameworks with quality assurance, it is not surprising that progress in reforms in these two areas are closely associated. However, the discussion above reveals that NQFs cannot, by themselves, bring about or ensure coherence in the quality assurance system. Inter-relationships between quality assurance reform and progress in qualification framework reform may require closer examination.

3.5.3   National TVET governance and coordination

As has been discussed earlier, national concerns to bring greater coordination to fragmented TVET sectors have been an important driver for TVET system reform in the SADC region. Yet, in spite of this long-standing focus on coordination, only two of the SADC member states that participated in this study rated their TVET governance system at 4 or 5. This means that 11 countries consider that implementation of their policies for TVET coordination and governance is in the early stages, or not yet progressing well.

Table 3.6:
How SADC member states rate their national TVET governance and coordination system

Country	Stake-holder rating	Justification
Malawi	2	Governance of TVET is clear although some challenges need to be addressed within and between the responsible agencies. A process to deal with this began in 2010 but it is still at an early stage.
South Africa	2	Given the state of transition resulting from the establishment of a single Ministry of Higher Education and Training, including the transfer of all related legislation, policy and strategy, a platform for the integration of skills development and FET (vocational) is being established for post-compulsory school young people and adults.
Seychelles	2	Whilst a commitment to coordination is expressed in policy documents, and has been strengthened by the restructuring of public further education and training institutions under the Ministry of Education, coordination of a single sector remains weak. The proposed Tertiary Education Council will strengthen coordination of public and private post secondary providers.
Botswana	3	Active steps are being taken to coordinate TVET and link planning to national skills development needs, but fragmentation of planning, quality assurance and delivery of training is still predominant, including within the Ministry of Education and Skills Development.
DRC	3	The Education Ministry (EPSP) strategy places responsibility for TVET within 6 ministries. The Interministerial Commission for TVET (CI-EFPT) has been established to coordinate reform of the TVET sector. Implementation of policies for coordination and governance of TVET is still in early stages.
Lesotho	3	Reviews to identify governance policy proposals have been carried out. All necessary bodies and structures are identified. Legal frameworks are not yet approved.
Mozambique	3	Under the PIREP, a component related to institutional development is rapidly developing to reform the governance structure of the training system and advance options for future reform of the system's financing and management. A number of documents have been drafted and are undergoing a process of extensive discussion and revision.
Namibia	3	Policies and bodies for the national governance and coordination of TVET are in place and implementation is underway. The NTA has the legal mandate for the overall governance and coordination of TVET. Public providers are being gradually shifted under the NTA rather than the Ministry of Education. However, there is still much work to be done to facilitate the coordination of training offered by other government ministries, parastatals, NGOs and private and foreign providers.
Swaziland	3	Policies for coordination and governance of TVET are in place and implementation is in the early stages. There is a draft Bill for TVET governance. The Vocational and Industrial Training Act of 1982 established the Industrial and Vocational Training Board (IVTB) and provides for apprenticeships and trade testing. An Education Sector Strategic Plan has been developed in line with the Education Sector Policy, which is in its final stages and includes a chapter on TVET.
Zanzibar	3	Policy and legislation are in place. A quality assurance agency for VET was established in 2009 and has begun to regulate and coordinate TVET in Zanzibar. However, there is no mechanism for the coordination of TET, for VET with TET, or for TVET provision across all relevant ministries.
Zambia	3	Policies for coordination and governance are in place, but TVET in Zambia is yet to develop and establish strong and sustainable linkages with the private sector. Coordination across ministries, sectors and professional and trade associations need to be strengthened.
Zimbabwe	3	An agency responsible for TVET has been identified, national strategy exists, and bodies are responsible for implementation of TVET; the key aspect of coordination has been identified and is being addressed. However, bodies responsible for coordination do not have sufficient capacity to fulfil all their functions.

Country	Stake-holder rating	Justification
Tanzania	4	Policy and legislation for governance of TVET sector are in place. Quality assurance agencies for TVET are in place, and have 12 years' experience in coordination of TET and VET, and of assuring quality of provision by public and private providers. Even so the sector remains fragmented and continues to face challenges for coordinating TVET offered by other ministries. A new department of TVET has been formed in the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, and a new TVET policy has been released.
Mauritius	5	A mature system of governance. Regulatory, facilitator and provider roles are clearly demarcated and distinct, and separate institutions have been set up to fulfil each of the roles, under the overall aegis of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources. Each institution is still evolving towards its full maturity.

It is clear from national monitoring reports that coordination of the TVET sector remains a concern for most SADC member states, with the establishment of a governance body responsible for TVET coordination as a common policy response. Although the SADC monitoring tool takes a rating of 3 on this indicator to mean in 'early phase of implementation', countries that awarded a 3 rating were at different stages of implementation. It may be questioned, for instance, whether Malawi, which undertook governance reforms in the 1990s, should be rated below Zanzibar, Lesotho and Swaziland, where reforms are in an earlier phase and implementation of key governance roles is not yet institutionalised. Whilst these are methodological questions (which are noted in Chapter 2 and considered in more detail in the separate report on the piloting of the monitoring tool), it remains the case that even countries that began reforming their TVET governance system almost 20 years ago are tentative about how well implementation is progressing.

Phases of governance reform

Amongst the 13 SADC countries, three phases of reform may be distinguished. As has been noted at a number of points in this report already, TVET reforms throughout the region, and in all phases, have been driven by concerns to create a national TVET sector responsive to labour market demand and able to drive the development of skills needed for economic growth and development. What may have changed over the phases is the emphasis given to the governance mechanisms deployed.

During the 1990s, governance reforms were characterised by the establishment of national TVET agencies. These agencies were set up to address the fragmentation of TVET across different institutions; to encourage coherence within the TVET sector; and to improve the quality and relevance of TVET provision, thereby strengthening the 'outputs' of the TVET system. The reforms were often associated with policies to decentralise governance of the public TVET system, and to include public and private providers in the service of skills development. Most TVET agencies had an explicit role to include private and/or enterprise-based providers within the TVET system. In many cases, the establishment of TVET agencies was associated with the repeal of Apprenticeship and Industry Training Acts of the 1970s and 1980s. SADC member states that established new TVET agencies in the 1990s include Botswana, Malawi, Tanzania and Zambia.

The second wave of reforms also began in the 1990s, but gained momentum in the following decade. This has led to the establishment of authorities responsible for the coordination and governance of national qualifications, as detailed above. With Namibia and South Africa as early starters in the mid-1990s, countries in the SADC region that carried out such reforms during the 2000s include Mauritius and Seychelles. Mozambique and Swaziland also began to consider governance reform in the early part of the century. Whilst Mozambique's governance reform strategy was passed in 2001, implementation only began in 2006, and focused less on qualifications framework reform than in Seychelles and South Africa. Swaziland finalised its draft policy in 2010. The proposals include the establishment of a national TVET agency and a national qualifications authority.

In the past decade, governance reforms continued to involve the establishment of TVET agencies and qualifications authorities. However, two additional moves may also be evident. First, there is a greater emphasis on Human Resource Development Councils (HRDCs) that seek to articulate TVET with the wider education sector. Second, there is a renewed consideration of the authority of the state. Such shifts may be evident in recent debates in countries that carried out initial reforms in the 1990s, notably Botswana and South Africa. SADC member states that have begun reforming governance structures most recently include DRC, Lesotho and Zimbabwe. As happened in Swaziland, reforms in Lesotho are taking time to be finalised.

Approaches to governance reform

Governance reforms since the 1990s have involved the establishment of TVET authorities to strengthen coordination across a diversity of forms of TVET provision, sometimes including both public and private provision. Traditionally, responsibility for TVET was fragmented across different ministries, with separate governance of training for areas such as forestry, health, agriculture and tourism, whilst training offered by private providers, NGOs and workplaces was often not regulated. TVET agencies have been established by many SADC member states as 'intermediary institutions', usually managed by boards comprised of representatives of national TVET stakeholders. This may include relevant government departments, employers, private providers, NGOs and social partners.

Although several countries have established TVET governance agencies, their roles, responsibilities and domains within which they operate, differ. In Namibia, Tanzania and Zambia, the established TVET agency is acknowledged as being responsible for sector coordination across public and private TVET provision. In Botswana and Malawi, the agency coordinates private and enterprise-based provision only (whilst the state retains responsibility for coordinating TVET in the public sector). In Mauritius, the MITD coordinates training in the public sector whilst coordination of private sector training is achieved through the HRD Council and MQA. Sector-wide coordination agencies are proposed for Swaziland and Mozambique.

A number of intermediary TVET agencies were established in South Africa to coordinate skills development in a specific economic sector.

Table 3.7:
TVET agencies and governance roles

Country	National TVET agency established	Sector coordination	Quality assurance	Management of skills fund
Botswana	BOTA	Private and enterprise-based TVET	Private and enterprise-based TVET	X
Malawi	TEVETA	Employer and informal TVET	Employer and informal TVET	X
Mauritius	MITD	Public sector	X (public sector)	
Mozambique	ANEP National Authority for Vocational Education (proposed)	X		
Namibia	NTA	X	X	X
Seychelles	TEC Tertiary Education Commission (proposed)	X		
South Africa	SETAs	Economic sector	Occupational qualifications in an economic sector	X (in sector)
Swaziland	SWATA (proposed)	X		
Tanzania	VETA	Public and private (levels 1-3)	Levels 1-3	X
	NACTE	Public and private (levels 4-10)	Levels 4-10	X
Zambia	TEVETA	Public and private	X	No fund

Zimbabwe, DRC and Lesotho currently lack such institutions or have only developed plans for their introduction.

As the table indicates, the specific functions of TVET agencies differ in detail, but most have also been tasked with governance responsibilities for ensuring the quality and relevance of TVET within their area of responsibility. These functions may include:

- strategic planning for the TVET sector, including development of national skills plans
- monitoring the performance of TVET in the sector
- regulation of providers through registration and inspection

- quality assurance of TVET provision
- accreditation of TVET programmes and providers
  - setting national standards
  - awarding qualifications and conducting examinations
  - registering assessors and trainers
- management of TVET funds
- developing training pathways and programmes
- curriculum development and review
- promoting access to TVET, in line with national priorities, for example SM(M)Es, marginalised learners.

Whilst the data provided by the monitoring reports are not comprehensive, the reports suggest that TVET authorities have been mandated to carry out many of the governance responsibilities listed above. Key differences appear to lie in the following areas:

- degree of autonomy from the state
- the areas of TVET for which the agency is responsible
- the extent to which the agency is responsible for governance of public provision
- the extent to which the agency is responsible for quality assurance of TVET qualifications
- whether the agency is mandated to deliver TVET programmes.

Established as intermediary agencies, the autonomy of TVET authorities differ. Those that claim a large degree of autonomy include TEVETA in Malawi and the MITD in Mauritius. In contrast, TEVETA in Zambia is regarded as semi-autonomous. In some monitoring reports, difficulties in implementing the authorities' mandate were associated with challenges concerning levels of autonomy. For example, in Malawi, TEVETA is viewed as being closer to the private sector than the state, something that is interpreted by some as evidence of autonomy, whereas it is questioned by others. In contrast, the Zambian monitoring report noted that TEVETA's links with the private sector needed to be strengthened, as did coordination between ministries.

TVET agencies in the SADC region differ depending on the type and level of TVET sector in which they are to perform their governance role. In South Africa, SETAs are responsible for skills development in workplaces in a specific economic sector. They govern skills development at all levels of the NQF. In Botswana, BOTA is responsible for governance of enterprise-based TVET provision but not to the level of technician. In Tanzania, NACTE is responsible for governance of post-secondary technical education in the Mainland and Zanzibar, whereas VETA is responsible for all post-primary vocational education and training in the Mainland and VTA in Zanzibar.

The agencies also differ in the extent to which they are responsible for the governance of public and/or private provision, how this role is shared with the state, and which governance roles should be performed. Some agencies may perform all governance roles in either public or private provision. Others may perform one set of governance tasks for public provision but another combination of tasks for private providers. For example, the MITD in Mauritius is responsible for the governance of public TVET provision only; private provision is governed by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources (in terms of registration) and by the MQA (in terms of accreditation). The MQA governs accreditation in both public and private provision. In Seychelles, responsibility for governance of public post-secondary TVET currently lies entirely with the Ministry of Education, Employment and Human Resources. However, the proposed Tertiary Education Commission will coordinate public and private TVET provision. TEVETA in Malawi and BOTA in Botswana both focus on private employer-based and non-formal TVET. In contrast, NACTE and VETA in Tanzania govern both public and private provision. In South Africa, governance of private FET providers is split between registration carried out by the Department of Higher Education and Training, and accreditation to deliver qualifications by the relevant awarding bodies, Umalusi and the SETAs. Accreditation of private provision in Namibia falls under the NTA but there has been limited progress in implementing this.

Many of the TVET authorities are also responsible for quality assurance of TVET, or at least for some TVET qualifications. In Botswana, BOTA is the quality assurance body for private and non-formal provision. Under the current arrangements in South Africa, SETAs remain responsible for the quality assurance of skills development qualifications. TEVETA (Malawi), TEVETA (Zambia), NTA (Namibia) and NACTE and VETA (Tanzania) each perform quality assurance roles.

National TVET agencies differ also in terms of their mandate to deliver TVET programmes. For example, MITD in Mauritius and VETA in Tanzania have training centres and are responsible for a large proportion of TVET provision. In contrast,

TEVETA in Malawi and NACTE in Tanzania do not offer training, and provide regulatory oversight only. In Namibia, the public vocational training centres have been transferred from the Ministry of Education to NTA jurisdiction.

Very few of the national monitoring reports provided evidence of independent assessments of the performance of TVET coordination bodies. Whilst the monitoring reports point to progress by the TVET agencies in implementing designated governance functions, several reports identified challenges to effective governance of the TVET sector. Several reported that in spite of the establishment of TVET agencies, coordination continued to be a problem, notably in countries where the TVET agency had been established in parallel to (and not integrated with, as might be seen in Mauritius) ongoing governance of public providers by the state. In Botswana, the Botswana Training Authority (BTA) was unable to bridge the divide between public and private TVET provision, and the Department of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (DTVET) continued to be responsible for public TVET provision, policymaking and governance. The functions of the newly established structure in Mozambique, COREP, seem to overlap with the role of DINET (National Directorate of Technical Education) and INEFP (National Employment Institute of Vocational Training) in the TVET governance system. In Malawi, TEVETA's coordination role does not appear to be unanimously accepted by all major ministerial stakeholders, with parallel initiatives of standard and curriculum development and examination regulations implemented by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, and the Ministry of Labour.

Several country reports noted that whilst structures and strategies were in place, implementation was constrained by management and human resource capacity limitations within the governance bodies, for example, in the public sector in Malawi, amongst stakeholder bodies in South Africa and within the HRDC in Seychelles. Some agencies do not have sufficient capacity to fulfil all their functions, for example, HEXCO in Zimbabwe.

In some SADC countries, TVET stakeholder boards have been established as advisory bodies, enabling stakeholders to influence TVET sector development, rather than having a strong governance responsibility. These tend to have their origins in Industry and Vocational Training Boards established prior to the reforms of the 1990s, which were responsible for apprenticeships and trade tests only. In Lesotho, the Industrial and Vocational Training Board, established under the Lesotho Technical and Vocational Training Act of 1982, advises the Minister of Education on all matters relating to TVET. At present, it is the only stakeholder body in the sector, as further governance reforms have not yet been implemented. In South Africa, the National Skills Authority (which arose out of the earlier National Training Board) is responsible for advising the Minister of Higher Education and Training on skills development and comprises representatives from national government departments, organized business, organized labour, community constituencies (women, young people and people with disabilities), providers, the quality councils and SAQA. The National Manpower and Development Advisory Council (NAMACO) serves an advisory role to the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe.

In recent years, TVET systems in the SADC region have witnessed the emergence of human resources development (HRD) councils as a means of coordinating skills development in line with national priorities. These councils fall into two categories. On the one hand, there are HRD councils that are advisory bodies made up of social partners and experts, and established to facilitate the development of HRD strategies and plans, and to monitor their implementation. South Africa, Mauritius and Seychelles have established advisory HRD councils of this kind.

In their second form, HRD councils are also taking on a stronger governance role, linked to greater centralisation of the TVET system. The forthcoming National Human Resources Development Council in Botswana will absorb most of the functions of the Botswana Training Authority and the Tertiary Education Council, and will report to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development. It is intended to address the current situation of uncoordinated sub-systems in education and training, which are insufficiently supported by system-level information, in order to strengthen the match between the demand of the labour market and the supply of graduates. A new sector-based approach is being developed for all levels of human resources development, with no specific mechanism for TVET.

Several SADC countries have developed HRD strategies as mechanisms for coordinating skills development and linking TVET to labour market and economic demands, including Botswana, Mauritius and South Africa. HRD strategies are proposed in Zimbabwe and Seychelles. National Skills Development Strategies have been developed in South Africa, Zimbabwe and Zambia, and Sector Skills Plans are produced by SETAs in South Africa, whilst Botswana has had the Labour Market Observatory.

Most recently, processes of policy reform have been associated with moves to bring the whole TVET sector under a single ministry. In Mauritius, responsibility for the TVET sector falls with the Ministry of Education and Human Resources to ensure overall coordination at the national level. In South Africa, the newly formed Department of Higher Education and Training is required to create a single and coherent post-school education and training system, bringing together

vocational education and skills development. In Tanzania, in spite of the expectation that the national agencies NACTE and VETA would coordinate the VET and TET sectors respectively, problems in coordination and efficiency persist as these bodies still lack an effective mechanism for coordinating TVET institutions which are under ownership of other ministries. To address these challenges and enhance coordination, the Government of Tanzania has established a new department of TVET in the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training with both NACTE and VETA now under one government ministry. In Seychelles, all post-secondary TVET providers (except one) are now under a single Education Ministry. Furthermore, in 2010, the Ministry of Education became the Ministry of Education, Employment and Human Resources, with a view to strengthening the link between education and national manpower needs. The role of the state in governance of TVET remains strong in Zimbabwe, where the Ministry for Higher and Tertiary Education is the line ministry for the TVET sector.

Table 3.8 summarises TVET governance mechanisms that have been implemented within the SADC region through TVET reform.

Table 3.8:
Mechanisms for governance of TVET in the SADC region

	TVET Advisory Board	TVET Authority	NQA for NQF	TVET QA body	Exam Board	Ministry involved in QA of TVET	Levy	HRDC
Botswana		BOTA		BOTA		X	X	Proposed
DRC	Commission				INPP	X		
Lesotho	IVTB					X		
Malawi		TEVETA		TEVETA		X	X	
Mauritius		MITD	MQA				X	X
Mozambique	Commission	ANEP proposed						
Namibia		NTA	NQA			X	X	
Seychelles		TEC proposed	SQA			X		X
South Africa	NSB		SAQA	SETAs	Umalusi		X	X
Swaziland	IVTB	SWATA proposed	NTQA proposed					
Tanzania		VETA NACTE VTA		VETA NACTE VTA			X	
Zambia		TEVETA		TEVETA				
Zimbabwe	NAMACO		ZIMEQ Prop		HEXCO ZIMSEC		X	

Note: the X denotes that the country does have that particular mechanism

3.5.4   Institutional governance

Throughout the SADC region, TVET is delivered by a range of different types of provider including technical schools, technical colleges, polytechnics, vocational training centres, NGOs, training companies and enterprises. Governance of different kinds of providers varies, reflecting different institutional cultures, different forms of ownership (public, private, grant-aided, church, community) and forms of provision (formal and non-formal TVET). As well as being diverse in nature, institutional governance practices are changing in response to national TVET governance reforms. In many contexts, governance reforms have differing consequences for different providers, in particular for public and private providers.

As well as changing the macro-institutional landscape, governance reforms in the SADC region are changing the relationships between the state and individual TVET provider institutions, and with this, providers' internal governance practices. Even so, the monitoring reports suggest that provider governance practices may not be changing as far as the

policy pronouncements claim, and that some new practices appear to be having unintended, negative consequences for quality.

Governance reforms in several SADC countries, including Mauritius, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Malawi and Tanzania (in the TET sector) involve stated policy commitments to greater autonomy and decentralisation in the governance of public TVET providers. In most, the policies state that TVET institutions will be managed by management boards with representation from relevant stakeholders, including from the private sector. Boards may be responsible for governance in a range of areas, including planning, budgeting, programme choice, staffing and learner enrolments. In turn, accountability to national priorities is achieved through reporting to national TVET structures and specific government departments. From the data available in national contexts, it is difficult to assess the extent to which decision-making is decentralised, the capacity of institutions to implement governance practices, and the national capacity for monitoring and ensuring accountability. To some extent, reports reflect stakeholder perceptions of the status of institutional governance.

In Mauritius, decentralisation policies have been translated into institutional practice. Public provider institutions have a large degree of autonomy in their day-to-day management. Institutions are autonomous in the recruitment of staff and the allocation of resources through their respective boards of administration; they are free to decide on the courses to be offered; and may establish partnerships with industries. All public TVET providers report to the MITD, which carries out annual monitoring and evaluates the efficiency and effectiveness of all its training centres against key performance indicators and targets. All programmes must be accredited by the MQA and assessment standards are specified by awarding bodies.

Although national policy indicates an intention to decentralise TVET in Lesotho, there are only two public TVET institutions, one of which still reports directly to Ministry of Education. The other, a polytechnic, is more autonomous and has an institutional board. TVET institutions in Lesotho are able to design curricula and award their own certificates. However, this has given rise to a range of certificates that vary in level and quality, and a need for greater coordination of qualifications and their quality assurance.

Institutional governance of FET colleges in South Africa is currently provided for under an Act (of 2006) that suggests increased institutional autonomy through appointed college councils, which have responsibility for institutional management, staffing, programme planning and budgeting and learner enrolments. However, decentralised autonomy is limited in some areas, and full institutional autonomy has not been achieved. The principal and two deputy principals of the colleges are appointed by the provincial Department of Education, and the principal reports to the Head of Department of the provincial Department of Education. The colleges' plans and budgets are submitted to and approved by the national Department of Higher Education and Training. Curricula, formal assessment and certification are also the responsibility of the national DHET. The DHET funds the colleges through the provincial Education Department budgets' ring-fenced funding for National Certificate (Vocational) programmes. Furthermore, recent national policy discussions have included calls for the DHET to be the employer of all college staff again, suggesting that forms of recentralisation may take place. Therefore, institutional governance is very much in transition in South Africa.

In terms of programme offerings, current policy discussions in South Africa and Botswana are examining greater decentralisation. In South Africa, a differentiated model of FET colleges is being considered to support improved relevance of TVET curricula to national development needs and local economic opportunities. Under 'differentiation' each college will be distinguished by its individual programmes and qualifications mix, which may differ from other colleges in terms of the range and level of programmes offered and the numbers of students enrolled, in response to various national and local factors including:

- geographical location of the college
- local labour market
- communities served by the college
- links with higher education
- regional and national growth and development plans and HRD strategies
- capacity of the college to offer particular programmes, as determined by the relevant Quality Council or other quality assurer
- accreditation as trade test centres for 16 national priority trades identified in 2006.

In Botswana, the current rationalisation of technical colleges and brigades aims for public providers to offer programmes which best match their resources, geographical location and community livelihood, in order to create more efficiency in programme delivery.

In both Botswana and South Africa, tendencies to decentralise responsibility for programme selection exist in tension with tendencies towards recentralising institutional management.

All vocational training centres in Namibia are supposed to become autonomous, under the overall regulation of the National Training Authority. However, this has only been implemented in two institutions thus far. It is intended that assessment and curriculum development will remain national functions. The network of Community Skills Development Centres (COSDECs) are partly state-funded but operate under a national NGO, the COSDEC Foundation, and are managed by local boards of trustees.

Several reports note that institutional capacity for decentralised governance remains weak. Several country reports, including those from South Africa, Mozambique and Tanzania, acknowledge weaknesses in the management capacity of providers and note that steps are being taken to address this problem. Capacity weaknesses may be evident at council and/or management level.

In other reports, the capacity of national structures to ensure accountability by providers is also acknowledged to be weak, for example in Lesotho. Weaknesses in institutional capacity within the macro-institutional landscape undermine decentralisation in a range of ways. For example, in Malawi, colleges are free to offer any trade from the 28 prescribed by the National Trade Test. However, as the NTT only has capacity to examine eight trades, almost all public technical colleges have limited their regular course menu to the eight courses that NTT can examine.

Greater decentralisation has brought new challenges in Malawi. As well as responsibility for programme selection, staff management and student affairs, college principals now have the authority to recruit students and set fee levels, and to use income generated in this way for staff incentives. This has led to a significant increase in recruitment of so-called 'parallel students' with consequent impact on the quality of provision due to significantly increased student numbers.

In a few SADC countries, governance of public providers remains highly centralised, including in Swaziland, Seychelles and Botswana. Matters relating to staffing (recruitment, appointment and promotions), to finances (budget allocations and expenditure) and to programmes (curricula) are predetermined by the relevant ministry and decisions are often communicated by circulars and directives.

In Botswana, highly centralised governance of public TVET providers is viewed as beneficial, given the relatively generous budgets and comparatively high government salaries. Furthermore, the centralisation of governance of public providers has strengthened with the recent incorporation of the brigades into the public system as public technical colleges and public training institutions, in response to criticisms of poor governance and financial oversight of the brigades by the village committees. The brigades are now governed directly by the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MoESD) and managed through an appointed principal and senior management team. Even so, the centralisation of the brigades has slowed down due to limited budget and staffing allocations.

In Seychelles, post-secondary institutions currently fall under the Department of Education. The Technical and Further Education Division is responsible for institutional planning, allocation and coordination of resources, curriculum and assessment. Institutions report annually on operational matters such as staffing, student enrolment, infrastructure, and courses through Technical and Further Education Annual Reports. Public TVET institutions have advisory boards which are primarily responsible for strengthening links between the technical training provider and the relevant industry sector. However, the effectiveness of advisory boards has been questioned. The proposed Tertiary Education Act advocates greater autonomy from the Department and decentralised governance for post-secondary TVET providers.

The highly centralised governance of public TVET institutions is also being called into question in Swaziland, where it is perceived to be stifling programme innovation and institutional ownership. Consequently, recent policy proposals (emanating from the World Bank) advocate greater institutional autonomy in order to improve institutional performance and to create a demand-driven system. Alongside decentralisation, a coordinating governance structure, the Swaziland Training Authority, is proposed. However, the Swaziland monitoring report points to a range of weaknesses in capacity, including in institutional planning, financial management, curriculum and programme design, and assessment. As noted above, capacity weaknesses have been demonstrated to undermine the implementation of decentralisation in other SADC countries.

In Zimbabwe, governance of public TVET providers is regulated by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, and although national policies do not pronounce decentralisation of public providers, some limited autonomy is provided for, in examinations and staff affairs, programme selection, fundraising and some procurement. The college advisory committee advises on programme selection, and on fundraising. Public providers have autonomy over funds generated through their own income generating activities. Curriculum design is centralised through HEXCO.

In some SADC member states, for example Mauritius, Zambia and Tanzania, agencies established to coordinate TVET have authority to deliver TVET programmes. In Mauritius, TVET providers falling under the MITD are perceived to be relatively autonomous, whilst in Tanzania, the degree of decentralisation is reported as more ambiguous and difficult to assess. VETA's combined roles of regulator, provider and TVET fund manager make it more difficult to realistically assess the level of autonomy of its training centres. Even TVET providers that are not public providers tend to lack institutional capacity for autonomous governance and are reliant on VETA/VTA. Autonomy of providers is limited further by the role of Regional Vocational Training and Service Centres (RVTSCs), which are owned by VETA and act as centres for system development in respective regions. These select trainees in accordance with trade standards and admission requirements as approved by the VET Board.

TVET policy in Zambia points towards greater decentralisation of public provision, through the establishment of independent management boards for public training institutions. However, in practice, these providers continue to rely on approval from the relevant parent ministry in key governance areas, including fees and staff remuneration. TEVETA plays a governance role in the areas of quality assurance only.

In Malawi, decentralisation of public providers is somewhat in tension with the coordinating role of TEVETA. Although TEVETA is not involved in the delivery of programmes, it continues to be responsible for recruitment and partial sponsorship of 'TEVETA residential students'. TEVETA also requires colleges to enrol and train students with different levels of formal education.

TVET agencies have often been established within the context of reforms for greater decentralisation of public provision. However, in cases where TVET agencies are also providers, tendencies towards decentralised autonomy of providers co-exist with centralising governance by the agency. As noted in Tananzania, making an assessment of the state of institutional governance may be difficult.

Private providers

A striking theme in TVET reforms across the region for the past 20 years has been a shared commitment to incorporating private providers into national TVET sectors. TVET policies provide a range of motivations, including the need to raise the quality of all provision; to ensure that provision is relevant; to improve labour market opportunities; to satisfy economic needs; and to increase access to TVET through partnerships. In some SADC countries, notably Mozambique and Tanzania, the introduction of a market economy in the 1980s allowed for the establishment of private TVET providers, a new development which governments wished to regulate. In most SADC member states, national governance reforms have sought to strengthen relationships between private (or non-state) TVET providers and the state through regulation and coordination. Of particular importance has been the establishment of intermediary TVET agencies responsible for governance across public and private sectors. The incorporation of private providers into a national system has been implemented through registration of private providers to ensure they meet material conditions necessary for the delivery of TVET programmes; accreditation of private providers to deliver programmes leading to national qualifications (encouraged by the advent of NQFs); and assurance of the quality and relevance of programmes. Skills levies have been implemented in some countries as strategies to fund TVET provision, including by private providers, and are sometimes used for interventions that strengthen the capacity of private providers.

However, little data exist on the impact that the incorporation of private providers into national TVET sectors has had on internal governance practices of institutions. Governance capacity of private providers varies; for example, in Tanzania (which has only recently liberalised a market in private TVET provision), non-state providers tend to have weak management capacity. In contrast, the DRC report notes that some NGOs and private providers of international origin offer programmes of a higher quality and relevance than public providers. Greater labour market relevance is also noted for the TVET programmes offered by private providers in Swaziland.

The quality of private provision is variable, although sector-wide qualifications frameworks and quality assurance are working towards standardising quality across public and private TVET. SADC countries that have not yet implemented sector-wide qualifications frameworks reported that little is known about the quality of private provision. In Swaziland,

private providers are not required to seek accreditation for programmes, and the quality of provision is considered to be highly variable. Stakeholders appear to have more confidence in the quality of accredited provision where quality assurance agencies are also responsible for private providers. For example, a rating of 4 was awarded to the quality assurance system in Zimbabwe partly due to its inclusion of private providers. However, South Africa, with established quality assurance bodies in TVET, noted that the large number of private providers presents challenges for effective quality assurance of provision.

SADC countries report that private providers continue to have greater autonomy when compared to public providers in terms of institutional management, planning, implementation and funding. Private providers may also have greater autonomy over programme design and links to industry needs (for example, in Botswana). Several countries (e.g. Botswana, Malawi, Swaziland and Zimbabwe) noted a predominance amongst private providers to offer programmes directed towards particular commercial occupations (for example, accounts, business, commerce and IT), commenting that these programmes require lower levels of investment and offer better returns. In Botswana, much enterprise-based training is found to take place in the services sector, e.g., customer services and care (BOTA, 2006).

3.5.5   The role of industry

TVET reforms across the SADC region are driven by a strong concern to ensure training is responsive to, and relevant for, labour market and industry needs. Forging closer links with industry is advocated at both national and provider institutional levels, and across a wide range of activities, from policy development to implementation; and from setting national standards based on occupational profiles to work placements as part of a training programme. Table 3.9 summarises stakeholders' perceptions of the extent to which industry is involved in the national TVET system, and in which TVET areas industry is reportedly active.

Table 3.9:
Stakeholder perceptions of industry's role in TVET in order of stakeholder rating

Country	Stakeholder rating	Stakeholder view of extent of employer engagement	Policy making	Standards and curricula	Monitoring and evaluation	Funding	Work placements	Providers
DRC	2	Low involvement		X				Not involved
Lesotho	2	Legislation in place but no evidence of involvement					X	Not involved in governance
Seychelles	2	Limited role		X			X Apprenticeships	On boards, limited effectiveness
Botswana	3	Significant and formalised xx Not formalised X	X	xx	X	xx	X	Limited
Malawi	3	Quite high, especially role in TEVETA	X	X		X	X	Infrastructure and equipment
Mozambique	3	Good involvement	X	X	X	X	X	Not yet reported
Namibia	3	Legislated or in draft form	X	X		X		
South Africa	3	Significant and formalised	X	X	X	X	X	
Swaziland	3	Legislated		X			Some employers	Involved in assessment Not involved in providers
Zanzibar	3	Involved in VTA		X		X	X	
Zambia	3	Involvement in TEVETA		X			X	Larger public institutions

Country	Stakeholder rating	Stakeholder view of extent of employer engagement	Policy making	Standards and curricula	Monitoring and evaluation	Funding	Work placements	Providers
Tanzania	4	Involved in governance bodies	X	X		X	X	Involved in assessment and provider governance through regional body
Mauritius	5	At all levels	X	X	X	X	X	On boards
Zimbabwe	5	Significant and formalised involvement	X	X	X	X	X	High. Participate in college advisory committees

Most countries experience significant and formalised employer engagement at either provider or national levels in at least some of the areas in which employer engagement is often advocated. In most of these countries, employer engagement is predominantly seen at the national level, and in some activities at provider level (for example in work placements, or assessment).

Difficulties in providing evidence-based ratings are evident with this indicator. Countries that may be viewed as having quite different levels of employer engagement within systems with quite different institutional structures (for example, South Africa and Swaziland) share a common rating. This possibly reflects stakeholder perceptions of employer involvement in some – but not most – of the areas suggested in the indicator. However, it also reflects a significant lack of research data available in almost all SADC member states that seeks to evaluate and measure involvement (including lack of systematic data on work placements). It may also reflect a 'national mood' (of either relative optimism or pessimism) about the current state of employer involvement. For example, in Swaziland, the fact that some employers are involved in apprenticeships provided sufficient motivation for a more positive rating than for countries facing similar challenges with industry involvement (such as Lesotho). In South Africa, a concern that employers are less involved in the TVET sector than they might be (and have been in the relatively recent past) has given rise to a less positive grading than might be awarded after comparison with some of its neighbours. Without subtantive research in this area, monitoring reports can do little more than make subjective assessments.

In a small group of SADC countries, national stakeholders view industry involvement as being very limited: Lesotho, DRC and Seychelles. Although the importance of industry involvement is acknowledged, each of these countries is in an early stage of systemic reform. Seychelles plans to establish a Tertiary Education Council with employer representation, and a coordination structure has been established in DRC. In contrast, Lesotho already has a tripartite body (the Industrial and Vocational Training Board) established under the 1982 Industry and Training Act. However, employer involvement in the body is described as 'minimal'.

A second small group, Mauritius, Zimbabwe and Tanzania, report high levels of industry involvement in a range of areas at provider and national levels. In Mauritius and Zimbabwe, this involvement is aided by governance bodies that include employer/industry participation at both national and provider levels. Both country reports emphasise the extent of industry engagement at the provider level, in particular through industry's participation in provider management bodies, and its support to the implementation/delivery of TVET programmes (for example, through work placements, advice on programmes, provision of assessors and even part-time instructors, and of materials).

SADC member states with national TVET bodies that include employer engagement generally report greater employer participation in TVET policymaking and in the development of implementation strategies. These include Mauritius (MITD), Malawi (TEVETA), Botswana (BOTA), South Africa (SETAs, NSA, HRDC), Tanzania (VETA/NACTE), Zambia (TEVETA) and Zimbabwe (NAMACO and HEXCO).

Although less attention is paid in the reports to employer involvement in monitoring and evaluation roles of national TVET structures, employers are involved in monitoring the implementation of national skills development strategies and HRD strategies in South Africa, for example. In a few SADC countries, for example Tanzania, employers are represented in teams that carry out institutional inspections for registration/accreditation.

A second key area of employer involvement is in the development of national standards and curriculum development. In some countries, employers are involved in setting standards with one agency and advising on curricula with another. Evident from the reports is that qualification reform has opened up sites for employer engagement in TVET.

Industry is involved in both standard setting and curriculum reform in:

- Botswana [in both BOTA (standards setting task forces) and MoEST (curriculum development groups)];
- DRC (the Interministerial Commission for TVET developed new training curricula through the Technical Commission for the Development of Standards);
- Mauritius (MQA standard setting, and MITD curriculum advice and validation);
- Malawi (TEVETA advisory groups);
- Mozambique (the sectoral technical committees developed and validated qualifications and curricula);
- Namibia (industry skills committees have begun to be developed under the 2008 VET Act);
- South Africa (through standard setting in national standards bodies, and qualifications councils and consultation on curricula);
- Tanzania (standard setting and curriculum development by VETA and NACTE);
- Zambia (TEVETA committees on standards and curricula); and
- Zimbabwe (HEXCO).

However, the national concern for industry engagement with TVET can lead to duplication and increasing demands on employers. In Botswana, five different national agencies are reported to be 'engaging with employers to develop standards'. Perhaps unsurprisingly, in some SADC countries, employer engagement is considered to be on the decline. For example, in Malawi, the trade advisory groups have been dormant for some time.

Although industry has been actively involved in the development of standards in several SADC countries, this is not the case in all. Employer involvement in establishing national standards and curricula is reported to be weak in Lesotho and Swaziland, and only beginning to develop in Namibia.

Employer contributions to national skills funds through the payment of levies are recognised as a significant contribution to the funding of TVET, for example in Botswana, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa and Tanzania (see also Section 3.5.5.). Employers also contribute to funding of TVET through funding their own enterprise-based training. However, in many SADC countries, employers additionally contribute towards public TVET provision through donating materials and machinery, through building infrastructure and supporting human resources development for staff (e.g. Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique and Tanzania). As noted in Section 3.5, quantifying employer involvement in funding TVET is complicated, given the internal investments made through enterprise-based training and through investment in kind.

In several countries, employer involvement in apprenticeships and learnerships is a significant contribution to funding TVET. Apprenticeship and learnership schemes are structured contractual agreements between employers, a provider and the state in which learners are employed and paid by the employer and gain (often high quality) training towards a formal qualification that is delivered both at college and in the work place. Industry involvement through apprenticeships is evident in Mauritius, South Africa and Mozambique.

However, some countries, such as Malawi, find that employers are not able to provide sufficient places for apprenticeship training, and that national targets for apprenticeship training cannot be met. Shortages of apprenticeships in industry arise from the current economic downturn; companies not seeing themselves as training grounds; concerns about possible student damage to equipment; and lack of adequate equipment for training to revised curricula. In Swaziland, employers' concerns include contractual obligations and current economic conditions. Difficulties in implementing apprenticeships in Botswana are viewed to be due to a lack of interaction between TVET providers and employers offering placements, rather than lack of employer engagement per se.

In addition to the structured learning opportunities of apprenticeships and learnerships, industry placements are also offered as less structured learner 'attachments'. In some cases, the placements are required as part of the accreditation conditions of the programme, for example in technical education programmes in Tanzania, and in TVET programmes in Botswana. Several countries noted difficulties in finding sufficient placements in industry, for example in the hotel industry in Tanzania and Zanzibar, and more generally in Botswana. Employers, however, participate in assessment of TVET in several SADC countries, including Mauritius, Tanzania and Swaziland.

The extent of employer involvement in rural areas is generally low, or unknown. Most monitoring reports noted a lack of information about employer engagement in rural areas, making reporting difficult. Some, including Botswana and

Zambia, observed that employer involvement in TVET is far more limited in rural areas than in urban centres. However, where large employers are concentrated in rural areas, employer involvement in TVET is evident, for example in sugar and tea estates in Malawi and in mines in Zambia. Mobile training workshops are used to reach rural areas in the construction industry in Botswana.

Most training in the informal economy takes place through employers, reflecting the nature of informal work. As Section 3.1.2. indicates, there is uneven formal interest in TVET for the informal economy across the SADC region. In some cases, such as Malawi, South Africa and Zambia, there has been some involvement of TVET agencies in the informal economy. However, overall engagement with informal economy employers has tended to be limited, certainly when compared to experiences in West Africa.

Whilst most SADC countries can report to some extent on the presence or absence of employer engagement at national and provider levels, the quality and impact of employer engagement is largely unknown.

3.5.6   Management information systems

National TVET management information systems (MIS) are not well developed across the SADC region. The lack of systemic collection and aggregation of data presents severe challenges for monitoring the developmental status and performance of national TVET systems. The table below presents the ratings awarded by stakeholders in SADC countries on the state of the national TVET MIS, and the main reasons given for awarding the rating score.

Table 3.10:
Status of TVET MIS in SADC countries as rated by stakeholders

Country	Stake-holder Rating	Justification and information
DRC	1	EMIS based on statistical surveys. No specific data on TVET published in annual reports.
Seychelles	1	TVET data in EMIS minimal. Data on post-secondary supply not disaggregated. Presented in annual reports that are not standardised or validated. No data source on private provision. No policy or procedural guidelines in place to support MIS.
Zanzibar	1	No TVET data in EMIS.
Zimbabwe	1	Plans for TVET MIS but resource constraints have prevented implementation. Data available at institutional level but no national TVET MIS system to collate all data. Supply side data in public sector collected by Ministry for Higher and Tertiary Education. Improvements planned to align with UNESCO UIS. Lack of capacity for projections, and no systemic survey yet to link to labour market data.
Lesotho	2	EMIS does not include TVET data (one public polytechnic is included). All VET institutions excluded.
Malawi	2	Data sets collected by different agencies (MoEST DTVT – data on colleges; Ministry of Labour – data on trade tests; TEVETA – data on apprenticeships, private and informal; public providers). Not aggregated.
Namibia	2	The TVET MIS system has been developed and tested by the NTA. However, it is currently awaiting regulations from the Ministry of Education and is not yet operational.
Swaziland	2	Data available but no TVET MIS to collate and disseminate TVET data. TVET data not yet operational in EMIS. TVET data collected by several agencies, including 8 ministries and providers.
Botswana	3	Little evidence of systematic data collection. Data collected by individual providers. Data collected from public providers on irregular basis and not aggregated. Some plans to integrate TVET MIS with EMIS but stakeholder cooperation not yet materialised. Baseline studies in 2005.
Mozambique	3	Departments of education and labour collect statistics, collated by the National Statistics Institute. Statistics are publicly available.
South Africa	3	Basic data collected and reported but large gaps and concerns about quality. Supply-side data on learners, institutions, funding collected by public colleges. Data on learners in skills development collated by SETAs, reported publically by Department of Higher Education and Training. Data on private providers are not collated.
Tanzania	3	EMIS includes TVET data. Data collected annually, data accuracy and reliability are checked. Some gaps in supply-side data for TVET. Data also collated by VETA and NACTE. Cross-checked with EMIS. Currently VETA and NACTE are considered more reliable data sources for TVET. Projection data not yet available for forecasting. Supply side data not yet linked to labour market data.
Zambia	3	Most data available from TEVETA and published. Quality of data is being evaluated. No projection data available.
Mauritius	4	MITD uses surveys to collect and aggregate TVET data in public provision. MQA collects data on private providers. HRDC collects data on enterprises. Financial information collected, and analysed by HRDC and MITD. TVET data used for planning, monitoring system performance, and evaluation.

In a number of SADC member states, TVET MIS are completely lacking (DRC, Lesotho, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zanzibar, Zimbabwe). There are no systems or capacity to collate any national data on TVET in either public or private sectors. In the DRC and Lesotho, the current EMIS system does not report on TVET (either for institutions or variables), and TVET data are not systematically collected by any other institution. In Seychelles, data are available from each public post-secondary provider and published in annual reports, but the quality and comparability of TVET data are questioned and these are not collated to present a national picture.

In many SADC countries, whilst there is no national TVET MIS, some TVET data are available at a national level, providing some statistical information on TVET. In countries without an agreed TVET MIS, data tend to be available from a range of different sources or agencies, using different data systems and methods. As a result, data from different sources may not be comparable, as different data/variables are collected by different agencies, based on their specific needs. Consequently, national data on key indicators (for example, total enrolment in TVET, number of providers, and numbers of staff) are not available for the sector as a whole (a factor which made reporting on Indicators 13-36 problematic for most countries participating in this study). In most SADC countries, with fragmented and partial TVET data, the available data are predominantly information about TVET supply by public TVET providers. At best, there are partial data on private TVET sector provision, and this tends to be stronger in countries that have TVET agencies with responsibility for support to TVET in the private sector, e.g. BOTA in Botswana. Countries with fragmented data sources and no national sector-wide TVET MIS are Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe.

A small number of countries, Mauritius, Tanzania, and Zambia, have systematised national TVET data collated by a small number of agencies, with data that are comparable. All three countries have established systems for validating the quality and reliability of data. In Tanzania, cross-checking has identified some problems in quality. In each of these countries, data are available on both public and private providers, and are used for planning, monitoring and evaluation purposes.

Due to problems with data systems and availability of data disaggregated by gender, age, or region, most SADC member states are unable to report on TVET system performance in terms of key national priorities. However, data collected and reported by MITD are used by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources in Mauritius to monitor the performance of the public TVET sector against key performance indicators and targets. In South Africa, data collected across several agencies (including SETAs), and collated by the relevant ministries, are used for reporting on the achievement of the National Skills Development Strategy and the National HRD Strategy.

No SADC member state has sufficiently robust TVET MIS to support sector-wide forecasting and none of the systems is linked to labour-market data systems. Initiatives to link skills development to labour market data tend to be one-off projects. In some countries, for example DRC and Malawi, labour-market systems are not yet sufficiently robust to inform skills planning.

Countries with fragmented data collected by several different agencies note that the lack of agreed accountability for TVET MIS by a single authority constrains progress towards developing a single national TVET MIS and has consequences for ensuring that data are updated and maintained. Reports that specifically mentioned that the lack of a lead agency responsible for a national TVET MIS constrained systematic data collection include those from Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zanzibar (TET).

In order to report on a national TVET system, an agreed definition of TVET is required, and TVET management information systems that cover the whole sector are necessary. As has been noted, data availability in most SADC countries does not cover the whole sector as defined. Even countries where registration as a TVET provider is required by law (e.g., Tanzania) observe that not all providers comply. Even so, the requirement to register as a provider reduces, to some extent at least, the tendency for systems to under-report the size and shape of the TVET sector.

The lack of reliable data collated at a national level has had severe consequences for monitoring TVET system development. None of the SADC countries was able to report fully on all six of the basic statistical indicators used to collate this report (Indicators 13, 19, 20, 23, 28 and 29). The reasons given in meta-data comments included: poor data, or lack of data (especially for the private sector); non-aggregation of data from public providers; lack of systems at provider level for collating data measured at provider level (e.g. throughput rates which require dropout rates); and lack of data disaggregated by gender. The feasibility and value of the SADC TVET monitoring tool will partly depend on the future development and strengthening of TVET MIS in the SADC region.

3.6   Funding

3.6.1   Main sources of funding

Most funding for TVET in SADC countries is generated through government subsidies, employer fees, student fees, donations and income generation activities by the providers. Of these sources, government subsidies constitute the main contribution, followed by student fees. The remaining contributions represent minimal funding streams for TVET. All formal public provision of TVET is funded by government through budget allocations to ministries.

Table 3.11 shows the proportion of education budgets allocated to public TVET per country. Seychelles allocates the highest percentage of its education budget to TVET provision, while Zambia has the lowest percentage allocation. Official figures are not available for Botswana, DRC and Swaziland. As can be seen, government budgets for TVET provision are generally low in relation to other education sectors.

Table 3.11:
Percentage of national educational budget allocated to TVET

Country	Ministries responsible for public TVET provision	% of educational budget allocated to TVET
Botswana	Ministry of Education and Skills Development (DTVET) Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs	Estimated at 6.9% in 2009 but not based on official data (monitoring report)
DRC	Ministry of Primary, Secondary and Vocational Education Ministry of Public Health Ministry of Social Affairs, Humanitarian Action and National Solidarity Ministry of Employment, Labour and Social Welfare Ministry of Higher and University Education Ministry of Youth and Sports Inter-Ministerial Commission for Technical Education and Vocational Training	No data available
Lesotho	Ministry of Education and Training	6% (2003-2004)
Malawi	Ministry of Education Science and Technology Ministry of Labour TEVETA	3.4% (2008)
Mauritius	Ministry of Education and Human Resources	4.4% (2009)
Mozambique	Ministry of Education	4% (2009)
Namibia	Ministry of Education	2.9% (2010)
Seychelles	Ministry of Education	13.6% (2009)
South Africa	Department of Higher Education and Training	2.5% (2009)
Tanzania	Ministry of Education and Culture	1.4% (2009)
Zanzibar	Ministry of Youth, Employment, Women and Children Development	2.8% (2009)
Swaziland	Ministry of Education	No data available
Zambia	Ministry of Science, Technology and Vocational Training	0.6% (2009)
Zimbabwe	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education	4.7% (2009)

3.6.2   Skills levies

Another more recent funding source is a skills levy based on a percentage tax of employer payroll. Employers pay a 0.5% levy based on payroll in Mauritius, whilst the levy is set at 1% in Malawi, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe; 2% in Tanzania; and 5% in Zanzibar. In Botswana the levy paid is set at 0.2 to 0.25% of company turnover. These levies provide a significant funding base for TVET. In Malawi, the levy accounts for 93% of total income for TEVETA. Skills levies are primarily targeted at private companies, although in the case of South Africa, the levy has been extended to state-owned enterprise employers, and in Zanzibar, government as an employer pays the skills levy. However, in Swaziland, industry has rejected the introduction of the training levy created in the Industrial and Vocational Training Act of 1982 and a skills levy has yet to be introduced in Zambia.

Despite this additional income, there are concerns as to whether this is a sustainable funding source for TVET. In South Africa, small and medium enterprises have often not been able to take up workplace training for their employees, as

they do not have the human resources or infrastructural capacity to train, and the skills levy is seen as an additional tax. In the case of Malawi, central government allocates a set fee to TEVETA based on personnel costs rather than remitting the full levy for additional TVET training. Compliance by companies in paying the skills levy was also noted as an issue of concern. This report was not able to ascertain whether the scale of formal industry contributions to the skills levy in SADC countries was sufficient for sustainable funding of TVET provision.

3.6.3   Public expenditure

Formal TVET provision is characterised by centralised government funding. In Swaziland, the World Bank (2010) notes that the centralised control of TVET has undermined the sense of 'ownership' by TVET institutions and made them dependant on government subsidisation. Swazi TVET institutions receive budgets allocated on historical data and are not held accountable through performance budgets. Similarly for Zimbabwe, there is no institutional autonomy when it comes to allocation for the acquisition of fixed capital assets or employment costs. However, this is not the norm across all SADC countries. In Tanzania, TET institutions complement their government subsidy through contracted research/consultancy in close partnership with industry. Mauritius has also established a number of public-private TVET partnerships with industry. A recent change in funding for South African FET colleges has been a shift to programmatic funding from national government as opposed to allocating funding according to the size of the institution. In South Africa, it is noted that provincial government spending on FET colleges is less than 3% of educational expenditure and this has impacted on rural-urban divides as rural FET colleges are less able to attract skilled and qualified personnel.

Seychelles provides public post-secondary TVET provision free of charge. Bursary and maintenance allowances are provided to provide access to students from other islands to study on the mainland. Most SADC TVET students do pay fees, although these are highly subsidised. In South Africa, TVET students have access to National Student Financial Aid Scheme bursaries that are dependent on their ability to pass a set number of courses per year. South African TVET provision that is not funded through the skills levy or education departments, such as hair dressing, is expensive and is self-funded by students. In Tanzania, TVET students from science and technology disciplines can access loans from the Higher Education Student Loans Board. Zambia has also established a bursary fund for disadvantaged and vulnerable groups to access TVET, and Zimbabwe has a similar fund named the Cadetship Fund. In Swaziland, students undertaking public technician training are fully funded by government, whereas all students for TVET training at VOCTIM are self-sponsored. For Lesotho, there is almost no data on household expenditure in relation to TVET, but the monitoring report nevertheless noted that students paid high fees.

In spite of an overall downturn in international support for TVET, there have continued to be significant international contributions to the funding of TVET in the SADC region. In Botswana, the European Union has been a major partner in providing funds for TVET capital infrastructure, technical assistance and tracer studies. UNESCO, ILO, the World Bank and the African Development Bank have also been active in technical assistance studies, though these represent far smaller sources of funding. In Lesotho, the Global Fund and African Development Bank have been assisting TVET institutions, whilst the World Bank had a major involvement in policy development work in the 2000s. The Malawi TVET system has received support from DANIDA and GTZ, as well as from the Canadian Development Agency (CIDA) for TVET teacher training. DANIDA also supported the establishment of learning support centres, marketing and communications units and linkages, and programme units in nine South African FET colleges.

3.6.4   Funding of TVET for the informal sector

Funding for informal TVET provision is much more difficult to ascertain. Informal TVET provision is not funded in a systematic way in the SADC region, although there are a range of programmes that do target TVET in and for the informal sector as noted in Section 3.1.2. above.

3.6.5   Evidence of employer expenditure on TVET

Data on expenditure on TVET by companies are almost non-existent with the exception of limited skills levy information. Mauritius noted that private company expenditure on TVET amounted to MUR 1 billion (c. USD 33 million). For Malawi, it was reported that nearly NWK 300 million (USD 2 million) were collected in 2009 from the skills levy, whilst the South African levy raised over ZAR 7 billion (USD 1 billion) in the same year. In all other SADC countries, data were not available on private company expenditure on TVET or household expenditure on TVET.

3.7   Size and shape of the TVET sector

3.7.1   An overview

The size and shape of the TVET sector in the SADC region can only be estimated as TVET MIS systems are still largely in development, as was noted above. The aim of this section of the report is thus to describe, as far as possible, the overall size of the TVET sector, including public and private, as well as formal, non-formal and informal TVET provision. The section then focuses on public TVET, as this is where the most accurate figures of TVET provision in the SADC region are available, and outlines key areas of technical and vocational training. However, very little data exist for private training and informal TVET. The overall TVET enrolment in SADC countries is detailed in Table 3.12, but it should be kept in mind that these figures are estimates and can only give a general idea of the scope of TVET provision in the region.

Table 3.12:
Overall TVET enrolment

Country	No. of TVET providers (including formal and non-formal)	Total enrolment, including public and private TVET institutions	Gender breakdown of total FET enrolment		Percentage of TVET enrolment per population aged between 15-24[1]
Botswana	202	31,000 (2006)	Not available		30%
DRC	Unknown	755,035 (2006)	Not available		Data not available
Lesotho	69 (2010)	3,457 (2009)	1,393 (female)	2,001 (male) [Missing data]	1%
Malawi	254 (2010)	4,164 (2010) Public TVET institutions only	1,420 (female)	2,744 (male)	0.2%
Mauritius	576 (2010)	44,294 (levy funded learners) (2008-2009)	Not available		21.7 %
Mozambique	68 (2010)	46,082 (2010)	Not available		1.2%
Namibia	15 (2008)	6,612 (2008)	2, 492 (female)	3,950 (male)	Data not available
Seychelles	23 (2010)	1,699 (2010) Public TVET institutions only	795 (female)	905 (male) [Missing data of 1 institution]	4.5 %
South Africa	914 (2010)	340,583 (2009)[2]	Not available		3.9%
Swaziland	57 (2006)	2,858 (2006) Including pre-vocational courses in schools	971 (female)	1,166 (male) Gender breakdown not available for pre-vocational schools	1.2%
Tanzania	889 (2010)	177,749 (2009)	76,943 (female)	100,806 (male)	2.2%
Zanzibar	30 (2009)	2,894 (2010)	710 (female)	2,184 (male)	1.5 %
Zambia	276 (2010)	33,399 (2009)	13, 531 (female)	19,868 (male)	Data not available
Zimbabwe	57 (2010)	13,217 (2009) Public TVET institutions only	5,853 (female)	7,364 (male)	0.5%

1 The percentage of young people enrolled in TVET is calculated by dividing the number of those enrolled with the total number of those aged 15-24 times 100%.

2 These data include 58,737 learners in private provision taken from 36 private FET institutions registered and accredited with Umalusi in 2009. Umalusi is currently in an accreditation process for another 326 private institutions.

Note: The South African figures need to be treated with caution as there are concerns that the number of learners may include double-counting as learners may be repeating subjects while also registered as new learners. Accurate numbers for learners involved in skills training also are not known.

TVET provision in SADC countries constitutes a small minority of educational provision. Gender breakdowns of overall TVET provision are largely unknown except in cases where a recent large scale survey has been conducted. South Africa and Tanzania have the highest recorded number of TVET providers, followed by Mauritius. All three countries have a qualification framework that encompasses TVET provision, which could account for this level of reporting, and the Mauritian database is particularly strong in including both public and private TVET provision. South Africa and the DRC have the highest TVET enrolments, followed by Tanzania. Seychelles and Swaziland have the lowest enrolment figures, followed by Zanzibar and Lesotho, which largely reflects the respective size of these countries. The largest TVET system is more than 400 times the size of the smallest. In the absence of accurate enrolment data, including age-related data, accurate participation rates are difficult to calculate. However, estimates of participation rates made from the available data indicate ranges from 0.2% in Malawi to 30% in Botswana. These rates are also difficult to interpret without further information on the internal and external efficiency of the TVET system, data which are also lacking.

3.7.2   Public TVET provision

Formal TVET provision is funded by national ministries of SADC countries and data are generally more accurate as a result of regular reporting. Despite this, data for some countries are dated (e.g. Swaziland), and at times cannot be disaggregated between public and private providers (e.g. Lesotho, Mozambique and Zambia). A further complicating factor is that formal TVET provision ranges from pre-vocational schools in some countries (e.g. Swaziland) to polytechnics (e.g. Zimbabwe). Formal TVET is also provided through government-subsidised private institutions (e.g. Lesotho, Malawi and Mozambique), in addition to government-owned TVET institutions. The community-based institutions in Botswana and Namibia (COSDECs and brigades) have become increasingly integrated into the publc system, especially in the case of the brigades.

Table 3.13:
The size and shape of public TVETprovision

Country	Number of public TVET providers	Public TVET enrolment	Public TVET enrolment by gender		Programme type[s]
Botswana	7 (DTVET)	5,098 (2010)	Gender breakdown not available		Construction
					Business
					Automotive
					Electrical
					Hospitality and tourism
					ICT
					Mechanical
					Hair dressing and beauty care
DRC	Unknown	45,791 (2006-2007) (No disaggregation of public and private figures)	Gender breakdown not available		Unknown
Lesotho	8 (including government-subsidised institutions)	2,758 (2009) (No disaggregation of public and private figures)	1,175 (female)	1,583 (male)	Automotive
					Construction
					Electrical
					Home science
					Textiles
					Business
Malawi	7 (including government-subsidised institutions)	4,164 (2010)	1,420 (female)	2,744 (male)	Automotive
					Construction
					Electrical
					Mechanical
					Woodworking

Country	Number of public TVET providers	Public TVET enrolment	Public TVET enrolment by gender		Programme type[s]
Mauritius	22	10,723 (2008)	2,145 (female)	8,578 (male)	Hotel and tourism
					ICT
					Electrical engineering
					Mechanical engineering
					Civil engineering
					Printing
					Jewellery
					Textile/garment making
					Beauty care
					Business administration
					Agriculture
Mozambique	68 Data for only public TVET institutions unavailable	44,234 (2009)	13,234 (female)	30,316 (male) [Missing data]	Agriculture
					Agro-industry
					Electrical
					Mechanics
					Hospitality and tourism
					Business studies
Namibia	11 (2008)	4,055 (2008)	Gender breakdown not available		Automotive electrical and electronics
					Automotive mechanics
					Bricklaying
					Clothing, leather and textile
					Hairdressing
					Hospitality and tourism
					ICT
					Joinery and cabinetmkaing
					Metal fabrication
					Office admininstration
					Plumbing
					Postal service
					Tour guiding
Seychelles	8	1,699 (2010)	795 (female)	905 (male) Missing data of 1]	Agriculture and horticulture
					Electrical
					Fashion and design
					Mechanical
					Marine
					Construction
					Tourism
					Early childhood education
					Business studies

Country	Number of public TVET providers		Public TVET enrolment		Public TVET enrolment by gender		Programme type[s]
South Africa	50		281,846 [estimate] (2009)		Gender breakdown not available		Agriculture
							Automotive
							Electrical
							Mechanical
							Construction
							Civil engineering
							Tourism and hospitality
							ICT
							Early childhood development
							Business and finance
							Health and safety
							Entrepreneurship
Swaziland	2		471 (2006) (SCOT and VOCTIM enrolments only)		103 (female)	368 (male)	Construction
							Upholstery
							Electrical
							Automotive
							Mechanical
							Telecommunication
							Woodmaking
							Survey assistant
							Business administration
							Home economics
							Entrepreneurship
Tanzania	21 (owned by VETA)	TET institutional data not disaggregated by public/private institutions	40,189 (2009) VET enrolment	50, 554 (2009) TET enrolments	10,961 (female) 21, 058 (female)	29,228 (male) 29, 496 (male)	Construction
							Mechanical
							Automotive
							Electrical
							Business administration
							Tourism and hospitality
							35 other fields of specialisation
Zanzibar	3 (owned by VTA)		1,757 (2009)		410 (female)	1,347 (male)	Construction
							Electrical
							Mechanical
							Business administration
Zambia	24 (MoSTVT)		33,399 (2009) TEVETA data on enrolment not disaggregated by public/private therefore the total includes public and private enrolments. Public enrolment only is not known.		13,531 (female)	19,868 (male)	Mechanical
							Automotive
							Instrumentation
							ICT
							Business
							Entrepreneurship
							Hotel and tourism
							Media
							Aviation

Country	Number of public TVET providers	Public TVET enrolment	Public TVET enrolment by gender		Programme type[s]
Zimbabwe	52 (data include polytechnics and industrial training centres)	13,217 (2009)	5,853 (female)	7,364 (male)	Agriculture
					Automotive
					Business and secretarial studies
					Electrical
					Mechanical

It is striking that the scale of formal public TVET provision is so small. South Africa has the highest number of learners enroled in public TVET, but there are concerns of accuracy here due to the complexities of how enrolment for multiple subjects is handled. Enrolment numbers for public TVET institutions in the SADC region are generally low, ranging from an average of 5,600 learners per institution in South Africa to 235 per institution in Swaziland; however, South Africa does have a small number of very large FET colleges with more than 15,000 learners each.

Although its inclusiveness cannot be guaranteed, the Table 3.13 seems to point to the narrowness of TVET provision in many countries. Much of TVET appears to fall into the traditional categories of engineering, construction, commercial and beauty care. There are some signs, however, of national specificities, related to economic opportunities, such as marine in Seychelles, textiles in Lesotho and Mauritius, and tourism in Botswana, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Tanzania and Zambia.

It is suggested that the narrowness of curricular offering may largely reflect capacity issues. For instance, as was noted earlier that in Malawi only eight out of 28 trade test subjects can be supported centrally. Staffing, equipment and workshop constraints have also encouraged public providers across the SADC region to concentrate on delivering programmes where they can attract large numbers of learners irrespective of the labour market prospects.

In most SADC countries, transition from primary and secondary schooling to TVET is minimal. The World Bank (2010) states that only 7% of Swaziland school leavers (including primary, secondary and dropouts totalling 14,000 per annum) gain access to TVET institutions. Zambia has recorded a 4% transition rate from secondary schooling to TVET. There are a few SADC countries where transition rates are strong. In Tanzania, the transition rate from primary education to TVET is 8%, andfrom ordinary secondary school to TVET it is 40%, and from advanced secondary schools to TVET it is 39%. Mauritius has very high transition rates from secondary schooling to TVET at 82%, and Seychelles has a high transition rate from secondary schooling to TVET at 80%. Mozambique's TVET system also offers horizontal and vertical articulation with other education sectors.

In terms of gender parity in access to formal TVET provision, more men than women are enrolled in public TVET institutions, as shown in Table 3.13. Most SADC countries report that women enrol in 'softer' TVET programmes, such as beauty care and business administration, as opposed to traditional 'technical' trades such as welding, plumbing, etc.

In most SADC countries, formal public TVET is predominantly offered in urban areas and non-formal TVET in rural areas. There are exceptions, such as in Seychelles and Mauritius, where rural differentiation is not a problem and TVET is accessible across the country.

3.7.3   Private TVET provision

Much less data are available on private TVET provision in SADC. Most countries in the region have incomplete records of private TVET provision, as information management systems largely capture only public TVET provision. Countries with TVET qualifications frameworks have relatively more information on private providers, but there are still significant gaps in the data. Data kept by qualification agencies tend to focus on information required for accreditation purposes, and this is often not collated in ways that would be useful for other purposes, including analysis of the nature of the private sector; types of programmes offered by private providers; pass and throughput rates; staff capacity and qualifications; etc. In Zambia, TEVETA accredits both public and private providers. However, data systems do not disaggregate by type of provider. Therefore, although the number of accredited private providers may be known, as the national monitoring reports explain, data on enrolments and pass rates cannot be disaggregated by public/private sector. In South Africa, data on accredited enterprise-based providers may be available within SETAs and SAQA, but they are not collected and analysed with a view to mapping enterprise-based TVET provision. Only Tanzania and Zimbabwe have systems that enable reporting on pass rates for private providers.

A serious factor affecting information on private TVET provision is the lack of clarity on what constitutes private provision, and the increasingly blurred boundary between state-funded and privately-funded provision. In countries such as Zimbabwe and South Africa, private providers are defined by the fact that they are not public providers, regardless of whether they are non-profit providers or for-profit providers. In the case of Lesotho and Swaziland, government sponsors private training providers' personnel costs; in Zimbabwe and Malawi, public providers are encouraged to seek additional sources of income either through production services (Zimbabwe) or through fee-paying students (Malawi). Problems of definition are compounded in contexts where definitions for TVET exclude current private provision. For example, in Seychelles, TVET is defined in terms of programmes that lead to qualifications at levels 3 to 6 on the NQF. However, none of the private training providers in Seychelles currently provides registered qualifications at these levels, leading to the view that there are no private post-secondary TVET providers.

Several countries (including Zimbabwe, Mauritius, Namibia and Tanzania) require private providers to register with either a competent ministry or with the relevant TVET agency. Registration provides an opportunity for collecting basic information on the number of private providers and other basic information. However, even in Tanzania, where registration is compulsory, the exact size of the private TVET sector is not clear due to non-compliance with registration by some providers. In Zimbabwe, although private providers are required to register, the data maintained are limited and analysis of the sector is constrained by the weakness of the TVET MIS. For example, registration does not require systematic information on enrolments. In SADC countries where private providers are not required to register with TVET governance structures, it is not possible to obtain accurate data on the size of the sector; for example, in Swaziland, private providers are only required to register as businesses; whilst in DRC, private providers are not required to register and the sector is largely unregulated.

In Botswana and DRC, detailed information on private providers is not available. Botswana conducted a baseline survey in 2005, but data on numbers of providers were not available. This study noted that of private training provision in the work place, most of it (55%) was found to be taking place in the field of services, primarily in customer services and care, and in wholesale and retail. Courses were short, with 26% between 1 and 7 days long and 22% between 1 and 4 weeks long. In Lesotho, there is very little data on private providers and information supplied showed a significant presence of faith-based institutions. In Malawi and Namibia, it was not possible to obtain aggregated data; it was only possible to note that private providers offer foreign qualifications, such as City and Guilds and Pittman qualifications. In Mauritius, there are 554 private training providers registered with the Mauritius Qualifications Authority, 50 of which are company in-house training centres and the remainder primarily focus on ICT studies and management training. In Mozambique, data on private provision were not available, but it was noted that private providers have expressed interest in offering nationally accredited qualifications. Of the 14 private registered providers in Seychelles, six provide programmes in occupational skills, mainly in ICT and human resources development.

In South Africa, the Umalusi FET Private Providers Site Visit and Verification Report (2008) cited a total enrolment in private FET of 706,884 learners for the 864 FET providers registered on the Department of Education (DoE) database. However, this includes short course provision and skills programmes as well as year-long learning programmes. It is therefore not possible to obtain a full time equivalent enrolment for private TVET provision in South Africa. The figures provided above are based on the DoE private FET college pre-registration process. It is further noted in the report that these 864 FET providers represent 4,178 delivery sites. Akoojee and McGrath (2007) highlight the diversity of private FET providers in South Africa, segmenting the 864 registered in the DoE database into not-for-profit, for-profit and in-house categories. In-house providers tend to be located within large firms and are focused on their internal training needs whilst for-profits most closely match the conventional picture. More recent data from Umalusi (Blom, 2010) only include registered and accredited private institutions in 2009, of which there are 36. These 36 private institutions had 58,737 registered students for formal and non-formal qualifications, including short courses and full time courses. Umalusi is currently in the process of confirming the accreditation of a further 326 private institutions. Therefore, the data presented in this report show a small portion of the overall private TVET enrolment figures for South Africa.

In Swaziland there are 27 for-profit vocational institutions, enrolling about 660 trainees (data of MoET/DIVT, 2008). The bulk of the 175 courses offered by them were in business- and IT-related fields. Private sector TVET can also make an important contribution to national TVET provision. In mainland Tanzania, data from the VET Catalogue (VETA, 2010) suggests that most vocational training centres are non-public (84%), including those owned by private entities (44% of the total). While the number of these non-public VET centres seems large, most of them offer one to three courses only and often to a very modest number of trainees. In Malawi, enrolment in private TVET institutions is three times the number of learners enrolled in the public TVET sector. However, as in Tanzania, this disguises very different forms of TVET provision, as many programmes offered by private providers in Malawi are short courses. In Zimbabwe, there are

over 300 private TVET training institutions, but this figure is not disaggregated between private non-profit and private for-profit providers.

3.7.4   Non-formal TVET provision

Whilst SADC and a number of member states noted the great importance of non-formal TVET provision during the course of the project, it was far harder to find clear evidence of such prioritisation in policies or in the evidence presented by the national monitoring reports.

Much non-formal TVET is provided through faith-based organizations and community-based organizations. These are largely donor funded and/or subsidised by government, as is the case in Lesotho and Swaziland. Faith- and community-based non-formal TVET provision is typically focused on survival skills for vulnerable sectors of society and has a significant presence in rural areas. Learner fees are often well below the cost of training, and the subsidy is usually provided by the owners of the training institution.

Adult education centres also provide basic vocational training, with a focus on entry-level skills, as well as opportunities for upgrading qualifications. The World Bank Report (2010) on Swaziland notes that enrolment in this form of training has been on the decline.

The Botswana youth brigades have been extensively documented and represent a more formalised approach to non-formal TVET provision. Indeed, the Botswana monitoring report notes that the youth brigades have recently been placed under public management in an attempt to reverse the decline of this form of TVET provision. This community-based form of TVET provision is focused on skills training, as well as entrepreneurship under the autonomy of local communities. Such training is certified. The Namibian COSDECs were influenced by the Botswanan model but continue to operate semi-autonomously.

Traditional apprenticeships under master artisans are often classified as informal training, although there is considerable evidence internationally about the significant formalism that is present in some of these systems. Such systems are less well-developed in the SADC region than in other parts of Africa but are widely present in Lesotho, Malawi and Zambia. The central focus of these apprenticeships is to obtain skills for self-employment through learning on the job. In some cases, the master artisan accepts a fee from apprentices in addition to non-paid work provided while learning. Traditional apprenticeships do not have a fixed training time or set curricula and therefore do not articulate into formal TVET provision.

3.8   Sector efficiency

It is not possible to make definitive statements on the efficiency of the TVET sector in SADC countries. This is primarily because of the poor quality of data available for national TVET systems. Data on public pass rates are incomplete and often only reported under one ministry. There are often no data on private pass rates and, when there are, they are typically incomplete. Pass rates by gender were largely incomplete, and were not available by NQF. Even where pass rates are available, it is not possible to compare these across countries as different data are reported on. For instance, data are presented for programmes of different duration or level, or not disaggregated enough to make this clear. Moreover, high pass rates are not unambiguously good as there is always a possibility that they reflect low institutional standards, even where competency-based approaches have been introduced.

Throughput rates were only recorded by five SADC countries. Of these countries, four were only able to report on public throughput rates and these figures are incomplete. Data on TVET learner destination rates into employment were only recorded by seven countries that drew on specific tracer studies conducted in the public sector and again these data are incomplete. There is also very little information on learners after six months of employment and, with the exception of Zambia and South Africa, minimal information on TVET learner employment in their field of study.

3.8.1   Pass rates in TVET

Table 3.14:
Pass rates in TVET

Country	Source used to determine pass rates	Public pass rate	Private pass rate	Pass rate by gender		Pass rate by NQF level
Botswana	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available
DRC	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available
Lesotho	TVD results 2009 (faulty data)	50%	70.2%	Data not available		Data not available
Malawi	CSR (2010) November 2009 trade test	35%	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available
	Malawi (Advanced) Craft (2007)	52.5%		Female pass rate is 40%	Male pass rate is 65%	
Mauritius	MITD (2010) for public pass rates	90.4%	Data not available	Data not available		Data not disaggregated
Mozambique	DINET (2009)	60.5%	Data not available	Female pass rates is 61.9%	Male pass rate is 59.8%	Data not available
Namibia	National Trade Testing System (2008)	55%	Data not available	Data not available		Data not disaggregated
Seychelles	SIT Annual Report 2009	78%	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available
South Africa	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available
Swaziland	DIVT 2010 Grade I and II trade tests	59 %	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available
Tanzania	VETA 2010 NVA levels 1-3	82% for public VET		Female VET public pass rate is 80%		VET Certificate of Competence 1 is 75%
				Male VET public pass rate is 83%		Certificate of Competence 2 is 87%
			80% for private TVET	Female VET private pass rate is 73%		Certificate of Competence 3 is 79%
				Male VET private pass rate is 86%		
	NACTE (2010) NTA levels 4, 6, 8	92% for public TET		Female TET public pass rate is 93%		TET NTA Level 4 is 87%
				Male TET public pass rate is 91%		NTA Level 6 is 93%
			91% for private TET	Female TET private pass rate is 95%		NTA Level 8 is 89%
				Male TET private pass rate is 86%		
Zambia	TEVETA 2010	51%		Female pass rate is 34%		Data not available
				Male pass rate is 68%		
Zanzibar	VETA 2010	92.9 %	Data not available	Female TVET public pass rate is 93.2%		Data not available
				Male TVET public pass rate is 92.6%		
Zimbabwe	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available		Data not available

Despite the data limitations, some general trends can be noted. There is a wide variation in the overall public pass rates shown in Table 3.14. In Lesotho, Malawi and Zambia, these are 52.5% or less, which would suggest internal institutional inefficiency. Disaggregating further, there were zero pass rates for auto mechanics at one institution in Lesotho and for cabinet making in Malawi. On the other hand, Mauritius, as well as Tanzania and Zanzibar report aggregate pass rates of over 80%. In Lesotho, it appears that private TVET institutions have higher pass rates than public ones, whilst mainland Tanzania reports a small differential in favour of public provision. Gender disaggregations, where available, show minor differences in most cases, but there are significantly lower pass rates for women in Malawi and Zambia, and women enrolled in private TVET provision in mainland Tanzania.

3.8.2   Throughput rates

Throughput is an important indicator to consider alongside the pass rate, as pass rates do not reflect drop out during programmes, a major element of inefficiency, or can be artificially inflated by excluding from tests learners deemed likely to fail. Only five SADC countries were able to report on throughput rates and all reporting concerned public institutions. For example, dthe public throughput rate for TVET learners in Mauritius is positive at 71% (MITD 2010). The Mauritian monitoring report states that these qualifications range from NQF Level 2 to NQF Level 6 of the Mauritius Qualifications Authority, but it is unclear as to which level of the NQF each of these qualification types is assigned.

The public throughput rate in Seychelles also was 71% in 2009. The data are taken from the Seychelles Institute of Technology (SIT), a public post-secondary institution, for a one-year certificate. It was noted in the Seychelles monitoring report that this was the only institution that offered full one-year certificate courses in 2009. Throughput rates ranged from 50% in masonry to 96% in refrigeration.

Throughput data in South Africa – taken from the first cohort of learners entering the National Certificate (Vocational) programmes in 2007 at public FET colleges and passing all seven subjects at NQF Level 4 in 2009 - show throughput of 4%. In Tanzania, the throughput rate for VET competency levels 1-3 in 2009 was 23% in public VET institutions, with 23% throughput rates for men and women (VETA 2010). The private VET throughput rate was 53%, with a 55% throughput rate for women and 51% for men. Throughput data per NQF level is not available. Throughput data in Zambia in 2010 show a rate of 54%. These data are based on the first learning programmes registered on the TEVET Qualifications Framework in 2009, representing a total enrolment of 67 learners of whom 36 passed. These data are not statistically significant.

The lack of comprehensive throughput data for SADC TVET systems remains a serious cause for concern as this is an essential element for assessing the efficiency of TVET systems in the region.

3.8.3   TVET destination rates into employment

Table 3.15:
TVET destination rates

Country	Source used to determine destination rates into employment	Learner employment rate 6 months after graduation	Learner employment rates 2 years after graduation	Learner employment rate 6 months after graduation related to programme of study
Botswana	Tracer Study BOTA 2010	23.1 %	40.6 %	Data not available
DRC	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available
Lesotho	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available
Malawi	TEVETA Labour Market Survey (2009)	86%	42.4 %	72.6 %
Mauritius	MITD Database	67.7 % (2008)	Data not available	Data not available
Mozambique	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available
Namibia	Tracer Study NTA 2008	Data not available	48.9%	Data not available
Seychelles	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available
South Africa	DoL-HSRC 2007	52.9 %	Data not available	60%
Swaziland	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available
Tanzania	VETA Assessment Data (2010)	69.9%	2.2 %	79.5%
Zambia	MoSTVT Tracer Study 2008	55%	34.8 %	44.5 %
Zanzibar	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available
Zimbabwe	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available	Data not available

The data shown in Table 3.15 are both sparse and selective. Most of the data are drawn from snapshot tracer surveys that looked at only one part of the TVET system. Moreover, sometimes samples were very small (281 in Malawi) and the definition of employment very broad. Again in Malawi, this included any work done in the past week, whether paid or unpaid.

In Mauritius, however, a tracer study is conducted every six months with successful graduates in order to gauge their absorption into the labour market. Although this is far more systematic than elsewhere in the SADC region, these data are only for public TVET provision under the MITD and do not include private provision.

Nonetheless, there appears to be some evidence in the national reports for successful transitions. For instance, in Seychelles, the Maritime Training Centre had an employment rate of 91% for its 2008 graduates, and a number of other studies report figures greater than 50%. However, given the limitations noted already, there is need for considerable caution regarding destination rates. What is apparent for almost all countries in the SADC region is that their long-standing commitment to relevant training still has not led to the implementation of TVET systems that are adequate enough to establish the relevance of public TVET provision for the labour market.

There are no data that specifically look at the transition rates of private TVET provision here. Although it is often believed that private provision is necessarily more effective at labour market insertion, Akoojee's (2003, 2005) work on South Africa warns that this is an assumption rather than a proven fact. Again, there is a need to remember that 'private' is a very diverse notion, and wide variation across forms of private provision should be expected.

3.9 Professional development of TVET staff

3.9.1 Overview

The terms 'teacher', 'trainer', 'instructor' and 'lecturer' are used interchangeably both within and across vocational education and training systems in the SADC countries, hence they are applied similarly in this section as appropriate.

With few exceptions, the issues that emerge out of the data on TVET instructors in the 13 countries in this study are common to the position of TVET trainers/lecturers in other developing countries, and are part of the historical development trajectory of more established TVET systems. These easily recognisable problems are highlighted in the sections that follow.

TVET instructors tend to occupy a lowly place on the occupations hierarchy, especially in relation to teachers in academic schools and lecturers in higher education. Few SADC countries have systems in place for the data management on TVET instructors, or for initial teacher education or continuing professional development in contextualised TVET qualifications for TVET staff. Providers of professional training and development are few or absent in most cases.

Given that most SADC countries have recognised through their policy frameworks the importance of TVET to growing economies and socio-economic development for their citizens, particularly young people, it is startling that the increasing TVET workforce has enjoyed so little specialised attention. Only a few countries in the region have dedicated higher education qualifications for the training of TVET instructors. TVET policies have also emphasised the importance of industry exposure for TVET learners, yet few have recognised the necessity for the same industry exposure/experience for TVET instructors, especially in the light of new technologies and modernised work processes. Most instructors tend to have either subject specialist knowledge gained through technical qualifications or industry experience, and both of these groupings may require pedagogical training. As this study indicates, it is not the norm in SADC countries that TVET instructors are well prepared on all three fronts, which the international literature on vocational pedagogy suggests for successful teaching and learning in TVET.

Nonetheless, the importance of a well-qualified, well-remunerated TVET instructor cadre is beginning to be appreciated in some SADC countries, which are focusing renewed energy on this sector of TVET development. In the absence of competitive working conditions for TVET instructors, many countries are experiencing staff shortages and rapid staff turnover in TVET, with instructors preferring to work in the private sector.

The availability of particular data on TVET staff is extremely uneven across the 13 SADC countries, and the data gaps point to the lack of a proper management information system on TVET staffing, or a central database, especially with

regard to those teaching in private TVET institutions where no staff numbers are forthcoming. In public institutions data are given for headcount only, and no data are available on an FTE basis.

Comparability across TVET systems in the SADC region is difficult, as some country surveys were last conducted between 5 and 10 years ago and the probability is that statistics are significantly out of date. Comparisons based on the size of the instructor complement, instructor:student ratios and the like are not possible here. In addition to the quantitative data, country reports also indicated the kinds of instructor qualifications being awarded and the modes of training being delivered. In SADC countries where no training system exists for TVET instructors, it is noted that many instructors are trained outside the country at overseas colleges or universities in partnership programmes, but no data are available showing precisely how many instructors have undertaken this training.

3.9.2   Instructors and their qualifications

Table 3.16:
Numbers of TVET instructors and their qualifications

Country	Numbers and narrative	
Botswana	Male	2,195
	Female	961
	Total TVET staff	3,156
	Public (including Brigades)	1,311
	Private	1,845
	About 73% of BOTA-registered trainers have no teaching qualification. Of the 899 instructors in the Brigades, 84% have no teaching qualification, and of 412 technical College instructors, 51% have no teaching qualification.	
DRC	No data available.	
Lesotho	Female	87
	Male	120
	Total public TVET staff	207
	No data available on qualifications levels.	
Malawi	Male	91
	Female	18
	Total public TVET staff	109
	87% of government-employed TVET staff are qualified.	
Mauritius	Total public TVET full-time staff	339
	Total private TVET staff	333
	Training officers and trainers who provide training at levels 3-6 on the NQF must have a minimum qualification of the Cambridge Higher School Certificate or A level. Instructors provide lower level training with an emphasis on basic qualifications and practical experience. All instructors must be registered with the MQA.	
Mozambique	Total TVET staff	2,345
	No data available on qualifications levels.	
Namibia	Total public TVET staff (including COSDECs)	236
	No data available on qualifications levels.	

Country	Numbers and narrative	
Seychelles	Full time	143
	Part time	139
	Total public TVET staff	282
	No data available on qualifications levels.	
South Africa	Full time FET staff in public colleges (2002)	6,756
	Male	56%
	Female	44%
	The last complete survey of FET college personnel was undertaken in 2002, which indicated that 12% of teaching staff were academically under-qualified. There has been significant staff movement in the college sector since 2002, therefore the statistics quoted here are probably outdated and should be read with caution.	
Swaziland	Total public TVET staff	157
	No data available on qualifications levels.	
Tanzania	Mainland	
	Total VETA	2,150
	Public VET instructors	778
	Private VET instructors	1,372
	Total TET	3,784
	Public TET	3,187
	Private TET	597
	In Tanzania, VET teachers should possess at least a VET Teachers Certificate in addition to the other specialised technical qualifications, but there are no data on how many VET teachers meet these requirements.	
	Zanzibar	
	Public VET instructors coordinated by VTA	77
	TET instructors coordinated by NACTE	48
	Zanzibar Institute of Financial Administration	33
	Total public TVET staff	158
	No data available on qualifications levels.	
Zambia	Trainers	1,063
	Assessors	466
	Examiners	283
	Total TVET staff	1,812
	Accreditation is required for trainers, but it is believed that some trainers lack accreditation and there are no data on actual qualifications levels.	
Zimbabwe	Female	366
	Male	668
	Total public TVET staff	1,034
	Vocational instructors should have trained at Gweru Polytechnic or an equivalent, but there are no data available for actual qualification levels.	

As can be seen from the above, even allowing for data weaknesses, there are huge differences in the size of the TVET instructor population across the SADC region, reflecting the very wide variance in TVET system and country size. It can be assumed that qualification levels, overall, are low, and may be particularly poor in segments of private TVET provision, although this remains a supposition given the paucity of data.

3.9.3 TVET teacher training provision

Table 3.17:
National TVET teacher training provision

Country	TVET teacher training provision
Botswana	There is only one provider of instructor training: the Francistown College of Vocational Education and Training. The Diploma in Technical and Vocational Education (DTVE) is an 18-month full-time teacher training programme which is modularised, credit- and outcomes- based, and also offered through block release. The entry requirement is a diploma or first degree qualification in a vocational field. The DTVE has been offered full-time since 2001 in affiliation with the University of Botswana, which undertakes external verification of student assessment and is the awarding body. The Francistown College of Technical and Vocational Education (FCTVE) is expected soon to offer a one-year, unit standards-based National Certificate in Vocational Education and Training. Between 2001 and 2008, there were 174 students enrolled in the diploma course for TVET teachers.
DRC	The education system employs TVET graduates as secondary/vocational teachers. However, higher technical institutions and higher education institutions also qualify TVET instructors to teach at secondary level, which accounts for 4,964 students (81% male).
Lesotho	The Lesotho College of Education (LCE) and the Agricultural College train teachers who are employed in TVET institutions and skills training centres in the fields of metal and wood working and home economics. The University of Lesotho provides continuing education up to the first degree for home economics. Many TVET instructors are trained outside Lesotho, for example in Germany, Denmark and South Africa, but no database of such trainees exists. In 2009, there were 34 technical student teachers enrolled at diploma level in metal and wood working and home economics, of which 3 were female and 31 male.
Malawi	The Malawi Polytechnic offers tertiary education in technical and vocational subjects intended for TVET teachers in secondary schools. However, the school's programme is criticised for being heavily theoretical and not providing competent, hands-on teacher training for the TEVET system. There is currently no programme for initial instructor education below degree level. For the 13% under-qualified (government-employed) teachers, TEVETA -with the support of the Canadian International Development Agency and the Malawi Polytechnic - has tried to remedy the situation through the Enhancement of TEVET Outcomes Project, which is upgrading 70 TVET college teachers to diploma level. Five TVET wings are planned for teacher training colleges.
Mauritius	MITD is the only institution that provides training in pedagogy to TVET instructors, and it does so on a part-time basis. The TVET instructor training course in Mauritius consists of a one-year programme. To date, 353 participants have completed the course, of which 237 were MITD staff and 116 were external participants. At the request of trainees, the course will soon be upgraded to a Diploma level. There is also a four-day 'train the trainer' programme, with the aim of providing participants with a set of basic skills for developing, teaching and evaluating a lesson. The programme can be conducted at the MITD, or in-house if the participants are company employees. Since 1999, 1,048 participants have undertaken the four-day course.
Mozambique	Initial teacher education (ITE) consists of 3+2 year long courses. The entry requirement is completion of the 12th grade. There are 43 centres delivering such programmes for the basic vocational system. In 2009 there were 330 students enrolled in the 3-year course. The only provider of specific training of trainers for higher level vocational programmes is the Don Bosco Higher Institute. Graduates of other institutions of higher education can teach in disciplines related to their area of expertise or the general curriculum. A pilot of an intensive programme to train teachers for four sectors is currently under way with the involvement of higher education teacher training units. Don Bosco is conducting distance learning courses for about 452 teachers from basic technical schools in the pilot phase. TVET instructor students are also trained in Portugal and Germany but the numbers involved are not available.
Namibia	The training of VET instructors is conducted through the Instructor Training Programme at the Polytechnic of Namibia. The programme offers Certificate, Higher Certificate and National Diploma qualifications for existing instructors. There is no initial vocational teacher education programme. Fifty learners are currently served by the Polytechnic programme.
Seychelles	Specific TVET instructor training is not usually offered locally in the Seychelles. Such training is usually conducted at overseas institutions, particularly in the UK, through partnership programmes with the National Institute of Education (now the School of Education, Faculty of Science, University of Seychelles). However, the school provides part-time pedagogical training for instructors who do not have a training qualification, through the Seychelles Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (SPGCE) Course. To give some sense of the size of the system, there were only 10 graduates of the national teacher training programme (SPGCE) for post-secondary institutions in 2009.

Country	TVET teacher training provision
South Africa	In 2008, a draft framework of qualifications and requirements for FET college instructors was circulated for public comment but this has not yet been finalised. The framework intends to raise qualification requirements for FET college instructors and professionalise college teaching. It sets out a suite of qualifications for vocational teachers, from certificate to postgraduate levels. However, this does not deal with the current cadre of un- and under-qualified instructors who have been teaching in the system for many years. Specific training for FET college instructors takes place in only a few universities and technology institutes. A limited survey reports that 8 HEIs have offered adapted teacher education programmes to vocational instructors. However, there is no established database of providers of vocational teacher education programmes. Data are not available and cannot be disaggregated from the Higher Education Management Information System for vocational trainees specifically.
Swaziland	There are no national occupational standards for TVET instructors. For those who teach pre-vocational education in high schools, the pre-vocational instructor preparation programme is a once-off in-service training programme through a one-year course provided by the Swaziland College of Technology (SCOT) and the Institute of Development Management (IDM). The IDM is a regional institution for in-service training in management, or for job candidates in both the public and private sector. Consortium partners in the programme include Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. A two-year Vocational Instructor Programme is offered by the Swaziland College of Technology on a part-time basis; in 2009, 21 (70% male) students were enrolled in the second year of the programme.
Tanzania	TVET policies in Tanzania are attempting to expand and consolidate VET teacher education to match the demand for personnel in public and private training institutions, and to enable candidates to cope with new methodologies. There is only one institution in Tanzania that provides basic or initial teacher education for VET teachers, the Morogoro Vocational Teachers Training College (MVTTC), owned by VETA. The programme duration is 42 weeks full-time, on campus at MVTTC, or 77 weeks in an off-campus mode. Continuous professional development (CPD) consists of the Ordinary Diploma in VET (ODVET) and short courses. Short courses are designed on demand and are organized on a regular basis. These targeted short courses are of 1-2 weeks duration. NACTE also offers CPD in the form of regular 'training of trainers' short courses to enhance instructor competencies. There are no data for initial teacher training in TET as there is no specific TET instructor training. Staff members without an education background but with technical knowledge have to undergo a recognised course on standard teaching methodology at university departments of education or through other providers. It is reported that currently there are 324 VET teacher trainees (71% male) and 685 instructors involved in short courses. There is no VET instructor training institution in Zanzibar. VET instructors are trained by the VETA Morogoro Teachers Training College on Tanzania Mainland through special off-campus arrangements with VETA.
Zambia	There is one teacher training college (Technical and Vocational Teachers' College) specialising in pedagogical training for TVET teachers. Initial teacher education consists of pedagogical training for those with a technical qualification, while pedagogical skills can be upgraded through CPD extension studies. There are three types of TVET practitioners - the trainer, the assessor and the examiner - who each have specific responsibilities. Industry employees may be assessors and examiners, though not in a training institution. The highest qualification is the Diploma in TVET, with an average annual output of 100 teachers. Technical training for teachers is provided at the technical training institutions and universities. There are reportedly 205 full-time students in TVET teacher training (60% male), 835 in distance programmes (58% female), and 15 in extension programmes (73% male).
Zimbabwe	Vocational instructors in Zimbabwe generally have acquired vocational skills and have been upgraded at Gweru Polytechnic so that they are qualified to provide general education and enable learning in designated occupations. There are also groups of instructors with a B Tech who can teach up to the higher national diploma (HND) level. The Harare Institute of Technology (HIT) started B Tech and M Tech lecturer programmes in 2004. Vocational instructors who train at the Gweru Polytechnic acquire industry experience during internships. There are also seven CPD providers. It is reported that there are 344 learners undergoing instructor training in Zimbabwe, but no disaggregations are possible.

As can be seen from table 3.17 the systematisation of instructor training is highly variable across the SADC region, but it is generally weakest amongst the smaller states, with the exception of Mauritius, where it is well developed. DRC and Mozambique's approaches are significantly different from those of the Anglophone countries. Overall, it appears that instructor development has been a matter of limited priority for most countries in the region, yet this is likely to be detrimental to overall TVET system development.

3.10 TVET and equity

As was noted in Section 3.1.3., equity issues for countries in the SADC region include skills development for poverty alleviation; equity in terms of access to training opportunities and economic upliftment; addressing gender discrimination in training and development; and curbing the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS. These issues have received varying degrees of emphasis in the national literature reviews, depending on the visibility of the issues in other government policies which intersect with TVET policy. Generally across the region TVET is seen by governments as a critical lever for achieving equity and access in skills development, and consequent improvement of the quality of life of citizens.

However, the various aspects of equity have not received equal coverage in the data. Indeed, the data reveal that relevant policies in some countries are more vocal and detailed about some issues than others. For instance, economic development opportunities for women receives comprehensive and targeted policy attention in Mauritius and Lesotho, while HIV/AIDS-specific interventions are advanced in Botswana TVET and in their infancy in South Africa. For example, Mauritius has launched a range of initiatives to boost women's entrepreneurship and Malawi has a positive discrimination policy for increasing female participation in TVET. Other SADC country policies focus more sharply on issues like poverty alleviation and access to training, for instance the Seychelles skills development policies. While some countries in the region have well-developed pro-equity plans linked to TVET already in implementation, policy statements elsewhere, for example in DRC and South Africa, appear to be merely well-intentioned ideas or statements, which still need to be fleshed out and linked to specific TVET activities.

In some, but not all, of the data cited above, it is clear that women are disadvantaged in the TVET system. This has led to targeted equity programmes for marginalised groups. For instance, increasing the total enrolment in more technical fields by 70% for women and disadvantaged groups by 2015 is on the agenda in Lesotho, as well as encouraging girls to participate in male-dominated courses. Similarly in Malawi, public technical colleges' female participation has slowly increased to 30% as the result of a positive discrimination policy employed by TEVETA and attempts to attain the SADC gender threshold.

In Tanzania, the promotion of opportunities in TVET for women is also widely advocated. The Technical Education and Training Policy provides for expanding the enrolment of girls who could potentially join TET in secondary schools that offer science subjects; reserving vacancies for qualified women in technical training institutions; conducting functional literacy programmes on appropriate technology for women; and establishing special awards for women who excel in technical education and training.

In South Africa, gender targets in successive national skills development strategies, under which 54% of all recipients of training should be female, have been supported by wider employment equity legislation.

Both Mauritius and Seychelles have made recent policy commitments to improve gender equity in training and employment. In Mauritius, women will be trained and empowered in the informal sector for setting up home-based activities and micro enterprises. A trading house will be established at the seat of Enterprise Mauritius to provide them with a marketing showcase and outlet. A Research Centre on Gender Issues will also be set up, and additional women/empowerment centres will be constructed.

In Seychelles, equity is essentially being promoted through, inter alia, making equal access to TVET for both genders compulsory, taking equal opportunity into account for courses at post-secondary level, and ensuring equitable access to careers and guidance services. The Seychelles Integrated National Human Resources Development Strategy for the 21st Century (NHRDC, 2007) calls for greater focus on the provision of TVET programmes that will enhance conditions for meeting the diverse needs of learners, redress gender imbalances in performance and improve opportunities for training and success for both genders in all areas of available courses.

There is also concern in some SADC countries with other dimensions of disadvantage. Thus, in South Africa, targets have been set since the first National Skills Development Strategy to address issues of disability and ethnicity. More recently, there has also been a growing concern with the plight of over 2.8 million young people (16-28 years) who are not in employment, education or training (NEETs) in spite of high levels of initial education. This is a concern that has also been raised in Mauritius and Seychelles, where learners tend to achieve high levels of secondary schooling.

In Tanzania, the Education and Training Policy aims to address equity issues by advocating the promotion of traditional apprenticeship in remote and infrastructurally poor areas. TVET policy also takes into account the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act of 1982, which established a quota system stipulating that 2% of the workforce in companies

with over 50 employees must be persons with disabilities. Zambian policy intends to develop flexible and inclusive programmes that provide mechanisms for equitable access to basic education for the disabled and children with special educational needs. The Namibian COSDECs were set up specifically to support skills development for disdvantaged rural communities.

HIV/AIDS presents a particular challenge for equity in the SADC region. A number of countries have developed interventions in their TVET systems in this respect, although there is often more aspiration than implementation.

In Botswana, BOTA has sought to overcome the initial tardiness of policy response to HIV/AIDS issues in TVET. The BOTA HIV/AIDS Division is tasked with driving the coordination of HIV/AIDS interventions in training institutions. To this end it has developed a model HIV/AIDS policy for vocational training institutions which has been structured so that individual institutions can use it as a guideline for institution-specific policy. BOTA requires all vocational training institutions who apply for registration and accreditation to have an HIV/AIDS policy in place and to prove the implementation of HIV/AIDS-related activities. A range of other initiatives to combat HIV/AIDS in the TVET sector have been implemented, such as a quarterly learner-driven magazine and an annual HIV/AIDS Drama competition. HIV/AIDS unit standards are compulsory in any qualification of the BNVQF. HIV/AIDS committees have been established in all colleges and Brigades, and activities are monitored through monthly reports to headquarters. The committees receive technical, financial or material support from DTVET as needed.

In Zambia, the integration of issues such as HIV/AIDS, gender and disability in TVET was a major concern for the TEVET Development Programme (TDP). Spearheaded by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Vocational Training (MSTVT) and TEVETA in 2005, many training institutions now have policies on HIV/AIDS, gender and disability, but the challenge is translating these policies into practical actions. No evaluations have as yet been conducted on implementation of these interventions.

In Zimbabwe, the National Action Plan (NAP) for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC - many of whom are affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic) is a government initiative developed through a multi-sectoral consultative process. In partnership with the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, NAP aims at reaching out to all OVCs through districts and local authorities with the support of Save the Children, Norway. Recently the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (MHTE) developed and established HIV/AIDS policies and sector-specific plans for its various constituents, which include access to TVET. Through workshops supported by UNESCO Harare, the MHTE rolled out six college-specific policies which address the rights of affected persons, management of HIV/AIDS and employee guidelines.

Some other SADC countries have begun to target HIV/AIDS in TVET but to a lesser extent. This includes an awareness campaign in TVET institutions in Lesotho and a policy commitment to build the capacity of TVET teachers and instructors to integrate HIV and AIDS issues into TVET programmes; the development of new modules addressing HIV issues in Mozambique; and an education sector-wide programme of HIV/AIDS education, awareness and counselling in Seychelles.

South Africa's TVET policies have not previously emphasised issues of HIV/AIDS and the associated erosion of skills in the economy. The capacity of FET colleges to address challenges of HIV/AIDS appears to be minimal. The challenges presented by the HIV/AIDS scourge, however, are starting to influence skills planning initiatives in the country. The 2008 *National Plan for FET Colleges* cites the impact on students of the HIV/AIDS epidemic, and some FET college HIV/AIDS initiatives have been launched. But these are still in their infancy, with only two out of 50 colleges having dedicated staff to provide HIV/AIDS advisory and counselling services.

In other SADC countries, however, HIV/AIDS strategies in the TVET sector have yet to emerge.

3.11 Open and distance learning for TVET

Open and distance learning (ODL) for TVET provision is a particular priority of the SADC region. However, as the data in Table 3.1 suggest, ODL is still in its infancy in most countries across the region.

Table 3.18:
TVET ODL provision

Country	ODL activities
Botswana	The Botswana College of Open and Distance Learning (BOCODOL) has developed a number of vocational programmes, accredited by BOTA. However, concerns have been raised about success rates. ODL was one of the elements of EU-Botswana cooperation on TVET and collaboration between BOCODOL and FCTVE was proposed. However, this has not been implemented.
DRC	No ODL policy priorities or significant practical efforts reported.
Lesotho	No ODL policy priorities or significant practical efforts reported.
Malawi	ODL is mentioned in policy, but there are no ODL providers of TVET to date.
Mauritius	Mauritius has developed strategies for competency-based assessment and competency-based qualifications, as well as for flexible learning where ODL is featured. The 'Sankore' project envisages that all curricula will be digitised for TVET in Mauritius. A team has been assigned to explore the possibility of introducing mobile learning. MITD also intends to become a regional training centre for TVET trainers through ODL.
	Flexible learning has been introduced, most notably in the field of ICT, through Cisco and Microsoft programmes where students do not have to be present in the classroom. To date, 888 trainees have been trained on the Cisco course. MITD intended to launch an International Passport in E-Business online course in 2010.
Mozambique	No ODL policy priorities or significant practical efforts reported.
Namibia	Although Namibia has an ODL infrastructure, this has not yet been used for TVET.
Seychelles	The Education Act 2004 provided for the creation of the Adult Learning and Distance Education Centre (ALDEC). Other policies dealing with ODL include the National Distance/Open Learning Policy launched in 2003; the Operational Model for Distance Education in Seychelles (2005); Guidelines for Distance Education Implementation (2005), and the Guidelines and Procedures for Securing a Distance Education Student Bank Loan (2005). A number of recent developments within the context of the Education Reform Plan 2009-2010 are expected to have a significant bearing on the responsibility for and development of ODL in line with the provisions of the Tertiary Education Bill (2010).
	A total of 26 learners are enrolled in distance-based postgraduate qualifications across 8 institutions, most of which are external to Seychelles and do not relate to TVET.
South Africa	ODL is not a major focus of TVET policy. Technisa used to offer distance-based TVET programmes but it no longer exists. Private providers offer some distance-based provision, but this is often not accredited on South Africa's National Qualifications Framework, and no further information on the ODL sector was provided.
Swaziland	No ODL policy priorities or significant practical efforts reported.
Tanzania	The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training released the Information and Communication Technology Policy for Basic Education in 2007. Although this Policy is limited to basic education, the Ministry observes that it is linked to related activities in TVET.
	VETA is in the process of building an ICT Centre of Excellence in Dar es Salaam. Similar efforts are ongoing at the Dar es Salaam Institute of Technology (DIT), where a Masters Programme in Facilities Management is being offered in collaboration with Leeds Metropolitan University in the UK by distance learning. DIT has also installed a supercomputer which will allow it to offer a number of courses for distance learning.
Zambia	The Fifth National Development Plan aims to increase access to TEVET through distance learning facilities; identify and utilise appropriate technologies and methodologies for facilitating distance and open learning, and promote e-learning. However, ODL in TVET is not yet developed.
Zimbabwe	The 2002 Science and Technology Policy highlighted the need to expand facilities for distance education centres at the tertiary level in order to support technical skills training as part of its policy thrust for higher education. Likewise, the National Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Policy Framework highlights the promotion of e-learning and use of e-learning materials in the education and training sector. However, no evidence of implementation was provided in the national monitoring report.

Six of the 13 SADC countries in this study have developed policies for open and distance learning. However, many of the ODL policies are not new and most of these countries note the slow rate of progress in implementing ODL programmes. Most reported developments in ODL are based in higher education institutions, for example in South Africa and Tanzania. Capacity to implement ODL programmes in the SADC region appears to be limited, particularly for TVET ODL provision.

3.12   Regional and international cooperation

It is striking that regional and international cooperation is almost invisible in the study. Whilst it was not selected as an indicator for piloting in the monitoring tool, the national consultants were requested to address this theme explicitly in their literature reviews and it was also implicitly relevant to many of the indicator themes. However, SADC received only eight references to regional and international cooperation across the national literature reviews and most of these simply cite the SADC Protocol in passing. There is no presented evidence whatsoever of active collaboration on TVET matters in the region, although it is clear that such collaboration is taking place. The literature review bibliographies, however, do point to a number of regional events at which discussions have taken place on TVET.

It is striking, too, that there is very little mention made in the national monitoring reports or literature reviews of the role played by international development cooperation agencies. Whilst the dominance of Education for All over the past two decades has been accompanied by a decline in the involvement of development cooperation agencies, the very significant role that these agencies have played in research, systems planning and institutional development is rarely mentioned across the national documents. Roughly one in six items in the literature reviews' bibliographies shows evidence of support from bilateral or multilateral agencies or international NGOs, but this figure is inflated by DRC and falls to one in nine for other countries. Moreover, most of what is present in the bibliographies is not actually referenced in the reports, and what little is present in the reports is used primarily as sources of empirical data. As is noted in Chapter Two, this needs to be understood in the wider context of national consultants who, for the most part, treated government policy statements as the sole or predominant source of knowledge.

In several SADC countries, the storyline gives the impression that there has been no international influence on TVET policy or practice. This is the stated case even where there is published material to the contrary (e.g., DANIDA, 2002; Johanson and Adams, 2004; Akoojee, Gewer and McGrath, 2005; McGrath and Badroodien, 2006; McGrath, 2010). In other countries, for example in Tanzania, a historical role is acknowledged briefly but there is no sense of recent involvement of international partners.

However, in the national monitoring reports, there is some indication of the importance of certain funders, such as the EU in the case of Botswana and Namibia, and a myriad of donors in the case of DRC. There is more implicit evidence for a heightened interest in TVET in the SADC region from the African Development Bank and the World Bank cited in some of the reports (e.g. Lesotho, Mozambique and Swaziland). Interestingly, from Zimbabwe, we get some evidence of wide international support for its overall education HIV/AIDS strategy, including the TVET component. Whilst not an international cooperation agency, the Scottish Qualifications Authority is mentioned in several national monitoring reports and literature reviews as having supported the development of national qualifications frameworks.

It does appear noteworthy in a report supported by SADC that the regional dimension is so largely absent. However, given the failure of the national documents to acknowledge the presence of international agencies, it is necessary to be very cautious as to what is at the root of this absence.

Chapter Four: Key Lessons and Strategic Priorities

4.1   Introduction

As Chapter Three makes clear, there are many apparent successes in TVET in the SADC region. A major theme of this concluding chapter will be the need to better evaluate and understand these successes in order to facilitate wider learning from them. Whilst the terms of reference for this project called for identification of best practices, it is clear that there are simply not enough good data to support many confident claims regarding such practices. Conversely, Chapter Three also highlights a range of areas where the key message is one of a need for far greater efforts in the future: these, too, will be reflected upon in this chapter. Finally, Chapter Two and the accompanying report 'Developing and Piloting the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool' each offer some methodological implications for the future of the specific SADC drive to improve monitoring of TVET in the region; this will be the focus of one section of this chapter. After outlining the key lessons arising from this study, the report will conclude with a brief presentation of five themes in which regional cooperation seems particularly appropriate, informed by the discussions of the national stakeholder workshops.

It is important to stress again the importance of context in understanding TVET in the region. The countries of Southern Africa vary hugely in terms of size, both of their overall populations and their TVET systems. Overall populations vary from less than 100,000 (Seychelles) to over 50 million (DRC); whilst TVET system vary from less than 2,000 to more than 750,000 learners in the same countries, allowing for severe problems with data.

The SADC member states also vary hugely in terms of their historical trajectories, again both generally and in the specific area of TVET system development. TVET systems have been profoundly shaped by the twin forces of colonialism (British, French and Portuguese) and apartheid; the differentiated impact of missionaries; and radically different political ideologies and their views about learning and work. Levels of development range widely too, with nominal GDP varying almost 40-fold and three countries with Human Development Indexes of above 0.6 and three below 0.3, including the two lowest HDIs in the world in 2010. These huge variations mean that lessons cannot simply be plucked from one SADC member state and applied unproblematically in another; but must be interpreted within both the 'lending' and 'borrowing' contexts.

4.2   Building a 'modern' TVET system

All of the countries in the region appear to have a sense of what a 'modern' or transformed TVET system should look like, reflecting both international trends and the technical advice they have received from development partners, particularly the multilateral agencies. The key elements of a general model for TVET reform tend to include:

- a qualifications framework
- quality assurance
- policy coherence concerns
- national governance reform
- employer involvement
- public provider governance reform
- a role for private sector providers.

Additionally, several countries have also shown an interest in other elements, such as:

- decentralisation
- new funding arrangements
- new learning technologies.

There are lessons to be learned across these themes. However, it is important to balance belief in the efficacy of a tool kit for TVET reform with a realisation that development of mature systems also requires consideration of how such systems become mature in ways that are inevitably more organic. Why certain countries use or fail to use elements of the tool kit may be closely related to issues about systems maturity.

4.2.1   Qualifications frameworks

Almost all the countries of the SADC region have begun to develop a national qualifications framework and there is also commitment, at least rhetorically, to a regional framework. On the ordinal scale from 1 to 5, countries self-rated themselves with an average grade of 3.3. Whilst this is the second highest mean of the five ordinals reported in Chapter Three, it leaves considerable room for progress, particularly given the long-standing nature of many countries' commitments to qualifications framework development. Moreover, as is noted in Chapter Three, there does appear to be some over-optimistic rating in some of the countries that are still at the very earliest stages of developing their qualifications frameworks. Furthermore, recent developments in the oldest NQF in the region, that of South Africa, highlight the potentially long-term challenge of making qualifications framework reforms work, as the NQF there has been radically overhauled in the past two years.

There is much to applaud in countries' efforts to develop their national qualifications frameworks, and efforts in this area appear to be quite closely linked to progress in other aspects of TVET systems development, such as quality assurance (e.g. in Mauritius). However, it is clear that there are a number of issues that still remain unresolved in NQF reforms.

Some countries have had more success in developing vocational frameworks rather than comprehensive ones (e.g. Tanzania and Zambia) and it remains unclear whether it is better to get a vocational framework working well before contemplating the greater political challenges of including schools and universities, or whether a comprehensive model should be attempted from the outset (as in South Africa).

Nearly two decades on from the introduction of the first NQF in the region, it is still necessary to ask whether expectations of NQFs are too high. In some of the national monitoring reports, a sense comes through that the introduction of an NQF will solve many of the problems currently faced. However, the evidence of the reports, taken with the recent work done on comparative analysis of NQFs by the ILO (Allais, 2010), suggests that there needs to be more modesty and caution. NQFs can make a contribution to TVET reform but they cannot transform overnight problems with limited progression, lack of recognition of prior learning or integration of informal sector training into a national skills system. The available evidence also suggests that the attractiveness of international and older local awards will not disappear automatically with an NQF, particularly where the existing awards have strong brand recognition and international marketability, as is the case with awards from vendors such as Cisco and Microsoft.

Although several national monitoring reports make reference to ambitions for national frameworks to articulate with international qualifications, the reports are generally silent on the issue of implementing the regional qualifications framework and it appears that most countries, at least implicitly, feel that they have more than enough to do in getting their national models working without concerning themselves with the regional dimension. Thus, whilst there is a case for a regional framework as a tool for maximising labour mobility in the region, it is important that regional harmonisation should concentrate for the foreseeable future on promoting dialogue across the region regarding what each country is intending, rather than seeking to be a vehicle for strong convergence of national approaches. In this light, it is striking that there is so little monitoring and evaluation evidence available to inform dialogue on what works and what doesn't in NQF reform (but there are exceptions to this in Mauritius and South Africa).

4.2.2   Quality assurance

There is also a strong sense of commitment across the region to the improvement of quality assurance systems. Governments seem well aware that challenges of quality remain significant (see Section 4.4. below). However, although some countries are very positive about the current state of their quality assurance systems, self-ratings were lower than for the NQF on average and two countries had ratings of 1. Even where QA systems are stronger, there is a wide range of approaches and a lack of robust evidence on their effectiveness. One area that does seem fruitful for further exploration is a developmental approach to quality assurance, where the QA system pays considerable attention to capacity building of the providers who are expected to be on the front line of quality delivery (e.g. in Tanzania).

4.2.3   Policy coherence

TVET is perhaps more properly a cross-sectoral issue than falling easily under one governmental department. It is not surprising, therefore, that weaknesses in policy coherence are a concern of many of the national reports. In response, a number of countries have reorganized areas of responsibility for TVET between ministries (e.g. South Africa and Tanzania), have set up new inter-ministerial coordination structures (e.g. DRC and Mozambique), or have linked coherence to wider governance reforms (see below) by establishing national human resource development structures that include wider stakeholders (e.g. Mauritius and Seychelles). Equally, NQFs have been seen by many as a major tool for, or even a guarantor of, policy coherence.

Here, too, we have evidence of why reforms have been initiated and what they are intended to do, but lack any significant data on how any of these attempts at policy coherence have worked and whether they provide any lessons for other countries. It seems likely that policy incoherence may be best overcome when there is a clear sense of a national vision for TVET and strong leadership of the coherence process.

4.2.4   National governance reform

There has been quite widespread acceptance that national governance systems for TVET needed to change and every national stakeholder consultation pointed to progress in this area. The overall picture, however, was of reforms under way rather than fully realised, and this was reflected in a rating of 3 as both the mean and modal grading. As was noted previously, a number of countries had introduced new structures that encouraged both cross-governmental working and a stakeholder-based approach. Such ways of working are relatively new and the extent of the challenge both culturally and technically should not be underestimated.

However, it is very clear that the international neoliberal orthodoxy regarding governance is not universally shared within the SADC region. Whilst it is accepted that stakeholders should be involved in overall system governance, there is also a strong sense, particularly in the more developed countries in the region (e.g. Botswana and South Africa), that the state has a legitimate and powerful role to play in national development and should continue to take an active and leading position in the development of TVET. Given the presence of such views, and the wide range of institutional and departmental architectures on which governance reforms are being overlaid, it is essential that national models of good governance be developed rather than reading these off from an international blueprint.

4.2.5   Employer involvement

Of all the stakeholders that are being encouraged to participate more in the process of TVET development, employers are seen as the most important. This relates to the very nature of TVET, which is intended to be about relevant learning for the workplace. However, improving employer engagement has proved to be a significant challenge internationally, reflecting not just public sector reticence in engagement with employers but also limitations of employer willingness and vision. In this light, it is perhaps not surprising that this was the ordinal with the middle ranking mean score. Some countries report significant and formalised employer involvement in the TVET system (especially, Mauritius, Tanzania and Zimbabwe). However, it appears across the region that employers have typically become more engaged at the national level, with fewer countries also being successful in engaging with employers at a local level. In the area of employer engagement, too, there is a paucity of good evidence regarding what has worked and why.

Internationally, there is a growing argument about the importance of sectoral-level structures in supporting skills development. However, too few of the economies of the SADC region have sufficient scale and formalisation for there to be much in the way of developments in this regard. The presence of SETAs in South Africa is the most obvious exception to this but the lessons of SETA development are likely to be of limited salience to much of the region.

4.2.6   Public provider governance reform

Whilst there has been noticeable progress in national governance reforms, it is apparent that changes in how public providers are governed and managed are less widespread. In some cases, new governing councils have been established and more power has been given to these and/or institutional managers to make operational and even strategic decisions regarding provision (e.g. in South Africa and beginning in Namibia). In some cases, stronger QA systems and more clarity regarding key performance indicators have allowed institutions to be more accountable (e.g. Mauritius and Tanzania).

However, as with such reforms internationally, it appears that there have been some problems in the early implementation of such reforms and some concern from officials that providers are not using new powers wisely.

It does appear that serious governance reform at the public provider level is something that comes later in the sequencing of reforms than the previous reform themes cited. This perhaps reflects the relative ease with which the state can attempt national-level reform and the relative lack of reach it has even in small countries in ensuring more local reforms. Nonetheless, provider-level governance reforms do appear to be an essential element of any genuine and sustainable quality improvement in TVET as it is at this level that the actual teaching and learning must take place. In particular, it may be that such governance reforms open up possibilities for public providers to develop a collective voice that may also feed powerfully into national governance reforms.

4.2.7   A role for private sector providers

Some countries in the region have revolutionised their attitude to private training providers and have moved from a position of hostility to genuine attempts to integrate them into a single national TVET system (e.g. Mozambique and Tanzania). There may be real benefits in other countries seeking to learn from such experiences. However, in general it appears that there is still too much official ignorance of and disinterest in private providers. What is needed urgently is a better understanding at national and regional levels of the complex nature of private provision, its coverage both geographically and sectorally, and its potential to contribute to achieving TVET goals.

In some countries, the focus is more explicitly on what it termed non-formal provision. However, in others, this is understood as being part of private provision, reflecting challenges of definitions (see Section 4.8 below). Perhaps the most famous non-formal system in the region was the Botswana brigades, which have now become officially part of the public TVET system; their close equivalent, the COSDECs of Namibia, remain more autonomous.

Whilst reforming governance, quality assurance and qualifications frameworks should assist in better thinking across the range of provision types, it appears that this is not sufficient and that there is a need for a better understanding of all types of provision and how best the state should interact with them.

4.2.8   Decentralisation

As with governance, to which it is closely linked, there has been a long-standing international orthodoxy regarding the merits of decentralisation. Whilst there are strengths in this argument, it is clear that there are particular dynamics operating across the TVET systems of the region that make decentralisation a complex issue. First, there is the matter of scale. In some of the small states of the region the TVET system is simply too small for decentralisation to have much meaning. At the other end of the scale, the size of DRC and the historical weakness of the state suggest that there may be a more pressing challenge of establishing a greater degree of central control of the TVET system. In some of the more developed TVET systems in the region there is a sense of a complex approach to decentralisation in which local autonomy and greater responsiveness to local economic development opportunities and challenges should be balanced with the development of stronger national structures of curriculum development and quality assurance (e.g. Botswana and South Africa).

4.2.9   New funding arrangements

Funding, too, is an area where there have been some reforms but little progress across the region. What is striking from the national data is the huge range of public expenditure commitments to TVET. As a percentage of educational budgets, TVET expenditure ranges from 0.6% in Zambia to 13.6% in Seychelles. However, it is noteworthy that no estimate was possible for two countries, and the data from many of the rest must be treated with caution given the complexities of allocating expenditure to TVET as a result of its cross-sectoral nature. Nonetheless, it may be argued that there is too little public expenditure on TVET in some SADC countries, particularly where there has been little tradition of private sector contribution.

Levy-grant mechanisms have been introduced in some countries of the region to raise finance from employers. These, too, vary considerably in scope: from 0.5% of payroll in Mauritius to 5% in Zanzibar. Whilst the South African levy generates CAD 1b per annum, such levies in some of the other SADC states raise less than 1% of this amount. There are concerns at both ends of this spectrum regarding how levies actually translate into training. In some cases, there are worries that too many employers treat levies as taxes and do not change their attitudes towards training, that levies

are too small to support sustainable training agencies in poorer countries, and that small, micro and informal enterprises often sit outside the system. As with other key elements of the TVET reform tool kit, there is too little robust evidence regarding the performance of levy-grant systems in the SADC region.

It seems likely that there is much more private, community and employer investment in TVET in the region than can currently be captured by the data. A better understanding of the patterns of such investment might assist policymakers in learning what is publicly valued within the training system and allow them to better target resources.

4.2.10 New learning technologies

SADC has prioritised open and distance learning as an important element of TVET transformation, believing that the region has an opportunity to leapfrog technologies, as has been done with considerable success in the area of mobile telephony. However, the national monitoring reports suggest that this has not captured policymakers' attention as a priority, at least in the early stages of reform. Nonetheless, there are potential lessons to be learned from developments in some countries. Perhaps unsurprisingly, these developments are most apparent in small state settings, particularly those spread across a number of islands (Mauritius and Seychelles) or with relatively large rural areas with low population densities (Botswana).

4.3   Strengthening enterprise-based training

Although much of the focus in the standard tool kit of TVET reform is on reforming public providers and permitting private providers a 'level playing field', there is typically less attention paid to training that takes place in enterprises. Yet, it is clear that what training already goes on in enterprises could be supported more, as is being attempted by some levy-grant systems. At present, however, we know very little about the quality or extent of enterprise-based training. This is particularly true of training that takes place in the informal economy. The region generally lacks the well-developed traditional apprenticeship systems of other parts of Africa, although the national reports do highlight attempts to support traditional apprenticeship in countries such as Swaziland and Tanzania. The most thorough-going attempts to engage with micro entrepreneurship in the region arguably are found in Malawi and Zambia where the national training agency's name reflects a concern with entrepreneurship. However, as with many other aspects of this report, we lack good evidence of how national TVET systems can effectively support micro and informal enterprises.

4.4   Tackling inefficiency in TVET systems

There is a persuasive case to be made that national TVET systems in the region have improved their overall quality through adopting a range of elements of the international TVET reform tool kit. However, the primary judgements of TVET quality and efficiency must be based on the evidence of pass, throughput and destination rates, related to the unit costs of delivering these outcomes. A true measure of efficiency is not possible in any of the SADC countries in the absence of robust data on unit costs. Moreover, the data on the key quality measures are limited in both coverage and robustness. What data are available, moreover, are highly uneven. Only the reports from Mauritius, Seychelles and Tanzania provided data of pass rates greater than 75%, and pass rates vary worryingly in several SADC countries across institutions, programmes and gender. Moreover, there is an even greater lack of throughput data, which is crucial if systems' ability to retain learners is to be quantified. Only five countries in the region report on throughput, and it appears that only three can show that over half of their initial learners are exiting successfully (Mauritius, Seychelles and Zambia - the latter from a different dataset than the pass rate data.

Whilst there is merit in any form of success in certified learning, it is essential that TVET learning should bear a close relationship with labour market outcomes. The best proxy for this are destination rates. However, it is striking that there are very little data available to measure this, and most of what is available comes from small-scale one-off tracer surveys, sometimes with excessively broad definitions of employment. Thus, although the cited data from Malawi, Mauritius, South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia all report more than 50% of graduates in employment at six months after graduation, this data must be treated with extreme caution in the main. Indeed, the key lesson of the destination data is the inadequacy of attention to the need to gather data on destinations across the region. This may be symptomatic of a wider inadequacy of region-wide attention to the importance of promoting the demand-responsiveness of TVET. This is

in stark contrast, therefore, to the level of engagement in many countries with the wider reform package that has such demand-responsiveness as one of its key goals.

4.5   Promoting articulation and progression

Whilst primacy should be given to reforms aimed at improving TVET quality and efficiency, there has also been international concern with improving TVET's articulation with academic schooling and higher education. It is argued widely that young people need to be allowed to make choices about educational and occupational paths as late as possible and that education systems should avoid locking them into particular routes. There is interest, therefore, in trying to better integrate academic and vocational education into more flexible systems. This is also seen as being a way of tackling the problem of low esteem for vocational education. This appears to be less of an issue in the non-Anglophone systems of DRC and Mozambique, but there are attempts in other countries of the SADC region, such as Malawi, to rework the academic-vocational balance. Moreover, this is seen as an issue that an NQF can address, although it is difficult to find evidence of how this has worked in practice.

Another major element in the lack of parity of esteem between academic and vocational education is the historical difficulty of progressing to higher education from vocational pathways. This is also seen as something that an NQF should address and a number of national monitoring reports are very optimistic in this regard. Nonetheless, it is clear that progression from TVET to higher education remains uncommon and fraught with difficulties.

4.6   Being serious about equity

TVET systems tend to be a source of education and training that is particularly important to the poorer in society, who are disproportionately unlikely to be able to access high status academic education. In particular in Africa, traditional apprenticeship is a highly significant source of pro-poor skills development and employment opportunities. It is imperative that national formal TVET systems are serious about equity, although it is clear that this is something that they have a mixed record for internationally.

Southern Africa has fewer problems of quantitative gender inequality in schooling than many other regions. However, in none of the countries for which we have gender disaggregations is there parity of TVET enrolments, the best being Lesotho at 47%, Swaziland at 45% and Zimbabwe at 44%. Moreover, disaggregations by subject, though very limited, suggest that there is still widespread gender stereotyping. Although female pass rates are slightly higher than male pass rates in a few cases (Mozambique and Tanzania – the latter for private provision), in other countries there are significant gender imbalances in pass rates in favour of male students.

In some SADC countries, there is evidence of gender targets for enrolments (e.g. Lesotho, Malawi and South Africa), and links to employment equity legislation are present in South Africa and Tanzania. Specific programmes for training women can also be found in countries such as Mauritius, Seychelles and Swaziland. However, it may be the case that changing gender practices of public (funded) TVET systems is easier than changing employer and societal attitudes.

As was noted in Chapter Three, there has also been some concern with other dimensions of disadvantage, including disability, ethnicity (particularly in South Africa), orphanhood and rurality. Given the high incidence of HIV/AIDS in the region, SADC has identified a TVET response as a high priority. Some countries have made major efforts in this area (e.g. Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe), but overall progress on a HIV/AIDS strategy for TVET is poor and it does not feature highly in many national policies.

It is evident that there is some emerging good practice for addressing equity concerns within TVET in the region, but this needs to become more systematised. Better documentation of the existing experiences in pro-equity interventions is vital for pursuing this matter successfully.

4.7 Developing capacity for TVET transformation

TVET systems are complex and they require considerable capacity in order to function well. However, there are multiple capacity challenges for TVET across the SADC region. Some of the strongest systems are in small, middle-income countries (Botswana and Mauritius), where size does appear to lead to some constraints on capacity, whilst South Africa has particular challenges of addressing capacity development and redress simultaneously.

As Chapters Two and Three show very clearly, there are very serious research capacity constraints in the SADC region with respect to TVET, and there is rarely a good research evidence base for policy making. The weaknesses of higher education systems in producing such capacity are compounded by national TVET systems where there is little priority given to data systems (see below) or monitoring and evaluation. Too much of the TVET policy of the region can be held to reflect international policy fashions better than detailed analyses of local conditions. This is linked to a concern in some national monitoring reports about limited national policy capacity.

Institutional capacity is also limited. Although it is not addressed as an explicit theme in this report, the challenges of a new model of institutional leadership under conditions of greater autonomy are touched upon in some national contexts. Overcoming these challenges is of vital importance if reform is to be sustainable. The report is far more explicit about the limitations of staff development.

There is little evidence in policy, programmes or data systems that staff development is important across much of the region. It can be assumed that qualification levels, overall, are low. Problems may be even worse in the private than public institutions, but the data are inadequate to test this. The situation is exacerbated as TVET instructors tend to have lower income and status than either teachers in academic schools and lecturers in higher education or similarly skilled workers in the private sector. There are concerns, too, that few vocational instructors have a sufficiently strong blend of subject specialist knowledge, industrial experience and pedagogical skills.

Attention to instructor training is highly variable across the region. It is generally weakest amongst the smaller states, some of which have no provision at all. Also, it has a very different form in DRC and Mozambique compared to the Anglophone countries. In spite of the obvious importance of good quality instructional staff, this area appears to have been a low priority across much of the region to date, with very little in the way of potential good practices to explore.

4.8 Revisiting the purpose of TVET

There is a danger in writing a report such as this that the focus becomes too fragmented and microscopic, taking a series of elements of TVET in turn but without considering the broader questions both of what TVET is and what it should be for.

As was noted in Chapter One, there is not even definitional agreement regarding what this thing should be called or what it encompasses. TVET is the term used in this report as this was agreed by SADC and UNESCO and does reflect (some of) the language of some countries. However, there are grounds for thinking that TVET might be usefully replaced by other concepts such as human resources development or skills development, which are seen in some contexts as being broader notions. It is apparent that there is a pressing need for a better inter-regional understanding of what particular terms mean, even if countries are to continue with their own preferences. It may also be important to develop a glossary of what is meant by certain terms (e.g. life skills, subject knowledge, and technical skills); a taxonomy of how these relate to each other theoretically; and a theory of how their acquisition/development should be sequenced and structured. Such a discussion would also need to clarify what should be included under the rubric of TVET (or any other preferred term). It is necessary, for instance, to decide whether technical/commercial schooling, the provision of occasional vocational subjects in an otherwise academic education, and/or the infusion of a whole education with vocationally-oriented notions, such as life or employability skills, merit consideration as part of a broader skills or TVET strategy. Equally, it needs to be considered what elements of higher education are also properly parts of TVET: for instance, non-advanced provision in TVET institutions; provision in specialist advanced technical, vocational or professional institutions; the provision of vocational subjects in universities (and whether these include subjects such as law and medicine); and/or the infusion of all university programmes with employability skills.

For SADC/UNESCO, one of the objectives of the baseline survey of TVET in the region, as cited in the original Terms of Reference, was to 'review and assess the extent to which SADC reforms have contributed to the development of the skills needed to drive economic development and reduce unemployment and poverty in the region'. The evidence presented in

Chapter Three raises concerns about the clarity of national visions regarding what TVET is for. The widespread weakness of data systems, particularly on any key performance indicator, can give the impression that there is little concern even that TVET should lead to employment. Certainly, there is little mention of the recent international concern with promoting employability, and nothing at all about even broader notions such as capability or active citizenship.

Whilst there is considerable rhetoric about TVET's developmental role, this is often all that statements about TVET's developmental role equal. National or regional theories of how TVET plays a developmental role are practically absent. Instead, there is a tendency to present formulae that TVET improves competitiveness and insertion into the global knowledge economy, which tell nothing about what these concepts mean in national contexts or how national TVET systems go about supporting these larger policy objectives. It is not surprising, therefore (as is noted in Section 3.1) that several countries still have little to say about the developmental potential and impact of TVET in their overall national development strategies. This gap seems particularly striking as African countries experience high economic growth levels that increasingly bring about new skills challenges.

Further development in any or all of these areas may be particularly appropriate themes for a regional development process.

4.9   Reflecting on the state of TVET knowledge

A recurrent theme of this report has been the paucity of data, information and knowledge about the state of TVET in the region. This is one of the most pressing problems facing TVET in SADC member states and is a serious obstacle to system development and improving quality.

It is evident that TVET MIS systems are often absent or weak in the SADC region. This was by far the worst ordinal in the national monitoring reports, with a mean of 2.2 and no 5 rankings. As has been noted, there are huge data gaps and weaknesses for several indicators in the pilot monitoring tool and there are real challenges in making any monitoring exercise sustainable. This concern is discussed in more detail in the accompanying report on 'Developing and Piloting the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'. Even getting basic data and ensuring their accuracy is beyond some systems, and the ability to disaggregate for target groups, to compare public and private provision or to do any forecasting are beyond the horizon for several SADC countries. It is difficult to see how TVET systems can be successfully transformed when there is a lack of feedback data at both institutional and national levels.

It is also obvious that there is little in the way of monitoring and evaluation data. Such data would allow observers to judge whether the many interventions in TVET in the region of the past 15 years have been successful. Too often in this report it has been necessary to note that a reform appears to have received some stakeholder approval but there are insufficient data to understand whether it has succeeded and, if so, why and with what implications for other countries. For national systems, such data are vital if policymaking is to become more evidence-based, but it is equally essential to any attempt at regional cooperation that there be something of some substance to be shared between member states. As was noted at the outset of the chapter, systematic learning from best practices is simply not possible with knowledge of TVET in the region as it is.

The third leg of a TVET knowledge system is research. With very few exceptions, regional governments lack internal capacity, either for the generation or analysis of research. The relative lack of donor interest in TVET has also led to a decline in internationally-funded consultancy work on TVET, although much of the available evidence on TVET delivery in the region still comes through consultancy reports. Whilst such reports are important, it is also widely acknowledged that consultancy is only a suitable tool for learning a relatively narrow range of policy-oriented information and is often constrained by excessively short time frames and the desire and/or need to find answers palatable to funders. Yet there is very little in the way of academic research on TVET in the region to complement consultancy. Universities in many SADC countries are still trying to recover from the austerity-led declines of the 1980s and 1990s and educational research is still relatively weak in most cases. More specifically, there is an almost complete absence of university-based TVET research. A review of a decade of papers in the major relevant journals carried out by members of the regional team recently revealed two lead authors who were based at regional universities at the time of publication.

Whilst there has been a recent growth of postgraduate output on TVET in South Africa, it is likely that there are hardly any new doctoral TVET graduates emerging from the region as a whole and the lack of focus on TVET teacher training does nothing to encourage universities to build their TVET capability. However, academic knowledge capacity on TVET

is crucial for system health alongside other forms of knowledge capacity as it permits the deeper consideration of key issues and the exploration of topics that are not central to immediate policy concerns but which are nonetheless important to the long-term development of TVET provision. For instance, it may be beyond the scope of a tool such as the one developed here to really understand the perceptions and experiences of students and staff, or to provide a detailed analysis of the state of teaching and learning in TVET, but it is important that such research does take place.

Without these three legs of the knowledge system being in place, it is not surprising that the monitoring reports are too dependent on policy statements that reflect where policymakers say they want the system to go rather than where the system is. Without data and research capacity, there is a tendency for 'what should be' and 'what is' to be conflated and policy intention to be taken as success. This can seriously undermine genuine attempts at reform. Thus, addressing knowledge capacity must be a major priority of TVET reform in the region.

4.10 Moving beyond the national level

This project is comparing national systems and the national reports are very concerned, as they should be, with the particularities of the national challenges of developing TVET. Almost nothing is said about regional cooperation in the national monitoring reports. However, it is important to note that SADC has been making efforts to promote regional cooperation, as noted in Chapter One, and to stress the continued salience of such efforts. It appears that the challenge at this juncture is in finding ways of regional cooperation that are genuinely attractive to national constituencies given their pressing and varied local challenges.

The national consultants were not asked to focus particularly on the role of international cooperation in national system development, and so what is included in the national monitoring reports in this regard may be far less than what is actually present. Nonetheless, it is striking in some cases that major projects of cooperation with international partners are invisible. As the international development cooperation community begins to return to a view that TVET is worth supporting, it may be important to look more closely at the lessons of the past.

4.11 Using the monitoring tool in future

It is clear that using the monitoring tool to produce the data and analysis of this report has been challenging. One major implication of the early stage of TVET development in many SADC countries is that data systems and research capacity are both weak. Nonetheless, it is apparent that one successful outcome of the project is that it has contributed to both national awareness and capacity building on these issues.

There are clearly methodological lessons that can be learnt from this pilot process. (These are discussed in greater detail in the report 'Developing and Piloting the SADC TVET Monitoring Tool'). There is broad agreement on the approach taken regarding the data gathering process. It is widely perceived that the challenges will lessen as the study is repeated and as national information and knowledge systems develop. Nonetheless, there does appear to be a need for continued regional training workshops for national consultants and for more time for national consultations both in the design and validation phases of subsequent rounds. The institutional location for future processes to complete national monitoring reports will need to be considered, and appropriate capacity made available within each SADC member state. Important lessons may be learned from the SADC/UNESCO pilot, particularly concerning the resource implications of monitoring, from UNESCO's experiences, and those of national consultants. In order to ensure regional purposes for implementing the SADC TVET monitoring tool are met, institutionalised regional capacity will be required.

Whilst there are some proposals to add to the scope of the monitoring tool, these need to be treated with considerable caution. First, any increase in the length of the tool inevitably will add to cost, timescale and complexity. Second, it is a well-established principle of data collection that an increase in the length of time required of respondents tends to reduce both the quantity and quality of returns. Third, whilst some countries may be capable of providing more and better disaggregated data, it is imperative that comparability should not be sacrificed.

This issue of comparability leads on to the three greatest concerns that were present in designing this study. First, there was a worry that countries would want radically different tools. It is noteworthy that this has not been a major issue and that all countries agree with the great majority of what the monitoring tool has prioritised. Second, there was a risk that issues of terminology and translation would undermine comparability. Whilst there have been some challenges in this

regard, they have not been significant to the overall outcomes of the study. Nonetheless, further developments regarding regional taxonomies and glossaries of TVET may be beneficial. Third, there were clear tensions regarding the extent to which comparability could and should be in the form of league tables. Whilst some tables have been presented, the importance of reading these contextually and across the whole of the report has been stressed. Success in this regard, however, can only be tested by how this report is read and used.

There have been some issues about the reliability and validity of some of the data. For the quantitative data, it is apparent that national data are not always reliable, and that reliability is difficult to ascertain in many cases. However, there are no apparent systematic biases in any particular country and the data can be read as indicative of the state of national systems. In some cases, it is likely that ordinal and narrative reporting was excessively optimistic and/or insufficiently critical. In so far as it was possible, this was controlled for in writing the regional report. Ordinal and narrative data will be essential in further iterations of the tool and report, and the data collected on this occasion through these are as good as it was possible to get in such an exercise at the present time.

4.12   Five proposals for regional cooperation

Any strategy for future regional cooperation must of course be driven by SADC and the member states. To this end, each national stakeholder workshop was asked to identify priorities for regional cooperation. This resulted in the identification of a number of strategic priority areas:

Box 4.1:
Stakeholder workshops' top 10 strategic priorities (in order of frequency)

1. TVET MIS (and monitoring and evaluation capacity)

2. Staff development, including development of TVET teacher training institutions and systems

3. Funding

4. Qualifications frameworks

5. Provider institution development

6. National governance and coordination

7. TVET for the informal economy

8. Quality assurance

9. Open and distance learning (ODL)

10. Industry involvement

This list was compared with the regional team's analysis of the national monitoring reports and their reflections on the whole process to produce a list of the five most strategic priorities. Here, the focus is on areas that seem to be particularly suitable for regional actions; there are other areas of high priority for which national efforts with a lesser regional dimension may be more appropriate.

It should be noted that funding was one of the highest priorities emerging from the set of national reports. However, it must be noted equally that concerns about funding were far more common among the poorer countries of the region and not shared equally among all SADC member states. Whilst it is undoubtedly the case that funding constraints have a limiting effect on TVET performance, the regional team see this as less amenable to regional intervention than many of the other issues. Instead, the list below includes the institutionalisation of the monitoring process as one of the five priorities, alongside strengthening of knowledge systems (incorporating TVET MIS, monitoring and evaluation, and research capacity); and the development of TVET systems (incorporating qualifications frameworks, governance, quality assurance and industry involvement), institutions and staff. These five strategic priorities form the basis for a draft Programme of Action, presented separately to SADC.

4.12.1 Institutionalising the monitoring tool

The monitoring exercise was envisaged to be a pilot for a longer-term process. The positive experience of developing this report and the feedback from national stakeholders confirm that there is a strong case for replicating the monitoring exercise and for developing it further. For effective monitoring, the tool will need to be implemented at regular intervals, although capacity limitations suggest that these intervals should not be annual. It is evident that the piloting contributed to capacity building, and that this needs to be a major focus of future developments of the monitoring process. Establishing national and regional institutional homes for the reporting process will also be vital. Moreover, further development of the monitoring tool will strengthen implementation in the other four intervention areas by monitoring their outcomes and impact.

4.12.2 Building TVET knowledge capacity

Concerns about TVET MIS and monitoring and evaluation capacity were universal across the member states' national stakeholder workshops. As has been argued, it is difficult to see how genuine TVET reform can take place without adequate data systems; the current situation is one of small pockets of excellence, some progress and huge weaknesses. Given the size of some national systems, and in the light of the broader commitment to developing educational statistics of the African Union and the Association for the Development of Education in Africa, it seems that a programme of TVET MIS capacity building is most appropriately regional in scale and organization. Such an exercise would also have to be linked to definitional and taxonomical work that could encourage the development of a regional discussion of different conceptions of TVET. It would also logically be linked to any future developments of the current monitoring tool and could potentially lead to the development of a broader regional reporting system combining narrative and statistics, as in the European ReferNet model. The development of TVET in the region is also constrained by the lack of academic research. It may be only through regional cooperation between governments and universities that programmes for training new TVET researchers (and research users) or for training TVET staff (see below) become viable and sustainable.

4.12.3 Approaches to system development

This chapter has made reference to an international tool kit for TVET transformation from which all countries in the region have drawn. It is evident that there has been, and continues to be, important progress made in the implementation of core reforms, such as qualifications frameworks, quality assurance, and governance. SADC has already played a significant role in trying to promote the sharing of lessons in some of these areas. The national monitoring reports give an indication of much that has been tried and are suggestive of a number of successes and failures that could provide useful lessons for others in the region. However, it is apparent that more can be done here to encourage a regional understanding of the contextual, sequencing, political and technical issues that are involved in trying to introduce a range of reforms, which have potentially significant impacts upon each other. Whilst this report is suggestive of some parts of a storyline about the processes of national and regional TVET development, SADC could play a valuable role in promoting further lesson learning in this area. From the national stakeholder consultations, it appears that NQFs are the greatest concern within the tool kit, but there are some concerns too about quality assurance and national governance.

4.12.4 Institutional development

There appears to have been relatively more attention paid in reform efforts to national system development than to reforms of public TVET institutions, in spite of much of the international policy discourse. Yet TVET cannot be successful if providers are weak. There is an urgent need, therefore, to further develop programmes for reforming public providers in terms of governance, leadership and staff. There is significant support for a region-wide effort focusing on how to develop a new generation of leaders of public TVET institutions and on how to support them in change management.

4.12.5 Staff development

The analyses of the national stakeholders and the regional team suggest that improving the quality of TVET staff in terms of qualifications and industry experience, improving the system of provision of TVET teacher education, and addressing remuneration/status issues are key priorities across the region, and would benefit from a regional strategy.

Bibliography

African Union (AU). 2007. *Strategy to Revitalize Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Africa*. African Union, Addis Ababa.

Akoojee, S. 2003. "Private further education and training", in HSRC (eds.) *Human Resources Development Review 2003*. HSRC Press, Cape Town.

Akoojee, S. 2005 *Private further education and training in South Africa*. HSRC Press, Cape Town.

Akoojee, S. and McGrath, S. 2007. "Public and Private Further Education and Training in South Africa: a comparative analysis of the quantitative evidence". *South African Journal of Education* 27/2.

Akoojee, S., Gewer, A. and McGrath, S. (eds.) 2005. *Vocational and Education and Training in Southern Africa*. HSRC Press, Cape Town.

Allais, S. 2010. *The implementation and impact of National Qualifications Frameworks: Report of a study in 16 countries*. ILO, Geneva, in press.

Blom, R. 2010. "All parents pay their taxes": Presentation to the 3rd Umalusi Annual Adult and Vocational Education and Training (AVET) Conference, Pretoria, September 2010.

Botswana Training Authority (BOTA). 2006. *Baseline Survey of the Vocational Training Sector in Botswana. Volume 1 & 2*. BOTA Research Team, Gaberone, Botswana.

Chakroun, B. 2007. *Shaping Responsive TVET Systems in the MEDA Region: The Impact of a Regional Approach*. MEDA-ETE Regional Project. Second Annual Forum.

Danida. 2002. *Evaluation Report: Danish Assistance to Vocational Education and Training*. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Copenhagen.

EU. 2003. *Council Conclusions of 5 May 2003 on reference levels of European average performance in education and training (Benchmarks)*. European Commission, Brussels.

EU. 2010. *European Quality Assurance Reference Framework*. European Commission, Brussels.

Johanson, R. and Adams, A. 2004. *Skills development in sub-Saharan Africa*. World Bank, Washington, D.C.

McGrath, S. 2000. "Coming in from the cold? Further education and training in South Africa". *Compare* 30/1.

McGrath, S. 2005. "'Skills for productive citizenship for all': the place of skills development for micro and small enterprises in South Africa". *Journal of Education and Work* 18/1.

McGrath, S. 2010. "Beyond aid effectiveness: the development of the South African further education and training college sector, 1994-2009". *International Journal of Educational Development* 30/5, pp 525-534.

McGrath, S. and Badroodien, A. 2006. "International Influences on the evolution of skills development in South Africa". *International Journal of Educational Development* 26/5.

Mauritius Institute of Training and Development. 2010. Mauritius Institute of Training and Development Database.

SADC. 1997. *SADC Protocol on Education and Training*. SADC, Gaborone.

SADC. 2003. *Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan*. SADC, Gaborone.

SADC. 2005. *Towards a Southern African Development Community Qualifications Frameworks: Concept Paper and Implementation Plan*. SADC, Gaborone.

SADC. 2007. *Towards a Framework for the Improvement of Quality Assurance Systems in Member States*. SADC, Gaborone.

SADC. 2010. *Information on Qualifications in the SADC Region and Discussion of a Mechanism and Criteria for Establishing Comparability and Equivalence of Qualifications*. SADC, Gaborone.

UK ReferNet. 2009. *Thematic Overview: United Kingdom*. UK ReferNet, London.

UMALUSI. (2008). *FET Private Providers Site Visit and Verification Report*. UMALUSI, February 2008, Pretoria.

Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). 2010. Survival rate data 2009. Dar es Salaam.

Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). 2010. VET Catalogue 2010, Dar es Salaam.

World Bank. 2010. "The education system in Swaziland: Training and skills development for shared growth and competitiveness". World Bank Working Paper No. 188. Africa Region Human Development Department. World Bank, Washington, D.C.

The Southern African region has made considerable progress in the provision of free and compulsory primary education since 1990. However, the region is still facing challenges with gender equity and access to secondary education, technical and vocational education and higher education as well as provision of quality and relevant education for all.

In spite of the importance of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) for development and a range of national reform initiatives to support TVET over the past two decades, major concerns remain regarding the state of TVET in the Southern African region. These led the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Secretariat and UNESCO to intervene through the commissioning of a regional review of the state of TVET and a pilot TVET monitoring tool, with a view to developing a new strategic programme of action for regional cooperation in TVET. This report presents the findings of this exercise.

The report identified five key areas for strategic support: (1) Policy development and harmonization; (2) TVET Management of Information System, Research and Monitoring and Evaluation; (3) TVET Staff Development /TVET Teacher Training; (4) Systems and Institutional Development; (5) Regional Coordination.