



EDUCATION TOWARDS FUTURE
SECTOR PROJECT "POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION"

3



Fit for Life?

Non-Formal Post-Primary Initiatives
in Yemen, Malawi and Namibia

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Preface

This report does not claim to be comprehensive. Sources of information have been country case studies, documentary and official websites of agencies and organisations. Some follow-up questions were put directly to staff and consultants of selected development agencies by telephone or by e-mail.

However, it should be emphasised that the views expressed in this report remain those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the positions of the various agencies, including GTZ and the German Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development.

I would like to thank the GTZ sector program on post-primary education and primarily the German Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) for the opportunity to examine this important area of assistance to education in Africa.

Katharina Ochse
Berlin, January 31, 2008

Executive summary

With the aim of achieving universal primary education closer at hand, an increasing number of pupils in sub-Saharan Africa are knocking at the doors of secondary education schools without being admitted – or when they are admitted, dropping out at high rates. The predicted growth of the primary-school-age population by 22 percent and the understandable pressure to extend the cycle of basic education in schools to nine years and also to expand upper secondary education capacity puts further pressure on post-primary education. In light of the difficulties of the formal secondary education sector to absorb the growing numbers of learners and to improve in quality within a reasonable time frame, it is likely that the number of children with no access to quality post-primary education will continue to be high for a number of years.

Without losing sight of the necessity to improve access to and quality of education in the formal sector, the needs of learners who have dropped out of school have to be taken care of. Therefore the current state and role of the non-formal education sector should be revised. In doing so the development of the formal as well as the non-formal education sector has to be seen from a holistic perspective in order for each sector to develop efficiently and for the creation of synergies between both sectors.

A more holistic perspective will reveal that programmes labelled with the term “non-formal” are sometimes very similar to those in the formal sector. At the same time, the expression “non-formal education” is used to cover educational offers which differ so greatly in content, length, target groups, curricula, size and relation with the formal education sector, that it seems appropriate to elaborate a more differentiated terminology. The blurring of the borders between the two sub-sectors calls for a discourse that reflects the increase in diversification in the education sector in terms of institutional forms of learning and in terms of learning needs.

Though there are a considerable numbers of non-formal post-primary education initiatives in sub-Saharan Africa, this sub-sector of the education system is a blank spot on the map. It tends to be seen as the “poor relative” of formal education and has the reputation of being of lower quality.

This synopsis looks at non-formal post-primary education in Yemen, Namibia and Malawi. In all three countries post-primary education is characterised by poor quality, causing a high number of learners to drop out. Existing non-formal post-primary education initiatives cannot accommodate an adequate number of out-of-school youth. There is a general lack of information and data upon which to build. Thus research is to be undertaken to investigate present challenges and opportunities of non-formal education. Though there seems to be a growing awareness in Yemen, Namibia and Malawi of the educational needs of out of school children and youth, non-formal post-primary education is not in the centre of the ministries’ attention. There are few policies in place and those are not necessarily implemented; relevant data are not included in education management systems. Furthermore this sub-sector is chronically under funded and the cooperation between relevant ministries and between ministries and non-governmental organisations working in the field of non-formal post-primary education seems not to be close.

Existing programmes are highly diverse in terms of objectives, target groups, content, pedagogy and effectiveness. In general there are no regular assessment and evaluation procedures in place. If non-formal post-primary education is to cater for those who do not have access to formal secondary education or who drop out, there is a great need for systematic collection of information as well as for in-depth studies on existing non-formal post-primary education, including that offered by faith-based organisations, in order to provide a sound basis for its further development.

Furthermore, closer cooperation and coordination between all actors involved should have a high priority in order to make further development efficient and create synergies. To this end, a high-level coordinating committee should be put in place.

The needs of out-of school youth are diverse. It seems to be common to integrate them into programmes addressing adult learning needs, especially in the area of literacy and skills training. This approach does not take age-specific learning abilities into account. Non-formal education offers targeting youth between 12 and 16 years should aim at (re)-integrating them into the formal school system. This requires creating links to the formal sector through assessment validation and certification. The establishment of a national qualifications framework would help to set standards and thus foster the development of high quality non-formal education. For older youths who do not wish to return to the formal school system, alternative options need to be elaborated, focussing more on paving the way to the labour market.

Though at present the number of out-of school youths is still higher in rural than in urban areas, the needs of the latter should not be left out as this group is growing. Attention also needs to be paid to gender issues as more girls are out of school than boys in most areas.

Funding is a key issue of non-formal education, as most countries struggle to provide sufficient funds for the formal education system. Adult literacy programmes excluded, most governments seem to rely on private and international funding for non-formal education offers. As a possible way out, the option of fostering public-private partnerships and the creation of incentives for non-governmental organisations to offer quality non-formal post-primary education should be looked into.

1. Introduction

According to Education for All (EFA), universal primary education should be achieved by 2015. Efforts to reach this goal in sub-Saharan Africa are gaining ground, although in the region there are still 33 million children out of school (UNESCO, 2007: 49), and the quality of the education provided is of great concern. With 2015 approaching, attention needs to be paid to the quality of education as well as to education beyond primary level.

The long-standing policy of giving priority to primary education, which according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) encompasses grade 1 to 6, was challenged in the mid-1990s. Back then, efforts were begun to make basic education compulsory, which according to ISCED includes primary and lower secondary school grades (1-9).¹ In a knowledge-based global economy, a good quality primary education is “just a first step on a ladder and not a destination” (Human Development Report, 2006:267). Based on the multi-year study on “Secondary Education and Training in Africa” (SEIA), the Africa Human Development Department (AFTHD) within the World Bank came to see secondary education “as the cornerstone of educational systems in the 21st century.”² Completion of secondary education is seen as a key entry point in the provision of the high threshold of human capital required for a knowledge economy.

The global average gross enrolment rate in secondary is at 66 percent in 2005 (UNESCO, 2007:33), while in sub-Saharan Africa it is at only 32 percent (UNESCO 2007:58). Thereby the region experienced an increase of 55 percent in secondary education since 1999 (UNESCO, 2007:66).³ More and more pupils in the region are knocking at the doors of institutions offering secondary education (see SEIA 2007), .But a considerable number of learners do not enter school⁴ or - sooner or later - drop out, some of them for some time, some of them without ever returning to the formal school system. It is assumed that sub-Saharan Africa excludes most of the 93 million children of secondary school age (Lewin, 2006). In this region an average of only 30% of each age cohort completes junior secondary education and only 12 percent senior secondary education.⁵ Throughout the next decade, the pressure will grow as the primary school age population is projected to grow by 22 percent (UNESCO, 2007b).⁶

For many years governments and international organisations focused on formal education. But in recent years in a number of sub-Saharan African countries there has been a noticeable increase of initiatives outside the formal education sector, providing out-of-school children and youth with (further) learning opportunities. The goal of these initiatives is to (re-)integrate them into the formal education sector and/or to foster their employability. The growth of the non-formal education sector in Africa (Thompson, 2001:5, 15 and Hoppers, 2006:12) is – in part – a consequence of the underperformance of the formal education system and the difficulties it meets in catering for the needs of all learners. Over the past years non-formal education has become “in all its diversity [...] de facto the hothouse for all kinds of new visions, forms, approaches and methodologies

1 Though the term “basic education” is nowadays widely being used and expresses a country’s commitment to the universalisation of education beyond primary education, the duration varies: in 44 percent of the countries, basic education consists of nine years of schooling; in about a third it consists of ten years (20 percent) or eight years (11 percent). In the remaining countries it consists of either seven or fewer years or eleven or more years (see UNESCO, 2007)

2 <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTEDUCATION/0,,contentMDK:20521252-menuPK:738179-pagePK:148956-piPK:216618-theSitePK:282386,00.html> [10.1.2008]

3 In Arab states the total enrolment at secondary level has increased by 25 percent since 1999 to reach 28 million in 2005. The average GER (gross enrolment rate) is said to have risen from 60 percent to 68 percent, see: UNESCO, 2007a

4 “Of the 115 million children of school age not enrolled in school, 42 million or 35 percent live in Sub-Saharan Africa although it only has 10 percent of the world population.” ADEA: The Challenge of Learning, 2003: 31.

5 <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/AFRICAEXT/EXTAFRREGTOPEDUCATION/EXTAFRREGTOPSEIA/0,,contentMDK:21196704-pagePK:34004173-piPK:34003707-theSitePK:732077,00.html>

6 Thirteen percent in the Arab States, see: UNESCO 2007a.

for learning, and thus a source of renovation and vitalisation for education as a whole” (Hoppers, 2006:16).

With the upcoming focus on post-primary education, the continuing difficulties in the provision of secondary education and the increase of non-formal post-primary education initiatives, there is a need to take a closer look at the present role of non-formal education, its current state, and the challenges that go along with it. The purpose of this synopsis is to present non-formal education initiatives in Yemen, Malawi and Namibia.⁷ The focus is on non-formal post-primary education offers for children and youth.

After defining the terms “formal” and “non-formal education” as well as “post-primary education”, the state of the formal post-primary education system in sub-Saharan Africa will be described. Its principal weaknesses will be highlighted, as mainly they lead to the increased need for and increase in non-formal post-primary education programmes. The impact, effectiveness, relevance and success of non-formal post-primary education for children and youth depend on its capacity to respond to those needs and its ability to compensate the inefficiencies of the formal education system. Subsequently, major issues of concern for the development of the non-formal education sector will be highlighted, followed by presentations of non-formal post-primary education in Yemen, Namibia and Malawi. The synopsis will conclude with a set of recommendations for the further development of non-formal post-primary education.

It needs to be stressed that non-formal post-primary education has not been in the focus of educational research about and in the countries taken into consideration for this synopsis. The country studies and sources available on the Internet provide little systematic and in-depth information about non-formal post-primary education, in particular regarding the group aged 12-16, which should be of particular concern for non-formal post-primary education. Available information, especially data, is regrettably very limited, not always comparable and thus does not allow for much analysis.

⁷ These are countries in which GTZ is or has been supporting education programmes.

2. Formal, non-formal and para-formal education

2.1 Formal education

According to the International Standard Classification of Education, formal education is “provided in the system of schools, colleges, universities and other formal educational institutions that normally constitutes a continuous ‘ladder’ of full-time education for children and young people, generally beginning at age five to seven and continuing up to 20 or 25 years old.”⁸

2.2 Non-formal education

Non-formal education became part of the international discourse on education policy in the late 1960s. Today the term is rarely used in the industrialised world. Defining non-formal education represents a major challenge. The difficulty is obvious, as the term itself only tells what it is not.

Together with “formal” and “informal” education,⁹ non-formal education forms a tripartite categorisation of learning systems. The International Standard Classification of Education defines non-formal education as “any organised and sustained educational activities that do not correspond exactly” to its definition of formal education. “Non-formal education may therefore take place both within and outside educational institutions, and cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture. Non-formal education programmes do not necessarily follow the ‘ladder’ system, and may have differing duration.”¹⁰ Thus non-formal education covers a very broad range of educational activities, including those offered by formal education. Hence the term “non-formal education” is misleading as it implies that everything offered under this notion is more or less the same. Thus one might conclude that it would be helpful to elaborate a more differentiated terminology.

2.3 Para-formal education

In recent years the abovementioned tripartite learning system has been further differentiated, by introducing the term “para-formal education system” (Carron and Carr-Hill, 1991:21-23, Carron, Carr-Hill and Peart, 2001:345). It is used to describe a system of intermediates between non-formal and formal systems and “educational programmes that provide a substitute for regular full-time schooling. The main objective of these programmes is to offer a second chance to those, who, for various reasons could not benefit from the regular school system at the ordained moment” (Carron, Carr-Hill and Peart, 2001:345). While retaining the flexibility of non-formal systems in terms of schedules and venues, inter alia, para-formal systems share such characteristics of formal systems as a pre-determined curriculum and equivalency points in terms of assessment, certification etc.). Its closeness to the formal system is the reason why some observes distinguish it from non-formal education.

⁸ http://www.unesco.org/education/information/nfsunesco/doc/isced_1997.htm

⁹ Its organised form distinguishes it from informal education, which is seen as a “lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment - from family and neighbours, from work and play, from the market place, the library and the mass media” Smith, 2001.

¹⁰ http://www.unesco.org/education/information/nfsunesco/doc/isced_1997.htm

2.4 Relationship of formal to non-formal education sector (roles/functions/objectives)

Despite existing similarities between formal, para-formal and non-formal education, the distinction remains that formal education is ALWAYS under the control of the state and thus has to follow its rules, while non-formal education remains to lesser or greater degree outside the state's grasp. This gives non-formal education much more flexibility to respond to immediate and changing needs of a variety of learners. No matter how close or far away non-formal education offers remain to the formal sector, the latter will always serve as a point of reference.

The definition of the relation between the formal and the non-formal education sector is a key issue. Regarding the learning process itself, the division between formal and non-formal (as well as informal and para-formal) education is artificial. Historically seen, the development of the non-formal education sector is a result of the difficulties many countries had in the late 1960s and early 1970s in financing the expansion of formal education, in countering low enrolment and high dropout rates, and in facing concerns about inadequate curricula and low quality of education leading to low levels of learning achievements.

The education systems did not adapt fast enough to economic, social and political changes. As a matter of fact, past education systems have been proven to be rather resistant to reforms. Thus the insight grew that changes were more likely to come about from without the formal education sector, and the distinction between formal, non-formal and informal education was introduced (see Smith: 2001). It was acknowledged that "development primarily depended on the people themselves" The focus on poverty reduction gave "considerable impetus to non-formal education" (Smith: 2001), especially for vulnerable groups. Over the past 30 years the role and function of the non-formal education sector varied greatly. It depended heavily upon the services (access, equity, content and quality) provided by the formal education sector.

A number of educational theoreticians and academics expect non-formal education to provide greater opportunity for innovation in education. Ahmed (1975) proposed that non-formal education's *raison d'être* is to challenge the conventional production function of education. Empowering is operationally defined as the process of "people gaining an understanding of, and control over social, economic and/or political forces in order to improve their standing in society".

At present there are two quite different perspectives on the relation between non-formal and formal education. Some view non-formal education – at least for the age group of learners between 12 and 16 years – as a way to compensate for the weaknesses of the formal education system and to bridge its gaps. They regard non-formal education as a stepping-stone to mainstreaming children and youth into formal schools as and when they are ready. Thus non-formal education is seen as a complementary form of education. Others see non-formal education rather as an alternative to formal education. The ADEA Working Group on Non-Formal Education (WGNFE) stresses that “nonformal education does not only fill a gap. It also ensures that countries address education and training in a more holistic manner as they progress towards the goal of basic education for all.”¹¹

With the increase in non-formal education initiatives, the aforementioned categorisation of learning systems is being put into question: Thompson (2001:29) asks for the “the distinctions between ‘formal’ and ‘non-formal’ [...] to be removed. NFE [non-formal education] should be recognized as an integral part of the education system with functional routes of access between the two.” Thereby Thompson argues that the inclusion of non-formal education, thus its mainstreaming, is “justified on the grounds of equity and quality of provision, and in the context of the achievement of the goals of education of for all. [...] mainstreaming could remove NFE [non-formal education] [...] from the periphery and contribute to solving the problem of social exclusion, and marginalization.” However, he explained, “the qualitative development of NFE [non-formal education]” has to be “a prerequisite for system integration.” There is no doubt that “in the absence of a link to the formal education system, non-formal education programs risk evolving into parallel, frequently inferior, education systems for disadvantaged children, rather than as bridges to the regular classroom.”

The answer to the question of whether non-formal post-primary education should be provided as a complement or an alternative to non-formal education has to take into account the capacities of formal education, of the non-formal education sector and the needs and age of learners to be targeted. Undoubtedly for the age group of 12-16, continuous priority needs to be given to the improvement of access to formal education and its quality.

3. Post-primary education

3.1 Classification of Post-primary education

Traditionally school education is divided between primary and secondary education. According to the International Standard Classification of Education, school education is divided into 3 levels:

- Level 1 corresponds to primary education (or the first stage of basic education) and encompasses in principle six years of full-time equivalent schooling. The age of entrance is usually not younger than five years or older than seven years.
- Level 2 corresponds to lower secondary (or the second stage of basic education). Lower secondary education begins some 6 years after primary education and ends after some 9 years of school since the beginning of primary education.
- Level 3 corresponds to upper secondary education, which begins at the end of full-time compulsory education for those countries that have a system of compulsory education. The entrance age to this level is typically 15 or 16 years.

Yet it has to be mentioned that, depending on the country, those levels vary in starting and exit points as well as duration.

The term “post-primary education” only emerged in recent years. With the relative proximity of 2015 – and thus the targeted achievement of primary education for all - concerns about education beyond the primary level in general have increased. Based on the categorisation of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCE), post-primary education starts with grade 7, thus from level 2 – Lower secondary or second stage of basic education. According to this classification Level 3 – 6 are also part of post-primary education:

- Level 3 – (Upper) secondary education
- Level 4 – Post-secondary non-tertiary education
- Level 5 – First stage of tertiary education
- Level 6 – Second stage of tertiary education

ADEA describes post-primary education as “learning opportunities made available to children and young persons having completed primary schooling or equivalent (e.g. non-formal elementary education)” (ADEA, 2007). It is all-inclusive, thus it encompasses “all forms of learning, e.g. non-formal”, “all modes of delivery” and “all types of settings (e.g workplace)”, after primary school and includes the “articulation between upper secondary and higher education”.

Accordingly, post-primary education targets an age group which starts at 11/12 years and has no upper age restrictions. Regarding its content, post-primary education is “holistic”, meaning it encompasses “traditional ‘general’ secondary education”, the development of “life skills and key competencies” as well as technical and vocational training. Objectives of post-primary education are to prepare young people for “life, society, work and further learning”, therefore post-primary education should provide “knowledge and skills for personal development, citizenship and participation in community development, employability, and entrepreneurship, learnability for higher education and/or life long learning.”

According to ADEA’s understanding post-primary education is to be provided by multiple providers. The amplitude of this definition leaves a lot of room and flexibility for a wide range of activities. To make it operational a more differentiated understanding seems advisable.

3.2 The state of post-primary education in sub-Saharan Africa

In the past, secondary education in sub-Saharan Africa has been provided only for a small elite. With the expansion of primary education from 57 percent in 1999 to 70 percent in 2005, the *demand for post-primary education* has increased, in particular for lower secondary education, which according to ISCE is to form part of basic education. It is assumed that approximately 70 percent of the group of youth eligible for post-primary education - which has the highest share of the total population – do not enter school (Feldberg et. al. 2007). In 2005 the gross enrolment rate stands at 32 percent in the region – while world-wide it is at 66 percent – thus more than double (UNESCO 2007:58). It has to be noted that children from rural areas, from low-income families and girls are less likely to attend and successfully complete secondary education.

Apart from limited access, secondary education in sub-Saharan Africa lacks *quality*. Curricula tend to be overloaded and irrelevant for the learners. They are fact-centred, abstract and dominated by decontextualised narrative knowledge. Little attention is given to generic and process skills such as analytical and creative thinking, team work, learning to learn, etc. (see SEIA, 2005:77s.)

In a number of countries there is a shortage of *teachers* for secondary education and “the numbers of unqualified teachers tend to be much higher in secondary than in primary education”. As the SEIA report (2005: 107) points out: “The shortage of teachers will continue to be the main challenge for teacher policies in the near future.” As a result, learning outcomes at secondary level are poor.

Another challenge for secondary education are high *dropout rates*. In sub-Saharan Africa, the secondary completion rate has been estimated at 10 to 20 percent. Thereby the dropout rates are higher in junior grades of secondary education and decrease dramatically toward the end, indicating that students who stay long enough to begin the last year of secondary school are likely to finish their education (see SEIA, 2005:29s.) The irrelevance of the curriculum and excessive repetition have been identified as one of the reasons for high dropout rates from secondary school (see SEIA, 2005:78s., 134). Furthermore fees and tuition are economic constraints and a further reason for learners not to get access to secondary education and to drop out.

Due to the priority given to primary education, secondary education has been chronically *under funded*. Current estimates assume that secondary education receives only 15 percent of total public spending on education, in some countries even less than 10 percent (Lewin, 2004).

Expanding equitable access and improving quality are seen as the two main challenges of secondary education worldwide because:

- There is a growing demand on the side of the learners
- Offering secondary education creates stronger motivations for learners to be successful in primary education
- Not to provide primary school graduates the opportunity to continue their education risks wasting the investments made at primary level.
- There is increasing social pressure to grant more pupils access to post-primary education.
- There is a growing need for better educated people on the labour market, including in the education sector: in order to achieve quality universal education for all, post-primary education is seen as essential for economic growth and poverty reduction
- Lower secondary education is seen as part of basic education which should be compulsory. Following international labour agreements youth under 16 years of age should not enter yet the labour market.

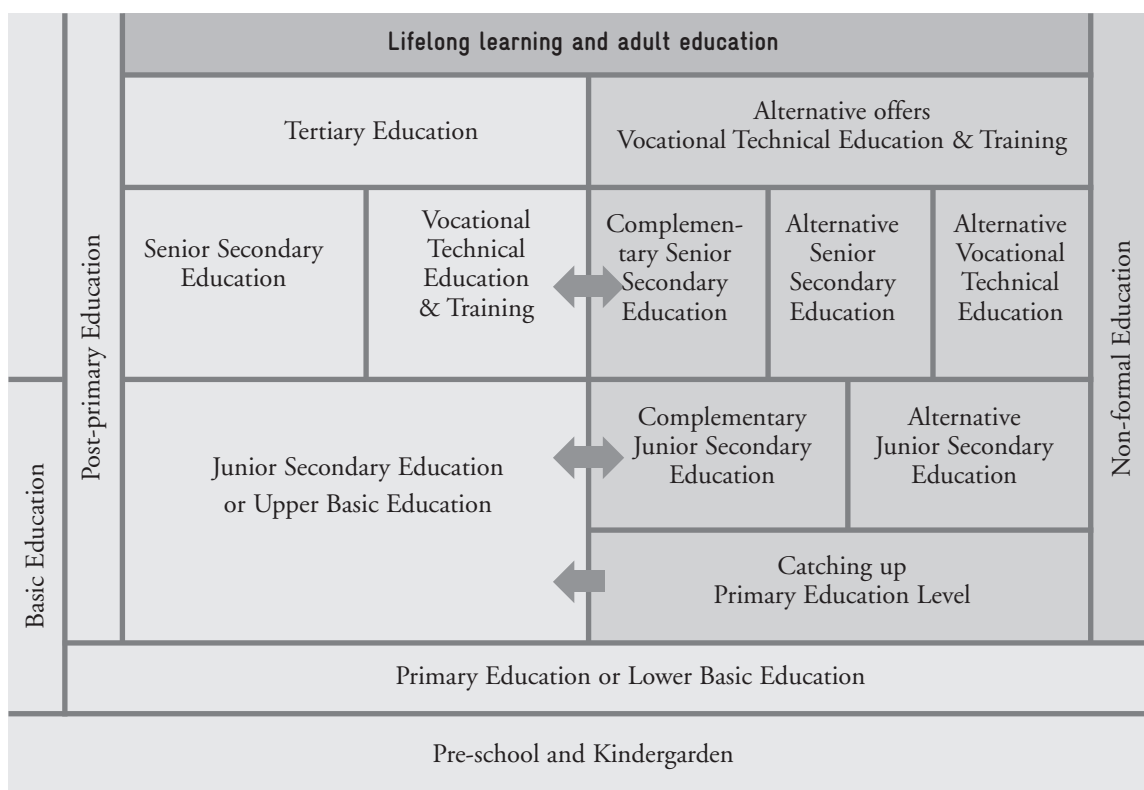
Even though weaknesses of the formal education sector and in particular the marginalisation of post-primary education in developing countries have been acknowledged by governments and development agencies, it will take time until this insight will translate into practice.

“There is all evidence available to show that traditional modes of delivery where learning has to take place in classrooms, learners have to follow particular learning time-tables, and teachers have to stand in front of a class cannot cope with the growing demand for secondary education. Clearly, formal school systems are over-subscribed and cannot provide secondary education to all who need it” (SAIDE, 2007:5s.).

3.3 Classification of non-formal post-primary education

Following the definitions given above, non-formal post-primary encompasses at present every form of organised non-formal education provided outside of the formal education sector after primary education, thus after six years of schooling.

According to the GTZ Sector Project on Post-Primary Education, the different kinds of educational activities, could be charted as follows:



The need for non-formal post-primary education initiatives for children and youth results from the present state of primary and secondary education. The success of non-formal education depends a great deal on its capacity to respond to and compensate for the weaknesses and inefficiencies of the formal education system at primary as well as secondary level.

3.4 General information on non-formal post-primary education

3.4.1 Governance/policies

With the exception of literacy campaigns within the framework of adult education, non-formal post-primary education is generally - at least not officially - not perceived as an integral part of learning opportunities at national level. It has a low priority in most official policies concerning basic education strategies. As a consequence, non-formal education data are seldom included in national statistics and non-formal post-primary education initiatives are insufficiently documented.

3.4.2 Acceptance/image

The image of non-formal education can be described as having two faces. On one side, non-formal education is regarded positively because it is said to bear a great potential for bringing innovations to education - being (though not always) outside the state's control - and as a way of achieving education for all. On the other side, it is viewed as an inferior alternative to mainstream education, since its quality is assumed to be lower than the quality in the formal sector. Mainly due to its low priority in official policies, its consequent marginal funding and the non-existence of officially recognised exams and certifications, non-formal education often lacks credibility and recognition.

3.4.3 Target groups

Non-formal education addresses the learning needs of specific target groups, such as learners who have either been unable to access formal educational opportunities or who have dropped out of school, and learners of all ages who wish - for whatever reason - to receive an education outside the formal system. Due to its potential flexibility, non-formal education is considered to be especially eligible to cater for the learning needs of vulnerable and disadvantaged learners, such as girls/women, rural populations, child workers, street children/youths, refugee children/youths, child soldiers, migrant children and youths, children with disabilities as well as linguistically, ethnically and religiously marginalised minority groups and indigenous populations.

The widespread contextualisation within the concept of life-long learning and/or continuing education, which emphasises the need to continuously extend the education and knowledge already acquired, seems to foster a focus on adult learners rather than on children and youth..

According to Fordham (1993) four characteristics came to be associated with non-formal education:

- relevance to the needs of disadvantaged groups
- concern with specific categories of person
- focus on clearly defined purposes
- flexibility in organisation and methods.

3.4.4 Contents

Fields of non-formal education include subject areas covered by formal education, such as basic literacy, numeric skills, foreign languages, vocational education and training as well as areas which are traditionally left out by the formal education sector, such as social and life skills (e.g. including nutrition, sexual and reproductive health, managing finances). The blurring of the borders between the two sub-sectors calls for a discourse that reflects the increase in diversification in the education sector in terms of institutional forms of learning and in terms of learning needs (see Hoppers, 2006:96)

3.4.5 Providers

Non-formal education initiatives are designed, provided and implemented by governments, governmental institutions, NGOs, community-based organisations, private enterprises and employers, international organisations, faith-based organisations and donors.

The cooperation of actors involved varies from initiative to initiative and consequently so does the definition of the roles of these actors. It is generally acknowledged that all actors gain much from collaboration and cooperation. Partnerships may mobilise more financial and human resources: involving community-based organisations is a way of building needed local social support for and participation in non-formal education. Non-governmental organisations and community-based organisations working together are able to give important feedback to the government.

But, as a matter of fact, there is a lot of room for improvement regarding the cooperation between the various actors, in particular between governments and non-governmental organisations involved in non-formal education. Very often non-formal education is provided by non-governmental organisations, without any involvement on the part of governments or governmental institutions. However, it has been observed that non-governmental organisations seem to withdraw from non-formal education as ministries increasingly recognise their obligations to provide education to all (see Hoppers, 2006: 89 with reference to the report of the ADEA, Working Group Non-Formal Education, 2005)

Government and governmental institutions

The typical role of the government and governmental institutions¹² when being involved is to:

- allocate needed financial resources and competent staff
- promote non-formal post-primary education as an option for out-of-school children and youths
- provide policies and guidelines for the implementation of non-formal education, paying special attention to linkages between the non-formal and the formal education sectors and the labour market
- set standards, norms and regulations that create clear guiding principles which must be followed by all implementing partners
- programme and curricula design as well as monitoring
- include learners in the program design and evaluation
- promote partnerships between all actors, cooperate and dialogue regularly with them

- mandate tasks to other actors for evaluation and supervision
- involve multilateral financial institutions
- create incentives for non-governmental organisations, civil society organisations and private actors to provide non-formal education

During a UNESCO Workshop on non-formal education held in Mozambique in 2002, which brought together stakeholders in non-formal education from various Portuguese-speaking African countries as well as from Zambia, Uganda, Burkina Faso and Zimbabwe, the participants asked for the government to “reduce its role to a bare minimum, thus stimulating civil society to take over the non-formal education initiatives”, to “develop a mechanism to reduce and minimise the feeling that it wants to control”, “to make public its commitment to support and provide information; facilitating the process but without renouncing to quality practice and the evaluation of their impact” and to “disseminate as much as possible the impact obtained as results of the NFE [non-formal education] processes.” (UNESCO, Jan. 2003)

Non-governmental organisations

Non-governmental organisations often play an important role in the provision of non-formal education and work independently from the government, sometimes with programmes designed for very specific target groups such as street children, child soldiers. Traditionally they:

- develop education and training programmes which vary greatly in terms
- target group and size as well as content
- mobilise communities to participate in and to facilitate programs
- train facilitators and supervisors
- develop teaching and learning materials
- conduct monitoring and evaluation of the program
- cooperate and communicate with other actors.

During the aforementioned UNESCO Workshop on non-formal education, the participants specified the roles of non-governmental organisations as follows: “NGOs [non-governmental organisations] and GOs [governmental organisations] should work together in the areas of training, certification and other processes”; furthermore, they “should enter into partnerships for the development of pertinent and relevant curricula and for the production of handbooks”; they should “coordinate their training activities with other NGOs already implementing theirs or in a process of doing so by other partners, to avoid overlapping training areas” (UNESCO, Jan. 2003).

Private companies

Private companies may also be involved in the implementation of non-formal education programmes, mainly for their own employees. There is no further information available.

International organisations, bilateral agencies

The typical role of international organisations, bilateral agencies and donors is to:

- become involved in policy dialogue about non-formal education
- develop and implement non-formal education (pilot) programmes
- interact with other partners to mobilise and transfer resources
- initiate a network of non-formal education providers
- contribute to the development and sharing of global experiences.

Faith-based organisations

In many countries, faith based organisations, churches and mosques provide non-formal education to children and youths alongside of religious instructions, reaching high numbers of learners. Their activities usually remain outside the focus of the government as well as of national and international NGOs and donor organisations.

Civil society

Civil society organisations also can and do play an important role in partnering with others in the provision of non-formal education for children and youths. Well-known examples are community schools, which in sub-Saharan Africa were set up as an alternative to public schools in poor rural areas about 15 years ago. Managed by local communities, they offer a wide range of educational opportunities often in areas where public schools are not accessible, with very flexible time tables in order accommodate learners' needs.

3.4.6 Strategies

In the past a variety of strategies have been used to develop the non-formal education sector. They vary as regards to their requirements and their effectiveness.¹³

- State-run national campaigns require a strong political will and commitment as well as excellent administrative and organisational capacities. They have proved to be effective in the short term, but difficult to sustain in the long run.
- State-fostered decentralised campaigns (at regional, municipal or communal level) also require a strong local commitment and capacities support, re-enforcement by central authorities, an effective system of delivery, supervision and accountability. Their effectiveness depends mainly on local capacities.
- State programmes that include NGOs require: Good supervision, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, transparency and accountability. Their effectiveness depends on the capacity of both the state and the agency, on government utilisation of NGO expertise, and on the flexibility of both the government and the NGO
- Programmes run by NGOs/civil society organisations with state support require competent agencies and an effective system of support and accountability. The effectiveness of these programmes might be hampered by uneven implementation.

- NGO programmes require competent agencies with their own facilitators, teaching and learning methods, and materials. These programmes have a limited reach and may be dependent on particular individuals in an organisation.
- Community initiatives require a strong sense of social contribution and committed community leaders. Their effectiveness is limited and the programme dependant on particular people.
- Private sector firms with some government support require resources and commitment of a firm's management. Generally private companies will only commit themselves to make education/training available for their own employees.

3.4.7 Learning approaches

When non-formal education offers operate outside the state's control they have a potential to be more open to innovative teaching and learning approaches, thus to be learner-centred, taking their needs, their age, their previous knowledge, skills and experiences as well as the present circumstances of their life into consideration.

3.4.8 Modes of delivery

Non-formal education uses a wide range of modalities and multiple delivery mechanisms. If non-formal post-primary education is to reach its goal to support the achievement of EFA, to (re-) integrate children and youths into the formal sector or to open other non-school-related opportunities in life, society and work, it will need to be pragmatic and flexible to allow various ways of provision to respond to the widely varying conditions in different parts of the country and their different demands for education and training of students.

These are among the modes of delivery used in non-formal education: open and distant learning, using interactive radio programmes (World Bank, Human Development Sector, Africa Region, March 2005); IT and virtual learning (or e-learning); home-based schooling; facilitator-aided and interactive self-instructional print and audio-based learning materials; video tapes; face-to-face structured learning groups; semi-structured and unstructured discussions; one-on-one tutorials; study groups or circles and self-learning groups; demonstration sessions; home visits, mentoring and remediation.

3.4.9 Facilitators/Education and training personnel

Facilitators play a key role in the quality of non-formal education. Knowledge and skills can only be acquired by learners if teachers or facilitators effectively deliver these skills. As many teachers in the formal education sector are formally not well qualified in the first place and often lack training in even basic teaching skills, it can be assumed that teaching staff in non-formal post-primary education will also need upgrading.

Generally facilitators will need training in the programme, educational content and in teaching methodologies appropriate for the respective target group.

3.4.10 Equivalency and articulation

Equivalency and articulation are especially relevant for non-formal education initiatives targeting learners who are young enough to re-join the formal school system, i.e. the age group between 12-16 years. Here one has to take into account that achieving equivalency poses several risks:

First, it restricts the flexibility of non-formal education programmes, e.g. in the area of curriculum design. Subsequently the opportunities to adapt the teaching methods to the age of the learners and the opportunities to include learners in the decision-making process on what they wish to learn are limited. (The relevance of these limitations increases with the age of the targeted learners). The closer a non-formal education initiative is to the formal education curriculum, the more likely it is that the non-formal education initiatives become formal education initiatives.

Second, especially in countries/areas where there is a great need for non-formal education, the number of learners who will actually benefit from equivalency and articulation arrangements need to be taken into consideration. The required curriculum adaptations might put high constraints on those learners whose aim is not to return to the formal education system. If the majority does not aim at returning to school, priority should be given to their learning interests and the curriculum adapted accordingly.

3.4.11 Quality of non-formal education

Non-formal education is traditionally seen as providing services of lower quality than the formal school system. Quality is a relative concept which needs to be defined within its systemic context. It may be assessed in terms of inputs as a process as well as in terms of outputs. Three levels should be taken into account: a) the classroom level, b) the school level and c) the education system level.

If the main goal of non-formal post-primary education is to provide out-of-school children and youth with quality education and (re-)integrate them into the formal education system, it seems obvious to take the standards of the formal education sector as the determinants of the quality of non-formal education. But this approach leaves little room for taking into consideration that the circumstances under which non-formal education operates might differ substantially from those of the formal system. If non-formal post-primary education is primarily to take into account the needs of the learners which might be – but are not necessarily – in line with the requirements of the formal system: “quality should be seen in the needs-based and demand-centred objectives of NFE [non-formal education] and not through the lens of what obtains in formal education, especially in primary education” (Thompson, 2001:21). While there is sufficient evidence to assume that non-formal education courses do not score well in terms of input quality, available data suggest that they “tend to do better based on the criteria regarding process and achievement”(Hoppers, 2006: 60).

3.4.12 Assessment Validation/Certification

Assessment validation and certification are a major challenge for non-formal education as they represent key linkages between the non-formal and the formal sector and are likely to improve the public perception of non-formal education. Accreditation and equivalency programmes, which included proficiency tests, are one way to enable the reintegration of out-of-school children into the formal system. Another way is the elaboration of a national qualification framework, providing a structure which classifies and records educational qualifications according to agreed standards. By recognising prior learning and skills it opens pathways into the formal system to learners who have acquired their skills outside and thus improves access.

3.4.13 Costs/Financing

For political, economical and managerial reasons, governments find it easier to finance and manage the formal system of education, even when a considerable number of learners have to rely on non-formal education opportunities to acquire literacy and knowledge for living.

The costs of non-formal education programmes depend mainly on the size and needs of the target group, the number of personal (facilitators, coordinators, supervisors), their training needs and the material resources and operational expenses for the programme (infrastructure and equipment, teaching and learning materials, transportation costs etc.) If lack of financial resources is the main reason for juvenile learners to drop out of school, special attention needs to be paid to income forgone by the affected young people and their families if those children are to be attracted to non-formal education.

Financing of non-formal education initiatives varies from country to country. According to the World Bank, “non-formal education and literacy programs rarely receive more than 5 percent of national education budgets”.¹⁴

3.4.14 Effectiveness of approaches and programmes

Indicators of the effectiveness of non-formal education initiatives include enrolment rates/retention rates/transfer rates to the formal education sector and/or to the working sector – especially among disadvantaged/vulnerable groups (girls, rural learners).

¹⁴ <http://www1.worldbank.org/education/adultoutreach/> [1.12.2007]

4. Country examples

4.1 Yemen

4.1.1 The general situation in Yemen

Yemen, with a population of 20,975,000 (UNESCO, 2007), two-thirds of them living in rural areas, belongs to the group of least developed countries in the world. Yemen's Human Development Index - which measures achievements of countries in terms of life expectancy, educational attainment and adjusted real income - has improved continuously since the 1990s (from 0.393 in 1990 to 0.508 in 2005). Nevertheless it is still very low. Yemen is ranked 153rd out of 177 countries in the 2007/8 Human Development Report. On the gender-related development index (GDI), which shows inequalities in achievement between women and men in 177 countries, Yemen holds rank 153 (HDR 2007/08). The population growth reaches 3.5 percent - which means the population doubles every 20 years. It is estimated that 46.5 percent of the population is under 15 years of age (Kefaya, 2007). The increase in population and the age distribution present a major challenge for the education system as well as for other sectors.

4.1.2 The formal education system in Yemen

4.1.2.1 General information

Structure of the education system

After the unification of North and South Yemen in 1990, the two education systems were merged into a single system, which is divided into 9 years of basic education and 3 years of secondary education. There are two streams of secondary education: general secondary education and specialised secondary education (technical) which provide basic education graduates with the opportunity to develop their specialised scientific knowledge. Of the students who are enrolled in secondary education, 98 percent follow the general secondary education stream. After grade 9 students receive an Intermediate School Certificate. At secondary level, upon passing examinations, students receive the 'Al Thanawiya' (General Secondary Education Certificate).

Starting in 1992, basic education was declared compulsory and free, though learners continue to have to pay fees for uniforms, stationary etc. In 2007 the Ministry of Education eliminated those additional fees for girls from grades 1 to 6 (Kefaya, 2007:8) and for boys from grade 1-3 (UNESCO, 2007b:15). According to Ogawa (2005), the implications of this policy should be very minimal for the government financial expenditure because the total amount of the school fee would be less than 1 percent of basic education recurrent expenditure. At the same time it is assumed that the waiving of school fees will have positive implications for female pupils since school fees are one of the major contributing factors keeping many of them out of schools.

Data collection

The low reliability of data has been aggravated as a result of the Ministry of Education pursuing three different methods of data collection during the last 7 years without complementing these different methodologies with data consistency checks. The education management information system EMIS which has been used since 1998 does not include any information on non-formal education, except data on the usage of literacy centres.

Policy and governance

The Basic Education Development Strategy (BEDS), which became the officially approved development strategy of the Ministry of Education in September 2002, is the translation of the Education for All goals into a national policy. It incorporates inclusive education which is designed to make schools more attractive to and appropriate for working children and children with special needs, (Guarcello et al.: 2006: 3) but it does not include literacy or non-formal education (Hampel, Kuweiran, 2006). At present non-formal post-primary education is - except for literacy programs - not coordinated by the Ministry of Education.

In 2007 a National General Secondary Education Strategy (NGSES) was approved. It aims to provide high quality secondary education for transition to tertiary education, vocational training and the labour market in an equitable and cost-effective manner and prioritises addressing the following challenges:

- gender and rural access inequity
- inefficiency resulting from high repetition and dropout rates
- ineffective teacher deployment
- poor quality of teaching and low teaching loads
- lack of availability of well-trained teachers
- particularly females in rural areas
- weak capacity of principals and supervisors to support teaching and learning
- non-availability of modern teaching and learning technologies and processes to benefit learning
- inadequacy of the curriculum and its implementation
- particularly as regards linkage with higher education
- unreliable and weak assessment of teaching and learning processes, and
- lack of private financing to support secondary education delivery.

In addition, in an effort to improve access and equity, the Ministry of Education has developed a Secondary Education Development Girls Access Program (SEDGAP), which is specifically to address the gender gap, foster girls' school enrolment, and attempt to reach the un-reached within non-formal education schemes to be developed specifically for this purpose.

Furthermore the government also approved the National Strategy of Technical and Vocational Training which aims at attracting 15% of the basic and secondary graduates (attracting now less than 2%) and a National Strategy of Higher Education with the goal to create "a system for higher education characterized by high quality and wide participation. A horizontal and vertical streams, with ensuring diversity and effectiveness and efficiency, and offering qualitative programs and achieving excellence in learning, research and serving the society, and improving the quality of life" (cit. ap. NSEDS, 2007).

The implementation of the Basic Education Development Strategy is expected to increase the number of students who wish to continue their secondary education. The increase in student numbers as well as the expectation that secondary education should prepare students for higher education puts considerable pressure on post-primary education.

Education budget

Public schooling is subsidised at all levels. Public spending in the education sector is high compared with most Arab countries and other low-income countries. It increased from 5.1 percent of GDP in 1996 to 6.1 percent in 2000 (Guracello et al., 2006). In 2004 it was at 5.8 percent (Kefaya, 2007). Despite its high expenditure for education Yemen's education outcomes are extremely low (see Hampel, Kuwarian: 2006).

4.1.2.2 Education for All in Yemen

For Yemen to achieve Education for All in 2015 still requires major efforts. It is struggling with all six EFA goals. On the EFA 2008 EDI country index, listing 129 countries, Yemen ranks only 119th and thus is among the 24 countries with a low EDI level. Its EFA Development Index was at 0.650 in 2005.

According to the latest estimates, Yemen is not likely to achieve universal primary education before 2025 (UNESCO, 2007). Therefore the first priority of the government is to increase enrolment in primary education. Its strategic Vision 2025, which forms part of its policy framework, aims at eliminating illiteracy and at increasing girls' enrolment rates in basic education up to 95 percent.

Primary education by numbers – School enrolment

Education is compulsory from age 6 through age 14, thus from grade 1-9. Total primary school enrolment in 2005 is 3,220,000 (42 percent female) – thus in grade 1-6 (UNESCO, 2007:284).¹⁵Here considerable differences are to be noted regarding gender and regional distribution.

Male and female enrolment disparities in different age groups									
Age group	Urban			Rural			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
6-11	84.6	83.7	84.1	70.3	47.9	59.4	73.2	55.5	64.6
12-14	89.3	83.4	86.7	82.8	41.4	62.7	84.4	51.0	68.2

Source: Kefaya, 2007 (no year or source indicated, no indication regarding GRE/NER)

The percentage of out-of-school children is particularly high among girls in rural areas, where more than 50 percent of girls age 6-11 and even higher percentage among the 12-14 year olds (58.6 percent) are not enrolled in school. The limited access to education for girls in rural areas is particularly remarkable in light of the fact that only 30 percent of the population in Yemen lives in urban areas.

School non-attendance

In 2005 a total of 861,000 school-age children age 6-14 did not attend school (UNESCO, 2007: 285). School non-attendance has a gender and a regional dimension. Girls account for 73 percent of total out-of-school children. Furthermore school non-attendance is mainly a rural phenomenon. "Rural children account for 88 percent of total out-of-school children, and the proportion of rural children out of school (52 percent) more than twice that for urban children (22 percent). The group which is at greatest risk of repetition and drop out are children who go to school and work at the same time" (Guarcello et.al. 2006).

Among the main reasons for children not to attend school are: distance to school, parents' negative attitude towards education, in particular education for girls, difficulties in paying school expenses, lack of sanitary facilities in schools (Guarcello et.al., 2006).

Dropout rates

Dropout rates are particularly high in grade 1 and again in grade 6, while the gender disparity increases.

Dropout rates (2003) in percent (UNESCO, 2007:300)		
	grade 1	grade 5
Total:	11.3	7.6
Male:	10.2	6.6
Female:	12.7	9.4

The gender disparity is also obvious when looking at survival rates:

Primary education completion in percent (UNESCO, 2007: 301)		
	Survival rate to grade 5 (2004)	Survival rate to last grade (2004)
Total:	73	67
Male:	78	72
Female:	67	60

Less than 70 percent of pupils complete primary education, and again the number of girls is lower.

Transition from primary to secondary education in percent, no figures available.

Secondary education – School enrolment

According to Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008, the school age population for secondary education (age group 12-17 years =grade 7-12) encompassed 3,112,000 learners in 2004. The total enrolment in 2005 was 1,455,000, thus 46.75 percent. The female enrolment was at 32 percent (UNESCO, 2007:308).

Based on UNESCO figures, which state that 3,200,000 children are enrolled in primary education (grade 1-5), and World Bank figures, which state that 4.3 million children are enrolled in basic education (grade 1-9), it could be assumed that 1,080,000 children are enrolled in lower secondary education (grade 6-9).

But according to the World Bank (Dec. 2007), between 1996 and 2004 the enrolment in secondary schools increased only “from 324,000 to 595,000.” Even though secondary education is not always taught in secondary schools, but also in basic education schools - the discrepancies regarding these figures are remarkable and make an analysis rather difficult.

Other figures document a considerably higher enrolment rates.

Gross enrolment in percent in 2005			
	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower + upper secondary education
Total:	53	40	47
Male:	69	55	62
Female:	36	25	31

UNESCO, 2007: 309 ¹⁶

Male and female enrolment disparities in different age groups									
Age group	Urban			Rural			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
12-14	89.3	83.4	86.7	82.8	41.4	62.7	84.4	51.0	68.2
15-17	74.3	63.5	69.2	66.6	21.0	43.7	68.5	30.6	49.7

Source: Kefaya, 2007 (no year or source indicated, no indication regarding GRE/NER).

¹⁶ According to the World Bank (Dec. 2007) the secondary Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) is at 38.3 percent. Girls fare worse than boys, particularly in rural areas. In 2004/05, the secondary GER stood at 59.8 percent for boys and 25.9 percent for girls (2004/05), with a 16 percent difference between urban and rural GERs for males and 40 percent difference for females.

The National Secondary Educational Development Strategy states that 54% of total enrolment was in rural areas, despite the fact that 70% of the total population live in these areas. The female participation was 23% of the total enrolment in the rural areas, with 18 points difference from female participation in the urban areas (NSEDS, 2007).

According to the World Bank, enrolment in lower secondary education (grades 7 to 9) increased by 220 percent between 1998 and 2002, while enrolment in upper secondary education experienced a 46 percent increase in the same period. This rate, however, hides extreme disparities by gender, by urban and rural area, and among districts. It is estimated that in 2002/3 the GER was 57 percent for boys and 24 percent for girls. In the capital, Sana'a, and in Aden, secondary school enrolment rates for both girls and boys were over 70 percent, with girls' GER at 102 percent, exceeding that of boys. But outside these cities, the picture is entirely different: in half the country's governorates, the GER for girls was below 15 percent, and girls accounted for fewer than one in five secondary students (World Bank: Expanding, 2005: 35).

Again, governmental estimates differ substantially from these statistics. The National Secondary Educational Development Strategy states that the enrolment in secondary education between 1999 and 2005 grew only by 8.1 percent, with differences between male and female: 6.5, 12.2 percent respectively (NSEDS, 2007). These differences in numbers exemplify again the unreliability of data. These divergences notwithstanding, all statistics reveal considerable gaps both between urban and rural areas and between female and male enrolment. Providing education to girls in rural areas clearly deserves a high priority.

School non-attendance

Based on an enrolment figure of 1,455,000 (2005) and a secondary school age population of 3,112,000 (UNESCO 2007:308) it can be assumed that 1,657,000 children, or 53.25 percent, do not attend secondary school.

Dropout rates

The dropout rates among girls increase in upper grades. By the ninth grade, only 44 girls were enrolled for every 100 boys.

In the last grade of secondary education, the dropout rate is 11.3 percent (NSEDS, 2007).

Reasons dropping out of school and for the gender disparities, in particular in secondary education, are:

- lack of secondary schools close to home
- lack of transportation to school
- lack of teachers, particularly female teachers
- lack of sanitary facilities in schools
- attitudinal factors – e.g. parents do not consider education to be important for girls – poverty and early marriage.

Transition from junior secondary education onwards in percent

Overall, out of every 100 girls that enrol in basic education in Grade 1, only 25% will complete Grade 9, thus limiting the possible intake into upper secondary education. No further information is available.

Teaching staff (basic education and [senior] secondary education)

The data on teaching staff is rather inconsistent. A background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2006 (Ogawa 2005) gives the following figures for primary school teachers (grade 1-6): 104,335, of whom 41,734 were certified. According to Guarcello et al. (2006), only half of the teachers in the formal education sector have completed secondary school.

The country case study prepared for the Education for All Report (2008) indicates that in 2004 the number of teachers in public primary schools at formal stage had been 96,348 (Kefaya, 2007, figure 15). There is a remarkable gender unbalance. The World Bank estimates that currently, only 7.5 percent of the rural secondary teachers are female (World Bank, Dec. 2007).¹⁷

Teachers teaching in:

Rural basic education schools (grade 1-9)	(Senior) secondary education	Combined basic+ secondary education
91,100	8,262	14,701
83,233	7,832	14,168
7,867	430	533

Source: Kefaya, 2007, figures provided by the Education Research and Development Centre (no year indicated, possibly 2007).

Obviously the discrepancy between the number of male and female teachers increases in secondary education, which is one explanation for the low enrolment of girls in secondary schools.

¹⁷ According to the Yemen country case study for the EFA Monitoring Report 2008, the 1999 Educational Survey indicates that female teachers account only for 24 percent of total teachers. In rural areas less than thirty percent are female (Kefaya, 2007). In another part of this study it is stated that out of 100 teachers in cities, an average of 52 are female, while in rural areas the ratio is 9 to 100.

4.1.2.3 Literacy rates

Based on governmental figures, the literacy rate among adults was at 44 percent.¹⁸ Again there are remarkable gender and regional disparities.

The reasons for these disparities are to be seen in limited access to education. In addition, female illiteracy can be explained by the lack of female teachers, lack of sanitary facilities in school buildings and an indifferent attitude towards education.

Illiteracy rates in 1999/2000			
	Urban	Rural	Total
Male	19.72	42.71	36.00
Female	47.82	84.21	74.11
Total	33.90	64.37	55.70

Source: Republic of Yemen. Ministry of Education, 2004: 5

4.1.2.4 Weaknesses of the education sector

Despite considerable improvement, access, equity, quality and efficiency are still major issues in Yemen's education system. Low enrolment and attendance rates (in particular among girls) and high dropout rates are mainly due to:

- lack of 80,000-100,000 classrooms, lack of furniture, equipment, operations and maintenance
- lack of female teachers
- lack of toilets. Only six percent of basic schools have toilets. This is a key factor in the enrolment of girls.
- distance to school. Most important reasons for children being out of school according to households. This holds particularly true for rural areas and for those students who wish to attend senior secondary school.
- difficulties in paying school expenses (community contribution fees, school activity fees and examination fees). This reason is given for 21 percent out-of-school-boys and for 19 percent of out-of-school-girls.
- parents' negligence of the relevance of education, negative attitudes towards educating their daughters. Nineteen percent of households indicate that gender is the most important determinant of household decisions on schooling. Priority is given to the purchase of Qat (minimum cost USD 1 p.d.) (see Leyendecker, 2007)
- no connection to the public water network. Two-thirds of children from households without water access are out of school, as against only one third of children from households with water (see Guarcello et al., 2006).

¹⁸ This figures are also used by the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation, see: http://www.mpic-yemen.org/dsp/development_challenges.htm

Furthermore, the quality of education presents a major challenge for Yemen. Reasons for poor quality education are:

- shortages, maldistribution and low qualifications of teachers
- unsuitable teaching practices
- inadequate supervision and support of teachers
- shortages and maldistribution of learning resources
- lack of nationwide mechanisms for monitoring students' learning achievements in grades 1-9.
There are no means for controlling the quality assessment in these grades
- overloaded curricula.
- The present secondary education curriculum does not prepare secondary graduates appropriately for life, for the labour market or for tertiary education.
- The assessment structure suffers from the absence of a standards framework and of ongoing testing of student achievement relative to those standards.
- In addition school management and administration are inefficient.

4.1.3 Non-Formal Education

The Education for All Country Report on Yemen states: "Non-formal education in principle exists. It is divided into two basic literacy courses, equivalent to grades 1 through 4 in the formal system, and a follow-up course, equivalent to grades 5 and 6 in the formal educational system, followed by two continuation classes, equivalent to grades 7 through 9 in the formal system. Following this is the open education which is equivalent to grades 10 to 12 and which can lead to university education" (Kefaya, 2007).¹⁹ But it seems that this programme no longer exists²⁰ and the role of the state in non-formal education is limited to literacy programmes, which are mainly attended by women, including girls age 6-14.

Actors/Providers

A number of national as well as international organisations are known to provide non-formal education as part of other activities mainly aiming at social justice and poverty reduction. Among the providers are Save the Children, Care, Oxfam, ADRA, AED, CEDPA, Social Fund for Development, Youth Leadership, Irada Network, Als Saleh, Als-islam, Khadigah Association, Al-ahlyia, Al-hikma. They differ regarding their target groups (boys/girls, age groups), scope, localisation, their concepts, content and mode of delivery. Some of them provide complementary non-formal education, thus courses complementing formal education, some of them alternative non-formal education, where the quality of regular schooling is particularly poor (see Huck, 2007). Furthermore mosques and military camps are known to provide non-formal education as well, the latter catering only for boys (Guracello et al., 2006).

¹⁹ No definition of non-formal education or of open education is given.

²⁰ According to the National Report of the Ministry of Education of 2004 there is a "parallel education" provided which is described as an "educational training system that is equal to the regular education level, but it differs in teaching pattern and the materials rate, which are out of specialisation". [sic!] According to information provided by e-mail by Herbert Bergmann (GTZ, Yemen) this system has been integrated into the formal system in 2004.

Target groups

Groups targeted by national and international NGOs providing non-formal education encompass boys and girls, refugees, children with disabilities and various age groups (8-12, 6-15, 12-18, 10-45). The numbers of learners targeted by the different organisations vary greatly, between 10 and 9900. The overall number of beneficiaries in 2006 seems to have been 15,330 in 2007. According to unverified estimations, mosques reach 40 percent of all school aged children providing them religious education, which includes reading and writing skills. A few NGOs are offering literacy courses for marginalised groups who are excluded from attending regular schools, such as people with disabilities and refugees.

Content/curriculum/activities

Most NGOs focus on the provision of literacy courses for girls; some also provide additional lessons in English, mathematics, ICT and life skills - either in form of alternative or of complementary education. National NGOs provide literacy classes, according to Yemeni national curriculum, whereas international NGOs approach literacy classes from the perspective of teaching methodology: thus they focus on a learner-centred approach (Huck, 2007). There has been no further information available.

Assessment, equivalency and articulation

At present there is no nationwide mechanism for monitoring students' learning achievements in grades 1-8, nor is there any means for controlling the quality assessment in these grades. National NGOs providing courses on basis of the national curriculum prepare students for re-entry to the formal school system. There is no data available on the transfer rate.

Due to the short length of courses offered by international NGOs (max. two months, 2 hours per day), learning outcomes are considered to be basic. Nevertheless, some children appear to continue with formal education, often entering school at grade 6 of formal education.

Facilitators/Education and training personnel

Since half of the teachers in the formal education sector have not completed secondary school, it is likely that the percentage of qualified facilitators of non-formal education programmes is not higher. But there is no relevant information to be found.

Facilities/locations

There is an enormous lack of facilities. The existing ones are poorly equipped. Only six percent of basic-level schools have toilets, which is highly detrimental to the enrolment of girls.

Teaching material

According to Huck (2007), there is a general shortage of instructional materials. Therefore it can be assumed that this is likely to be true for non-formal post-primary education too. Until this situation changes, facilitators will have to rely heavily on themselves and prepare self-made teaching materials.

Time frame

While courses offered by organisations teaching according to the national curriculum last up to one year, courses provided by international NGOs often last only a few months and are never taught more than two hours per day.

Funding/costs

While international NGOs do not charge participants for attending their courses, national NGOs do require their participants to contribute to the costs of the courses. No detailed information was available on expenditures, costs and concrete fees.

Effectiveness of approaches and programmes

There was no information available on the effectiveness of approaches and/or the programmes, i.e. on enrolment rates/retention rates/transfer rates to the formal education sector and/or to the working sector.

The Education for All country report on Yemen concludes that the "scarcity of local NGOs, poses a problem when attempting to implement community based literacy and non-formal education programs to reach the un-reached" (Kefaya, 2007).

Conclusions

In light of the unreliability of the available data, it is difficult to draw conclusions for the development of non-formal post-primary education in Yemen. It is obvious, though, that learning needs in rural areas and in particular those of girls, are not being met by the formal system. Therefore, for the time being, providing non-formal education opportunities to all and especially to girls seems expedient; in this connection, the possibility of cooperation with mosques should be taken into consideration, as this might have a positive effect on parents' attitudes towards education, in particular towards the education of girls. To avoid duplications and in order to enhance effectiveness, a committee gathering stakeholders at governmental level and coordinating non-formal education activities seems recommendable.

In order to improve quality and provide sufficient and relevant opportunities, more research is needed on existing education courses, including their relevance, quality and effectiveness, taking financial implications into consideration. The development of a national qualification framework would help to set standards and to ensure the transition from the non-formal sector to the formal education sector. The establishment of monitoring mechanisms for assessing students' learning achievements would be beneficial for formal and the non-formal sector.

Facilitators will need to be trained to be able to cater for the needs of learners in non-formal education programmes. In light of the low enrolment of female learners, there is a great demand for female personnel. Furthermore, gender-sensitive local teaching and learning material needs to be developed. Also the improvement of the education infrastructure is urgently needed, especially sanitary facilities to allow increased enrolment by girls. Community-based literacy and non-formal education programmes rely on local NGOs. Activities to empower communities to create NGOs should be fostered to extend non-formal education activities in urban areas.

4.2 Namibia

4.2.1 The general situation in Namibia

Namibia, with a population of approx. 2.31 million (UNESCO 2007), of whom 67 percent live in rural areas, and a population growth of 1.2 percent is ranked 125 out of 177 on the Human Development Index (HDI) in the 2007/8 Human Development Report (HDR). The country has an HDI value of 0.646. On the gender-related development index (GDI), Namibia also ranks 125th .

Poverty is pervasive. Unemployment is estimated at 34 percent and even higher among young people and the unskilled. The incidence of HIV/AIDS is among the highest in the world (World Bank, ETSIP: 2007:1). About 120,000 children under age 17 have lost one or both parents; about 57,000 of these children have been orphaned by HIV/AIDS.²¹

4.2.2 The formal education system in Namibia

4.2.2.1 General information

Structure of the education system

Until independence in 1990, Namibia's education system was fragmented along racial and ethnic lines, with vast disparities in both the allocation of resources and the quality of education offered. After 1990 eleven ethnic education systems had to be integrated into one education system. At independence, Namibia adopted English as the medium of instruction. However, the language policy promotes teaching in the home language from grade 1 to 3, with grade 4 being a transition year, after which teaching should be in English.

Primary education comprises grade 1-7 (= age 7 to 13) and secondary includes grade 8-12 (14-18 years). Primary education is divided into the lower primary (grades 1-4) and upper primary (grade 5-7) phases; secondary education encompasses junior secondary (grades 8-10) and senior secondary (grades 11-12). There is no certification for completing primary education. Until 2009, a national grade 7 examination monitors basic competencies at the end of primary education. Learners receive progress reports as in other grades. As of 2010, learner achievements in selected subject areas will be monitored nationally in grades 5 and 8. At the end of junior secondary education (10th grade), learners take the junior secondary examinations and receive the Junior Secondary Certificate (JSC) if they pass. The passing of this examination is a requirement for continuing to grade 11. The Namibian Senior Secondary Certificate is handed out after successfully passing examinations at the end of grade 12.

The two ministries in charge of education, with some overlapping responsibilities, are: the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC) and the Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Employment Creation (MHETEC).

The education management system (EMIS) in place provides statistics on the formal schooling system, but not on non-formal education opportunities.

²¹ http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/namibia_2202.html

Policy and governance

In its policy plan, Vision 2030, adopted in 2003, the government underlined the importance of the provision of an “integrated, unified, flexible and high quality education and training system” (Vision:8) and stressed its commitment to continuing education as part of the public education, which is to be “free and open to everyone”. The four major national educational goals are access, equity, quality and democracy. Education is considered to be a “driving force” for the development of the country. The business community is challenged “to make increasing contributions to the education and training sector”.

The Ministry of Education has developed a 15-year strategic plan, the Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme (ETSIP), which is a comprehensive reformation of the education and training sector. ETSIP, which runs from 2005/6 to 2020, sets targets for the entire education and training sector.²² Within the Ministry of Education, a Department of Lifelong Learning has been established, which has four directorates, among them the Department for Adult Basic Education (DABE). The directorate is responsible for the National Literacy Programmes, including the Adult Upper Primary Education (AUPE), Adult Skills Development for Self-Employment (ASDSE) and Community Learning and Development Centres (CLDC).

Apart from the Ministry of Education, other ministries have developed policies in the area of education which are relevant for non-formal education. Thus, the Ministry of Higher Education, Training and Employment Creation in its “Revised Youth Policy for Namibia” (Draft 2001) states as an objective “to establish and promote alternative modes of education for out-of-school youth so as to equip them with relevant skills”.²³ Furthermore the National Youth Policy “seeks to encourage the private sector to be proactive and contribute towards the development and advancement of young people in education, training, entrepreneurship employment creation, provision of information and transfer of technology and skills.” A number of other ministries run their own education programmes, as do various task forces (e.g. prisons; Namibia’s National Teachers Union; the Ministry for Safety and Security; NAMPOWER, the national electricity company, etc.)

In line with the “Vision 2030,” the Affirmative Action Act requires private companies to have training plans and this generates staff development (Januarie, Interview with J Ellis 2007). It is not clear to what extent this policy is being implemented.

National Qualifications Framework

Under the authority of the Ministry of Youth, National Youth Services and Sports and Culture, the Namibia Qualifications Authority (NQA) has been established. The Namibia Qualifications Authority (NQA) is legally responsible for the development and maintenance of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) through standards and qualifications setting, quality assurance, accreditation, equation of qualifications and assessment. Among the objectives of the NQA is “to evaluate and recognise competencies learnt outside formal education.”²⁴

²² <http://www.mec.gov.na/ministryOfEducation/etsip.htm>

²³ <http://www.youthcouncil-namibia.org/docs/nationalyouthpolicy.pdf>

²⁴ <http://www.mec.gov.na/ministryOfEducation/dnqaHeadOfficeD.htm>

The NQF includes a commitment to provide quality assurance and accreditation to training institutions, based on a rigorous evaluation of standards. The NQF provides for the recognition of prior learning (RPL). RPL takes into account that “a large number of people” have acquired skills for which there is no accreditation system in place. It is a broad umbrella concept which values all learning that people have gained in their lives (at home, at school, at work and in the community). This can be formal learning, non-formal learning, informal learning as well as experimental learning (Januarie, 2008). It is expected that RPL will be an incentive for learners to enrol in non-formal education programmes to obtain further skills and thus foster their employability. However, to date the recognition of prior learning differs from institution to institution. In order to gain admission to the formal education sector, admission tests are normally considered to be necessary.²⁵

Although there is a NQF in place, from the perspective of the Directorate of Adult Education there is no regulating framework for non-formal education (Januarie, interview with B. Ngatjizeko). This view is explained in a World Bank report which states: “The NQA has very limited capacity-in terms of the number of qualified staff-to effectively carry its wide responsibilities. In addition, its legal authority is limited to those training providers who choose to be accredited. Not all providers conform to the National Qualification Framework (NQF), including the university. Nonconformity to the NQF seems to carry no consequences” (Marope, 2005:44).

At present there is no institution or unit at the Ministry coordinating non-formal education. The National Literacy Trust, which is funded by the Ministry of Education, is in charge of fostering partnerships with non-governmental organisations.

Education Budget

“Currently, the Government of the Republic of Namibia allocates more than 20 percent of its national budget to education. This represents six to seven percent of Namibia’s total GDP. Therefore it is one of the three countries with the highest percentage of GDP directed toward education in the world.”²⁶ Given the current high demand and low supply of secondary school places, it is highly remarkable that the budgetary share of secondary education has significantly declined from 26 percent in 1997 to 19 percent in 2003. As can be seen below, between 3 and 4 percent of the state education budget goes into non-formal education. Funds are mainly channelled into the above-mentioned Adult Literacy Trust. The bulk of the funding goes to NAMCOL, the Namibian College of Open Learning. In addition there is an educational budget within every ministry (Januarie, interview B. Ngatjizeko).

²⁵ Directorate of Adult Basic Education: A Situational Analysis of Evaluation Practices in Non Formal Education Programmes - The Case of the National Literacy Programme in Namibia, n.d.

²⁶ <http://www.usaid.gov/na/so2.htm> [11.12.2007]

Breakdown of education spending by economic classification (percent)							
Indicator	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Administration	11	10	10	10	10	10	11
Primary	45	49	48	48	48	47	49
Secondary	26	24	23	23	23	21	19
Tertiary	15	14	15	15	15	17	17
Non-formal	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	99	100

Source: Marope (2005: 76)

4.2.2.2 Education for All in Namibia

Namibia scores 8.848 on the EDI (UNESCO, 2007: 108). On the EFA 2008 EDI country index, listing 129 countries, Namibia ranks 96 and is thus among the 37 countries with medium EDI levels. Enrolment and completion rates are high at primary level, but learning outcomes are low. Most children leave school without adequate skills in reading and mathematics. Therefore, Namibia is much farther from reaching the EFA goals than the statistics suggest.

Primary Education by numbers – School enrolment

Education from grade 1 through grade 7 is compulsory and free.²⁷ The constitution states that “Children shall not be allowed to leave school until they have completed their primary education or have attained the age of sixteen (16) years, whichever is the sooner.”²⁸

Whereas in many African countries non-enrolment in primary education is a major challenge, this is not the case in Namibia. There are no significant differences between male and female enrolment (EMIS 2002). The major concern about access to education is therefore directed towards marginalised children, including ‘street children’, children of nomadic parents, farm workers’ children, and children of certain language groups such as the San, Otjherero, and Khoekhoegowab speakers (Voigt, 1998 and Marope, 2005).

Primary-school-age population (age 6-12) was 407,000 (2004), while total primary school enrolment in 2005 was 404,000, 50 percent being girls (UNESCO, 2007:290).

Primary Education in percent (2005) (UNESCO, 2007:291)		
	Gross enrolment rate	Net enrolment rate
Total:	99	72
Male:	99	69
Female:	100	74

²⁷ The policy paper “Vision 2030” (2004:29) states that after independence “free primary and compulsory basic education, lasting 10 years,” had been introduced.
²⁸ www.unesco.org/education/wef/countryreports/namibia/rapport_1.html

School non-attendance

Though the figures for school attendance are high, UNESCO (2007:291) states for the year 2005 that a total of 116,000 children (44 percent girls) were not attending school. No information about the reasons for non-attendance could be found.

Dropout rates

Dropout is a problem in all grades. The highest number in lower primary education occur during grade 1. At upper primary education level dropouts steadily increase up to 6.5 percent in grade 7.

Dropout rates in percent (UNESCO, 2007: 306)			
	grade 1 (2004)	grade 5 (2004)	grade 7 (EMIS 2002) ²⁹
Total:	6.3	5.1	6.5
Male:	6.9	6.0	5.7
Female:	5.7	4.1	7.5

Primary education completion in percent (UNESCO, 2007: 307)		
	Survival rate to grade 5 (2004)	Survival rate to last grade (2004)
Total:	86	76
Male:	84	73
Female:	88	79

Transition from primary to secondary education in percent in 2003 (UNESCO, 2007: 314) With 87.4 percent of those completing primary education, a fairly high number of pupils seem to manage to transfer to junior secondary education.

Total:	87.4
Male:	86.1
Female:	88.6

Secondary education

Access to secondary education is limited. The net enrolment rate for secondary education is 49 percent (EMIS 2005, Januarie, 2008:7). It should be noted that the school-leaving rates from grade 8 upwards are higher than in grade 7, indicating that a higher percentage of learners transfer from primary to secondary education than they do in the following grades of secondary education.

School enrolment

According to Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008, the school-age population for secondary education (age group 13-17 years =grade 7-12) encompassed 263,000 learners in 2003. The total enrolment in 2005 was 148,000, of which female enrolment was at 53 percent (UNESCO, 2007:314).

2005 Gross enrolment in percent	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower + upper secondary education
Total:	72	29	56
Male:	67	28	52
Female:	78	30	60

UNESCO, 2007: 315

The provision of senior secondary education (grades 11 and 12) is to be expanded. Currently only 46.3 percent of grade 10 learners are taken into grade 11. The intention is to increase this to 80 percent by 2020.³⁰

Repetition rate

Twenty-one and a half percent of the learners repeat grade 8, the first year of junior secondary education.

School non-attendance

It can be assumed that 115,000 learners, or 43.7 percent, do not attend secondary school.

Dropout rates

As can be seen from the figures below, dropout rates are also a problem in all grades of secondary education. They increase with each school year and are particularly high in grade 10. Over a period of six years more or less, 40 percent of the students drop out of 10th grade. Reasons indicated for dropout are financial difficulties and failure (Januarie, 2008).

Dropout rates in grades 7, 8, 9 and 10 in percent between 1998-2004							
Grade	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
7	10.2	7.0	7.3	7.3	6.5	6.6	7.5
8	12.2	10.2	10.0	10.0	8.2	9.6	11.3
9	11.7	10.3	10.9	10.9	9.3	9.0	10.6
10	43.1	42.0	38.2	38.3	43.4	43.2	46.6

Source: EMIS Educational Statistics (2005), cit. ap. Januarie, 2008

Each year, approximately 3,800 learners fail their grade 10 examination,³¹ which is the pre-requisite in order to obtain the Junior Secondary Certificate (JSC). This may partially explain the high dropout numbers in the 10th grade. The formal education system does not allow repetition for grade 10 and 12 (Januarie, 2008), which means that students who fail the JSC or the Senior Secondary Certificate have to leave school. Apart from poor performance, limited places in grade 11 explain the high rate of school-leavers at the end of grade 10. Some learners may be dropping out of school because of the effects of HIV/AIDS on the family support structure in terms of both income and social support for schooling.

When looking at dropout rates in grades 7, 8, 9 and 10 segregated by gender, it becomes evident that a higher percentage of girls drop out than boys. This difference has been attributed to pregnancies (Januarie, 2008).

Grade	Male	Female
7	8.2	6.5
8	8.3	9.1
9	7.3	10.5
10	43.5	43.7

Source: school year 2004/5, EMIS, 2005, cit. ap. Januarie, 2008

31 http://www.namcol.com.na/About_Us.htm

Transition from junior secondary education onwards

2005 EMIS statistics (2005) indicate that many learners left schools after the examination at the end of grade 10 (Januarie, 2008), thus not entering upper secondary education.

Teaching staff

There are 13,000 teachers working at primary level. According to the Ministry of Basic Education, between 1995 and 2001 the proportion of qualified primary school teachers more than doubled (17 percent to 41 percent) (see Marope, 2005:28). According to UNESCO the number of trained teachers increased from 29 percent in 1999 to 92 percent in 2005 (UNESCO, 2007:339), which sounds unusually high.

In 1999, out of 5000 teachers at secondary school level, 46 were female. Of these, 4000 were teaching at lower secondary level and only 1000 at upper secondary (UNESCO, 2007: 346). For secondary education, the proportion of qualified teachers rose from 44 percent to 73 percent between 1995 and 2001 (Ministry of Basic Education, cit. ap. Marope, 2005:28). By 2005 – by UNESCO figures – the share had increased to 97 percent (UNESCO, 2007: 346).

There has also been a steady increase in the educational attainment of teachers. The proportion of teachers who completed grade 12 rose from 59 percent in the same period.

Despite the impressive increase in the numbers of trained teachers, there is still a high proportion of unqualified teachers in the system (60 percent primary and 27 percent secondary), slowing down efforts to improve the quality of education (see Marope, 2005:28).

4.2.2.3 Literacy rates

Eighty-five percent of the population is considered to be literate, with a fairly even distribution among genders (male 87, female 83 percent) (UNESCO, 2007), but as a matter of fact a very high proportion of adults with primary and even secondary education are functionally illiterate (World Bank, Report 2883, 2007:2). This confirms the low quality of the education provided.

4.2.2.4 Weaknesses of the education system

The main weaknesses of the Namibian formal education sector are in quality, internal efficiency and infrastructure (Marope, 2005).

There are a number of indicators for the poor quality of the education provided, starting with primary education. According to a UNESCO survey, two-thirds of grade 6 learners could not read with any level of competency. Poor learning at the primary level carries over to higher levels. In 2001, fewer than 50 percent of the candidates for the junior secondary school examination (grade 10) attained the minimum level required for entry into grade 11. Even though the national literacy rate is estimated at 85 percent, recent performance on a screening test of the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) recorded very low functional literacy, even among grade 10 graduates (Marope, 2005:XV, 38s.). Thus learning outcomes are low at all stages of education. In part this can be explained by the fact that general education curricula are overloaded with too many subjects, and they lack clear standards. Furthermore, the lack of quality in teaching contributes to low learning outcomes.

The internal inefficiency becomes evident when looking at repetition and dropout rates. In 2000, the average repetition rate for grades 1 to 9 was 16 percent. Each year, a high percentage of students are not promoted to a following year of primary and junior secondary school. Dropout rates are high, especially for the last year of primary education and within the junior secondary school phase. As can be seen from the statistics above, nearly 40 percent of the students are pushed out at the end of the junior secondary education phase (grade 10) (Marope, 2005).

Another challenge is the inadequate infrastructure. Twenty-one percent of primary and secondary schools have no permanent classrooms (Marope, 2005).

4.2.3 Non-formal education in Namibia

Following independence in 1990, opportunities in non-formal education increased. There is still no “official” definition of non-formal education. Clearly, the term “non-formal education” does not have a positive image for the Ministry: “Marginalized status is implied when reference is made to non-formal education” (Januarie, interview with B. Ngatjizeko:2007).

Non-formal education is catered for by the state as well as by non-governmental organisations. According to Januarie (2008), “the number of dropouts in general are increasing rapidly relative to out-of-school programmes in place”. If this observation is correct, it implies that non-formal education programmes offer an incentive for students to drop out - a development which should be of concern.

Since NGOs are not required to inform the Namibian Training Authority (NTA) about their activities, there is no precise and reliable information available about non-formal education opportunities provided by non-state actors. “Not too many non-governmental organizations want to be involved in programs where there is a formal outcome. Non-government organizations generally find it difficult to engage in that” (Januarie, 2008). It is unclear what the reasons are.

There is no systematic reporting on the number of people enrolled in all non-formal education settings in the country, nor are there provisions in place to monitor and to assess non-formal education opportunities provided by non-governmental organisations.

4.2.3.1 Non-formal basic education

Directorate of Adult Basic Education

Actor/Provider

The Directorate of Adult Basic Education in the Department of Life Long Learning runs a National Literacy Programme (NLP) and an Adult Upper Primary Education programme (AUPE).

Target groups

Forty percent of learners who drop out at the primary level enrol in the National Adult Literacy Programme. Only a small proportion of learners who do not enrol in the National Literacy Programme manage to access non-formal vocational training, as the last resort for increasing their chances of employability.

“During the year under review, 23,738 learners enrolled in three stages of the National Literacy Programme. Of those enrolled, 65 percent were female. The percentage of male enrolled learners had increased compared to previous academic year, from 28 percent to 35 percent during the reporting year.”³²

Content/curriculum/activities

While the National Literacy programme focuses on literacy and numeracy³³ and has a curriculum which is equivalent to the curriculum in the formal education sector for grades 1-4, the Adult Upper Primary Education Programme caters for those learners who dropped out of school between grade 4 and grade 7. The Adult Upper Primary Education Programme is a three-year programme, which consists of four core courses and four optional ones. The courses combine ‘academic’ subjects, such as history, mathematics and geography with skills training such as entrepreneurship. Learners are expected to study for 240 hours per year.

Assessment, equivalency and articulation

The success rate in the National Literacy Programme seems to be fairly high. According to the homepage of the Directorate of Adult Basic Education, in one year - which is not further specified - 67 percent of the learners were tested and 57 percent of them obtained Grade A-D out the scale of A-E.”³⁴ But considering the outcomes of the screening test of the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) (see Marope, 2005: XV), the effective learning outcomes are likely to be lower than the grading suggests.

According to the Ministry of Education officials interviewed, there are documented cases of children in Namibia that attended literacy classes through the National Literacy Program and managed to ‘re-enter’ the formal schooling system. In principle, the Adult Upper Primary Education Programme gives access to junior secondary education and vocational training. But up to now, standards have not been developed (Januarie, 2008).

³² <http://www.mec.gov.na/ministryofeducation/dabeHeadOfficeD.htm>. The site does not say to which year these numbers refer.

³³ According to Marope (2005:22) the programme also includes post-literacy, work skills programs, and community-driven development projects.

³⁴ <http://www.mec.gov.na/ministryofeducation/dabeHeadOfficeD.htm>

Facilitators/Education and training personnel

The National Literacy Programme is taught by “literacy promoters”, of whom there are 1,319 (year not indicated). There was no information available about their qualifications. Nor could information be obtained about the numbers and qualifications of the facilitators of the Adult Upper Primary Education Programme.

Funding/costs

Both programmes, the National Literacy Programme and the Adult Upper Primary Education programme, are fully funded by the government.

Effectiveness of approaches and programmes

According to EMIS (2005), more than 85,000 learners acquired basic mother tongue literacy skills through the National Literacy Programme between 1998 and 2005. There was no information available about the outcomes of the Adult Upper Primary Education Programme. The Ministry is considering extending AUPE to reach the equivalents of Grades 8 and 9 of formal education in order to close the gap between the opportunities made available through the Adult Basic Education Programme and those offered by the Namibian College of Open Learning.³⁵

4.2.3.2 Non-formal post-basic education

Namibia College for Open Learning (NAMCOL)

Actor/Provider

Namibia College for Open Learning (NAMCOL) is a parastatal, state-funded institution under the Directorate of Adult Basic Education at the Ministry of Education and Culture, founded in 1997. NAMCOL is a member of the SADC Open Schools Consortium.

Target groups

Since 1994, the number of learners enrolling to study with NAMCOL has grown five-fold to 32,400 in 2002 (see Marope, 2005:24). This makes NAMCOL the largest educational institution in Namibia in terms of full-time equivalent learners and the biggest provider of secondary education in the country. The majority of these learners live in rural areas of the North or in severely disadvantaged urban areas (NAMCOL homepage). Eighty-seven percent of learners are between 17 and 30 years old, with a strong over-representation of 20 -24 years olds. Over two thirds of the total enrolment are women (Marope, 2005:24). The reasons for men’s under-participation are not yet known. Their low participation might reflect their superior performance on national examinations or the better opportunities they have for training and/or employment .

35 <http://www.mec.gov.na/ministryOfEducation/dabeHeadOfficeD.htm>

Content/curriculum/activities

NAMCOL provides learning opportunities for adults and out-of-school youths corresponding to the secondary school level (grade 8 to 12) under its programme of Alternative Secondary Education. The curriculum offered is developed according to the formal education curriculum offered in schools. In addition, NAMCOL offers computer courses and a two-year programme targeting community development workers such as district literacy organisers, literacy promoters, agricultural extension workers, health educators, project managers and any other non-formal educators working in government ministries and non-governmental organisations and the private sector. This programme leads to a Certificate in Education for Development. Furthermore NAMCOL offers a Commonwealth Diploma in Youth in Development (CYP), which can provide access to the University of Namibia's programme in local government (see Januarie, 2008).

Assessment, equivalency and articulation

NAMCOL learners may study to obtain the Junior Secondary Certificate (JSC) or the Namibian Senior Secondary Certificate. Those studying towards these qualifications follow the same syllabuses and sit the same examinations as their counterparts in formal schools. By the definitions presented above, the education provided at NAMCOL is para-formal rather than non-formal.

Facilitators/Education and training personnel

In 2004, the College had a full-time staff complement of 65. In addition to the full-time staff, the College employs numerous part-time workers, such as tutors, course writers, content editors, tutor markers and casual/contract appointments to carry out specific functions in support of its educational programmes. During 2004, a total number of 799 tutors and 110 centre heads were employed on a part-time basis to provide tutorial support and administer NAMCOL centres. For the most part, these tutors and centre heads are drawn from the ranks of professional teachers, who made their services available outside of normal working hours. Where there are no teachers in an area who are qualified and experienced in teaching a particular subject, an experienced professional or university graduate is employed.

Facilities/locations

The College does not own physical facilities, apart from the Yetu Yama Centre in Katutura. However, NAMCOL utilises schools after hours for contact tutorials and during vacation periods for vacation workshops. In 2004 there were 95 Tutorial Centres out of a total of 110 Enrolment Points.

Teaching material

All learners are provided with self-study materials and tutor-marked assignments. In addition NAMCOL provides lessons via e-learning in selected subjects.

Modes of delivery

Learners can enrol in either of the following modes of study: OPEN (Contact) – learners who take this option attend weekly tutorials for two hours per subject; OPEN (Non-contact) – learners who take this option only attend the one week workshops offered twice a year, during school holidays.

Funding/costs

The Ministry allocates 65 percent of NAMCOL's overall cost of education; 10 percent of costs are covered by student fees, and the balance needs to be covered by other sources.

Effectiveness of approach and programme

About 12 percent or more of NAMCOL learners are being re-absorbed back into the formal education stream (Mayumbelo, 2007, cit. ap. Januarie 2008).³⁶

In the academic year 2003, 20.4 percent of those learners who had enrolled to pass the JSC dropped out of NAMCOL; in 2004 the percentage dropped only slightly, to 18.5 percent. Among the reasons for the high dropout rates are: "long distances to the tutorial centres, alcohol abuse, lack of parental/self motivation, lack of financial support to pay for examination/ transport and difficulty in coping with part-time studies."³⁷

The University of Namibia admission data reveals that only a small proportion of the learners who are repeating or improving grade 12 through NAMCOL manage to achieve the required entry admission points (Januarie, 2008).

Though the available data about NAMCOL is not comprehensive, there seems sufficient evidence to question the quality of the education it provides as well as its internal efficiency. Therefore one might conclude that "improving the quality and coverage of regular secondary schooling may be a more cost-effective option than NAMCOL" (Marope, 2005: 84).

Community Skills Development Centres (COSDECs)

Actor/provider

Community Skills Development Centres (COSDECs) are locally managed skills training centres whose training activities are linked to and based on the needs of the local economy. Under the Namibia Community Skills Development Foundation (COSDEF), COSDECs are directly responsible for executing the COSDEF mandate to improve the capability of young and disadvantaged people to gain employment or self-employment through skills training that targets the needs of the local community. There are presently seven COSDECs in different areas of Namibia.

Target groups

Among the target group of COSDECs are out-of-school and unemployed youths.³⁸ Data is scant on enrolment. In 2002, they enrolled 1,139 trainees, 47.8 percent of whom were females (Marope, 2005). The latest data indicate that COSDECs enrol approximately 1,000 out-of-school youths per calendar year.

Content/curriculum/activities

COSDECs deliver courses in practical skills, such as woodwork, bricklaying and plastering, and sewing.

³⁶ The study of Mayumbelo has not been available for the elaboration of this synopsis.

³⁷ <http://www.namcol.com.na/NamcolStatsDigest/main.htm>

³⁸ www.oit.org/public/english/employment/skills/hrdr/topic_n/t28_nam.htm#Community%20Skills%20Development

Methodology

A combination of various methods is applied, including youth group discussions, interviews, business surveys and practical work, that allows COSDEF training programs to reflect the broad priorities and opportunities of the communities in which they operate.

Time frame

The courses offered by COSDEC last between one week and ten months.

Funding/costs

COSDECs receive their main funding from the Namibia Community Skills Development Foundation (COSDEF), which in turn receives its base funding from Namibia's Ministry of Education.

Effectiveness of approaches and programmes

A tracer study was carried out for the period of 2004-2005 at four COSDECs, focussing on those trainees who had completed six months of training or more in order to explore the relevance and effectiveness of facilitating community skills development (Swiegers et al., 2006). Out of 646 trainees who underwent a minimum of six months training, 334 were available for interviews. Among them 35 percent had found formal employment, 22 percent were self-employed and 43 percent were unemployed. Thereby 67 percent of the unemployed explained that they would only accept a permanent job and one that was in the field of training which they had received at a COSDEC. There is no systematic evidence regarding the impact of these centres on youth-employability and self-employment. Based on the available information, the effectiveness of the programme cannot be evaluated.

Katutura Youth Enterprise Centre (KAYEC)

Actor/provider

Katutura Youth Enterprise Centre (KAYEC) is a community-based organisation, whose main purpose is to address the general lack of opportunities for employment that school leavers face.

Content/curriculum/activities

KAYEC helps young people become more enterprising by creating and building a culture of entrepreneurs as opposed to a culture of entitlement. The training programme comprises five units: employment preparation, life skills, small/microenterprise (SME), community enterprises and vocational training. It combines skills training with exposure to the competitive commercial environment. KAYEC also organises awareness workshops on child abuse, domestic violence and HIV/AIDS.

Funding

KAYEC is mainly funded by international donors, through the Namibia Institute for Democracy.

There was no further information available on target groups, numbers, teaching approaches, or materials; nothing on facilitators, the approach used or the programme itself. Therefore the effectiveness of the programme cannot be evaluated.

Youth Resource Centres

There are four multi-purpose Youth Resource Centres which aim to improve the self-esteem and confidence of participatory youth, encouraging them to enrol in vocational training courses and/or establish small businesses (Marope, 2005: 45). There seems to be no systematic evidence on the impact of these centres, but they are gaining popularity. The occupancy increases from 1,800 in 2001 to 5,480 in 2002 (ibid.). They offer different types of courses, depending on the specific needs of the regions where they are operating. Among the courses offered are business and computer courses.

There was no further information available.

National Youth Council

The purpose of this organisation is “to develop the inherent abilities and capabilities of young people both individually and collectively and to encourage literacy and artistic activities among the youth.”³⁹ No further information was available.

Rössing Foundation Adult Education Centre

Actor/provider

Rössing is the uranium company which initiated the Rössing Foundation Adult Education Centre. This centre was established in 1978 in order to help improve the quality of life of the average Namibian through a variety of non-formal education programmes.

Target groups

Based in Khomasdal, in 2005 the programme assisted more than 750 learners from local schools to improve their marks in their final three years of secondary education.⁴⁰

Content/curriculum/activities

In support of education in mathematics and science, the Rössing Foundation - in partnership with the Ministry of Education - manages a computer-assisted programme for these two subjects. In addition, the foundation supports SchoolNet Namibia, a local hands-on ICT deployment, training and support organisation, established in February 2000, to strengthen its capacity to roll out ICT solutions into schools in northern Namibia.

There was no further information available.

³⁹ <http://www.youthcouncil-namibia.org/page.php?p=documents>

⁴⁰ <http://www.rossing.com/namibia.htm>

Development Aid from People to People (DAPP)

Development Aid from People to People (DAPP) is an NGO registered as a welfare organisation under the Ministry of Health and Social Services, providing vocational training (e.g. in how to run a small business, secretarial studies, bricklaying and plastering) to young people. Furthermore they have initiated 29 School Environment Clubs in Omusati where around 1.000 learners and their teachers have been taught how to protect the environment in a broader sense.

There was no further information available.

4.2.3.3 Conclusions

In light of the difficulties the formal education sector confronts in improving its quality within a reasonable time frame, it is likely that the number of children who drop out of post-primary education will continue to be high for a number of years. While not leaving the improvement of the education in the formal sector out of sight, the needs of learners who have dropped out of school should be taken care of.

Little consolidated information exists about the scope and characteristics of non-government skills training and education training, but they are thought to be considerable (Marope, 2005). Also here further research is necessary in order to realise and systematically address the needs of the target group.

The present provision of non-formal post-primary education cannot accommodate an adequate number of out-of-school youths. For the further development of non-formal education in Namibia, the strengthening of the existing National Qualification Framework should be considered as a first step.

Furthermore, an assessment of the present non-formal-education activities regarding quality, performance and needs of young dropouts, followed by the inclusion of relevant data from this sub-sector in the education management system, should be taken into consideration.

4.3 Malawi

4.3.1 The general situation in Malawi

Malawi, with a population of 12,884 million (UNESCO 2007) and an annual population growth of 2.1 percent, is ranked 166th out of 177 on the Human Development Index in the 2006 Human Development Report. On the gender-related development index (GDI), Malawi holds rank 127. The country's Gender Empowerment Index (GEM) is 166 out of the 177 countries measured. HIV is a major threat to Malawi's development, including that of its education sector. HIV and AIDS prevalence among adults (15-49 years) is at 12%. In 2005 it was estimated that 930,000 people are HIV-infected. The country has approximately 1.1 million orphans, an estimated half of whom lost their parents due to HIV/AIDS. The number of orphans is expected to grow by 84,000 every year.⁴¹

4.3.2 Education system in Malawi

4.3.2.1 General information

Structure of the education system

The education system is divided into primary level, encompassing grade 1-8 (6-13 years), and secondary level, encompassing grade 9-12 (14-17 years). At the end of grade 8, students have to pass the Primary School Leaving Certificate examinations if they wish to attend a government secondary school.⁴² Secondary education is available at public and at private schools. Malawi's secondary schools still charge fees for enrolment, for a revolving textbook fund and some other inputs. Fees in private schools are up to more than 50 times of those in public schools. Students in secondary schools have to pass two examinations: a Junior Certificate Examination (JCE) at grade 10 and the Malawi School Certificate Examination (MSCE) at the end of grade 12. The MSCE is the requirement for entry into tertiary education. The quality of secondary education varies widely in both, in private as well as in public schools.

Policy and governance

In its National Long-term Development Perspective for Malawi, "Vision 2020", the government recognises the value of education as a foundation and cornerstone for capacity development⁴³ and equally recognises that shortcomings of the current education system render it a weak foundation to build on.⁴⁴

The draft version of the ten-year National Education Sector Plan (NESP), which draws on the "Vision 2020" policy as well as on a subsequent "Policy and Investment Framework for the Education Sector" (PIF, 2000), and on the "Malawi Growth and Development Strategy 2006-2011", notes that there are "many private and non-governmental organisations" which are "currently providing a complementary form of non-formal education for children who drop out of public primary school (or who never enrol)." The plan foresees the "potential to forge a nationwide system for non-formal education, recognising the importance of its complementary provision which fulfils a need (albeit temporarily) until weaknesses in formal public provision are remedied" (Huck, 2007: 5) and asks explicitly to "strengthen complementary basic educational modalities for learners" (Huck, 2007:7). The NESP, which draws on the "Vision 2020" policy as well as on a subsequent "Policy and Investment Framework for the Education Sector" (PIF, 2000) and the Malawi "Growth and Development Strategy 2006-2011", anticipates the establishment of 500 learning centres per year in rural areas to provide non-formal education, commencing in 2008 and reaching 5000 in 2015.

⁴² <http://www.sdn.org.mw/~phindu/primary/primary.htm>

⁴³ Government of Malawi: *Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Third draft. National Economic Council (2000), Vision 2020: National Long-Term Development Perspective for Malawi. Lilongwe, 2001.*

⁴⁴ Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture: *Education Sector Policy Investment Framework, 2000*

⁴⁵ Ministry of Youth Development and Sports (2007): *Integrated Strategic and implementation Plan for the period 2007/07 - 2011/12*

⁴⁶ Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture (September 2006), *National Youth Policy "Youth: The Nation Today and Tomorrow"*

In addition to the Ministry of Education, other ministries are involved in education and training. The “Integrated Strategic and Implementation Plan” for the period July 2007 - December 2011⁴⁵ and the National Youth Policy of September 2006⁴⁷ of the Ministry of Youth and Sport foresees the training of 300,000 youths per year starting in 2007, in business management and entrepreneurship. “Youth” is defined as persons, female and male, from age 10 to 24 years regardless of their marital, educational and economic status. Non-formal education for youth and adult literacy classes for youth are advocated. At least 200 youth centres are to be constructed by 2012.

A Draft Education For All (EFA) Plan elaborated in 2004 refers to the provision of alternative forms of education to youths who have dropped out of school and those who never attended school. A redefinition of Basic Education has been called for by the Civil Society Coalition for Quality Basic Education (CSCQBE). There is a recognition that “the total education system is both the mainstream of the formal system as well as the multiple channels of lifelong learning which form part of the integrated diversity of any learning society.” (Complementary Basic Education for school-aged out-of-school children and youth. Concept Note. Ministry of Education Dec 2005, cit. ap. Swann, 2007: 2). Nevertheless there seems to be no unit or institution which coordinates and monitors non-formal education activities.⁴⁷

Education budget

Malawi is among those countries which increase their share of GNP for education by at least one percent between 1999 and 2005 (UNESCO 2007), reaching 6 percent of the total public expenditure. At the same time the country receives high financial support from international agencies. In 1999, credits and grants accounted for nearly 90% of the education sector’s recurrent expenditure (MoEHa).

4.3.2.2 Education for All in Malawi

Malawi scores 0.734 on the EDI (UNESCO, 2007: 108) and ranks only 112th out of 129 on the EFA 2008 EDI country index and is thus among the 24 countries with low EDI levels. According to the EFA report 2008, about 95 percent of children of primary school age or above were enrolled in 2005 (UNESCO, 2007:193). Malawi is listed among the countries with a good chance to achieve primary education for all by 2015 (UNESCO 2007:180), but it is at risk of not achieving gender parity in secondary education by 2015 or 2025 (UNESCO, 2007:184).

Primary Education by numbers

School enrolment

Education is compulsory and free from grade 1-8. Following the introduction of free primary education in 1994, net enrolment rates increased by approximately 60 percent and since have stabilised between 85 to 100 percent. Nevertheless, despite these enrolment gains, the primary education system is unable to retain 50 percent of those enrolled beyond Standard 5 and fewer girls than boys complete school (Moleni, 2006: 8).

In 2004, the primary school age population was 2,345,000, while total primary school enrolment is 2,868,000 (2005) (UNESCO, 2007:290).

The gross enrolment rate of over 100 percent indicates already a high number of overage (or - less likely- underage) children. This in turn is indicative of high repetition rates.

Primary Education in percent (2005) (UNESCO, 2007:291)		
	Gross enrolment rate	Net enrolment rate
Total:	122	95
Male:	121	92
Female:	124	97

School non-attendance

According to the latest Integrated Household Survey (2004 and 05), 25 percent of the population has never attended school (Huck, 2007:7). But the school non-attendance rate is much higher for females and in rural areas compared to urban areas. While only 8 percent of the urban population over 15 years have never attended school, the figure is 27 percent among the rural population.

Dropout rates

Dropouts are considered to be a major problem within the Malawian formal education sector, with higher numbers of dropouts in rural compared to urban areas.

Dropout rates (2004) (UNESCO, 2007:306)		
	grade 1	grade 5
Total:	23.2	16.9
Male:	21.3	16.2
Female:	24.9	17.6

These figures are confirmed by the EMIS in 2006: the dropout rate in grade 1 continues to be 23 percent, indicating that nearly a quarter of those who enrolled leave the school in the very first year. The dropout rate for boys and girls is similar from grade 1 - 6. Starting with grade 7, girls dropout at a much higher rate, reaching the climax in grade 8 when about 23 percent of girls drop out compared to less than 10 percent of boys (Huck, 2007).

Reasons for dropping out:

- poor quality of education, particularly at the primary school level⁴⁸
- lack of interest in school
- lack of financial resources
- HIV/AIDS
- family responsibilities
- early pregnancies (Huck, 2007)

The high number of dropouts by girls needs further explanation, as it can hardly be explained by early pregnancies alone.

⁴⁸ <http://www.malawi.gov.mw/Education/HomeChallenges.htm>

Primary completion rate is unacceptably low. Only 30% of learners who enter first grade complete the primary cycle (8th grade) (MoEHa).

Primary education completion in percent (UNESCO, 2007: 307)		
	Survival rate to grade 5 (2004)	Survival rate to last grade [8] (2004)
Total:	42	34
Male:	44	35
Female:	41	32

Transition from primary to secondary education in percent

Progression to secondary education stands at 18% and is among the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa (no year indicated - MoEHa).

Secondary education by numbers

School enrolment

The envisaged expansion of primary school admissions has put tremendous pressure on a traditionally elitist secondary school system to accommodate more children. Malawi expects to double the secondary school enrolment by 2015 to reach 300,000 from current 186,000. This means annually 12,000 more should be enrolled. But last year the number increased by only 3,696.

According to the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008, the school-age population for secondary education (age group 12-17 years =grade 7-12) encompassed 1,822,000 learners in 2004. The total enrolment in 2005 was 515,000 (UNICEF, 2007:315).

2005 Gross enrolment in percent	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Lower + upper secondary education
Total:	40	15	28
Male:	43	18	31
Female:	36	13	25

UNICEF, 2007:315

In comparison to primary school, gender equity is more pronounced at the secondary school level. Approximately 25% of secondary school pupils are female. With regard to regional distribution, a disproportionate share of the available secondary school institutions are located in the urban areas of the country.⁴⁹ There are no net enrolment figures available.

School non-attendance

It can be assumed that 1,307,000 children, 71.7 percent, do not attend secondary school.

Dropout rates

The main reason for dropping out of secondary school is an economic one (see Al-Zahmarai, 2006). Out of total of 16,631 who drop out of secondary school (from 1-4=grade 9-12) (EMIS 2007:87), 9350 indicated that they did so because of informal fees and contributions, e.g. for uniforms, which continued to exist after 1994 when school fees were officially abolished. More boys drop out than girls (male: 5208; female: 4141).

There is a clear gender discrepancy as regards passing rates. Passing rates for girls and boys at the end of grade 10 in 2005 were 64 percent for boys and 48 percent for girls. Only 39 percent of boys and 30 percent of girls pass the Malawi School Certificate of Education (MSCE) at the end of grade 12.

Teaching staff

As of 2005 the total number of primary school teachers was 13,000 (2005) (67 percent female), Ninety-two percent were trained (83 percent male; 97 female) (UNESCO, 2007:339). This is a remarkable improvement compared to 1997, when 51 percent of primary school teachers held a diploma or certificate.

For teachers at secondary education levels, no figures are provided by the Education for All Report 2008. Back in 1997, the percentage of trained teachers had been 37 percent.

Source: Ministry of Education <http://www.malawi.gov.mw/Education/HomeChallenges.htm>

4.3.2.3 Literacy rates

Based on data provided in 2006 by the Education Management Information System, 64 percent of the total population is considered to be literate.⁵⁰ Literacy has a gender and a regional dimension. Seventy-six percent of the male population is literate as opposed to only 50 percent of the female population. With 90.5 percent, literacy in urban areas is much higher than in rural areas, where only 58.7 percent are considered to be literate.

⁵⁰ Based on a population figure of 11,937,934

4.3.2.4 Weaknesses of the education sector

- High dropout rates in schools, more especially for the girls
- Declining quality of education mainly due to low and poor inputs
- Liberalisation of the education sector, poor supervision, and inadequate number of qualified teachers
- High HIV/AIDS incidences, resulting in reducing the number of teachers and also increased absenteeism of pupils.
- Decentralisation process in the sector has not been fully implemented although
- There have been some efforts to devolve some functions
- Failure to finalise some policies such as the EFA action plan has frustrated other stakeholders in education sector. Those policies already in place have not been
- Well disseminated, making implementation a bit difficult
- Deployment of teachers favours urban schools at the expense of rural schools
- Lack of personnel and capacity to manage the EMIS at all levels
- Poor management of funds on supervision and advisory services (IMF, 2005: 51)⁵¹

4.3.3 Non-formal education

According to the Education for All country report on Malawi for 2000, a number of non-formal educational opportunities for out-of-school youths had been available until 1990, but the report does not give an overview of the developments in the following years (Matola, 2000). Back then it was stated: “There is no data to indicate the exact numbers of the various categories of the youth and adults that are to be reached by government programmes aimed at addressing the needs in this area. Similarly, there are also no official records indicating the number of the youths who have already been reached by the available programmes, nor is there any record of the number of those reached and are employed.” (Matola, 2000) There are roughly 2,500 in-school and 1,500 out-of-school youth clubs, most of which are anti-HIV/AIDS clubs. In addition there are about 81 youth NGOs registered with the National Youth Council of Malawi and 32 youth centres which provide a venue for non-formal education for youth (Swann, 2007:8).

4.3.3.1 State providers in non-formal education

National Adult Literacy Centre

Actor/provider

The National Adult Literacy Centre under the Ministry of Women and Child Development is implementing adult literacy programmes, skill development initiatives and a UNDP-supported programme called “Sustainable Social and Economic Empowerment for Poverty Reduction”.

Target group

The target group are illiterate adults, men and women, boys and girls above primary school age. Potential beneficiaries of the programme are estimated to exceed one million people. In 2003/04 review, about 3,500 classes were opened in the country and the learning cycle registered over sixty thousand learners with women comprising ninety percent of the total (see IMF, 2005:21).

Programme

The courses last ten months and are accredited, giving the equivalent of five years primary schooling.

Government-funded pupils/youths, Open Learning Centres

Government-funded Pupils/Youths Open Learning Centres have been established in most Conventional Secondary Schools (CSSs) and Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs), in order to bring back the out-of-school youth. These centres offer training in skills for livelihoods development and are funded by an AfDB loan. No further information was available on their programmes.

Programmes under the Ministry of Youth and Culture

Programmes under the Ministry of Youth and Culture focus on specific needs of youths, such as civic education and HIV and AIDS education. These are targeted through short courses or on-going activities at youth centres rather than extended and certified courses. The activities of the Youth Entrepreneurship and Employment Programme include:

- sensitisation of communities and youth
- formation of loan groups
- training of youth in business management and entrepreneurship skills
- linking youth with money-lending institutions
- disbursing loans to youth groups
- training youth in vocational skills, such as carpentry, tailoring, tinsmith, etc.

By 2005, at least ten artisans, and in turn 35 young people, had been trained at one of the three training centres. Due to lack of funds, the status of the programme is doubtful (see Swann, 2007:8). No further information was available.

4.3.3.2 Non-governmental non-profit providers

There are a number of non-governmental organisations providing a variety of programmes to out-of-school youth. There are a few youth groups offering non-formal post-primary education opportunities to out-of-school children of various ages. Although the overall number of beneficiaries is small, the peer approach followed by them seems to be promising.

The Likuni Youth Alliance (est. December 2006) is integrated in the Chisapo Development Plan in cooperation with the GTZ Forum for Dialogue and Peace and targets secondary and primary school dropouts. The courses offered are related to HIV/AIDS prevention, sports and gardening. Limited funds stem from registration fees of members only. The Chisapo 2 Group (est. 2001) concentrate on getting children and youth back to school, targeting about 100 grade-5 leavers and 70 primary school dropouts. They, too, have limited funds which stem from registration fees of members only. The Chisapo Dropout Club employs four teachers to offer classes on the existing primary school curriculum for about 60 primary school dropouts in two age groups: 8 to 10 and 11 to 15 years.

The Maziko Orphan Training Salima (MOTS) provides training programmes for 33 male and female orphans between the ages of 15 to 18 in three terms over a period of 10 months in 2006/2007. Training programmes comprise six skill areas: carpentry, wood carving, metal work, auto mechanics, building and construction, and tailoring. Further instruction is given in the areas of HIV/AIDS awareness and business entrepreneurship along with experiential learning in nutrition, health, agriculture and athletics. Every successful graduate is provided with a tool kit as a starting capital. Some additional budget will also be made available for materials the graduates will need to start with the expected set up of a small business. MOTS employs 15 full-time staff including skilled office personnel and professional trade instructors. Facilities include a hostel with accommodation for 24 students and providing three meals a day. There are workshops for carpentry and metal work training with trade equipment as well as an office block for administration. The commendable approach extends beyond the actual 10-month training period

The programme is funded by UNIDO, the National Aids Commission and Save the Children. The costs range from MWK 169,000 per year for a student taking up carpentry and wood carving to MWK 234,000 for those who specialise in metalwork. The rolling out of such a model seems to be unrealistic because of cost considerations. At this stage no evaluation on the effectiveness of this programme has been carried out. Tracing of the graduates is intended.

No further information on this programme was available.

The Adolescent Girls Literacy Project (AGLIT) aims at imparting basic skills of literacy and numeracy, but also skills related to health, nutrition and livelihoods. The programme lasts nine months with two hour sessions daily and is run in four districts, with UNICEF and other donor support. No further information on this programme was available.

While most NGOs seem to offer programmes in rural areas, growing attention is being paid to urban youth, who is increasing in numbers. Malawi (with South Africa, Mozambique and Rwanda) is benefiting from the Alliance for African Youth Employability launched in 2004 by the International Youth Fund (IYF) with the US Agency for International Development (USAID), Nokia, and Lions Clubs International Foundation. They collectively committed more than USD 1.8 million over a period of five years to the initiative to target 35,000 disadvantaged young people, ages 14 to 29, living in rapidly urbanising areas. No further information was available.

4.3.3.3 Private actors/providers

There are several private providers offering post-school training and skills development in a number of areas such as computing, business studies, catering and tourism. Most of these providers target secondary school leavers and dropouts. There are very limited opportunities for training for out-of-school youth who have attended only primary school (Kadzamira, 2004). An example of a public-private partnership (PPP) in the area of non-formal education is the Blantyre Automotive Mechatronics Training Centre at Stansfield Motor Limited. No further information about this initiative was available.

4.3.3.4 Conclusion

Based on the information on non-formal post-primary education available, it can be concluded that the government and non-governmental organisations acknowledge the learning needs of out-of-school youth and are trying to meet their learning needs. Due to the large number of dropouts the demand, not only among rural but also among urban youth who have only attended primary school, seems to be great and very diverse. The further development of non-formal post-primary education should focus on getting these young people back to school, in particular if they belong to the age group between 12 and 16. For older youths who do not wish to return to school, educational programmes should take the needs of the labour market into account.

Due to the high relevance of HIV/AIDS to orphanages in Malawi, all initiatives should take this epidemic and its impact on children's lives into consideration, as well as life skills, by including values, learning skills, nutrition, health, agriculture and athletics in their programmes. There is no detailed information on outputs of the various non-formal education offers. Skills training in preparation for work is concentrated on typical occupations, such as carpentry, wood carving, metal work, auto mechanics, building and construction, tailoring, business entrepreneurship, computing, business studies, catering and tourism. It would be useful to analyse markets and needs of the target group in order to ensure provision of skills leading towards employment or self-employment.

Obviously there is a need to collect information and data about present activities and make them known to actors involved, learn from best practices and adjust programmes accordingly. In order to create synergies and monitor results, a coordinating committee gathering stakeholders at governmental level seems advisable. The possibility should be considered of establishing a national forum for out-of-school youth, comprised of representatives of relevant stakeholders and partners: the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST), the Ministry of Labour and Social Development, the Ministry of Youth Development and Sports, the Ministry of Women and Child Development, as well as representatives from donor organisations, the civil society and young people themselves (see Huck, 2007). This National Forum could build on and strengthen existing structures such as the National Youth Council.

In light of the difficulties in funding experienced by NGOs that provide training for out-of-school youth, the creation of a Local Initiatives Fund should be looked into. It could provide funds to local communities/youth groups for simple, small and highly visible projects which generate tangible solutions to local priority needs (see Huck, 2007). Furthermore, options to foster private-public partnerships in the area of non-formal post-primary education should be investigated. The Blantyre Automotive Mechatronics Training Centre at Stansfield Motor Limited, which also provides job opportunities, might serve as a model.

5. General Findings

On account of the large numbers of learners who have either dropped out of secondary school or never reached that level - whether owing to their lack of economic resources, to limited access, or to the low relevance for life and/or low quality of secondary education - there is a enormous demand for post-primary education of adequate quality, especially for girls in rural areas. Due to its potential possible flexibility, non-formal education seems more likely to be able to fulfil these needs than the formal sector.

While educationalists appreciate non-formal education because of the great potential for innovations in education attributed to it, in the eyes of the general public non-formal (post-primary) education does not have a high reputation and is regarded as second choice.

In the absence of links to the formal education system, non-formal education programmes risk evolving into parallel, frequently inferior, education systems for disadvantaged children, rather than serving as bridges to the regular classroom and/or to the labour market.

While standalone non-formal education programmes may be appropriate for youths over 18 and long-term dropouts, there seems to be some consensus that the overarching emphasis of non-formal education programmes for younger children should be on equipping children to enter and succeed in the formal education sector.

In the countries under revision for this synopsis, governments acknowledge the needs of children for out-of-school, non-formal education, but providing it for this target group is not one of the governments' main focal points. Information and data on existing initiatives are not included in central, regional and district education management systems. Therefore relatively little information and data are available. Existing programmes are highly diverse, in terms of objectives, target groups, content, pedagogy and effectiveness. In general there are no regular assessment and evaluation procedures in place.

Funding non-formal education is a key issue as most countries struggle to providing sufficient funds for the formal education system. Adult literacy programmes excluded, most governments seem to rely on private and international funding for non-formal education offers.

6. Recommendations

The education sector needs to be seen within the broader context of societal, economical and political developments on the national as well as international level. Even if one assumes that education is one of the most important factors for socio-economic development, this sector will only unfold its potential if international trade policies fostering economic growth in developing countries are being put in place and if national governments manage to create an atmosphere conducive to domestic and foreign private investment, just to name a few elements of a framework conducive to changes.

Due to the distinct social, economic, political and educational reality of each of the countries, the challenges of developing and implementing non-formal post-primary education initiatives vary from country to country. Non-formal post-primary education must take into account local, regional, national and international contexts. In light of the limited information and data on non-formal post-primary education upon which this synopsis is based, the following recommendations are to be seen as preliminary.

Relevant ministries and other stakeholders should be further sensitised to the learning needs of out-of-school children and youth, and subsequently to the potentials and challenges of non-formal post-primary. The lack of information on non-formal post-primary education creates a great need for systematic collection of information as well as in-depth studies of non-formal post-primary education initiatives and programmes in order to provide a sound basis for its further development. Special attention should be paid to systematic mapping of policies, programmes, initiatives and experiences in non-formal and para-formal education for identification of good practices. Since faith-based organisations and institutions seem to play a key role in the provision of non-formal education for children and youth, they should be included in the mapping. Target groups (numbers, gender, age and regional distribution), goals, activities, curricula, methods, evaluation and assessment procedures, institutional affiliations, and funding need to be included. Also policies, programmes, initiatives and experiences in non-formal and para-formal education should be evaluated in terms of funding; programme sustainability, with a special focus on rates of transfer to the formal education system, survival rates and/or to the labour market; programme and curriculum relevance; teaching/learning processes and outcomes; identification of challenges of scaling up and of approaches suitable for scaling up. Studies on long-term effects of non-formal education interventions on poverty and inequality should be initiated.

In light of the demographic forecast which predicts an increase of the primary school age population by 22 percent and given the understandable pressure to extend the cycle of basic education in schools to 9 years and to also expand upper secondary education programmes, there is a high risk that the disparity between government commitments to formal and to non-formal schooling will be further accentuated in the next years. Yet the development of the formal as well as the non-formal education sector has to be seen from a holistic perspective in order for each sector to unfold efficiently and for the creation of synergies between the two sectors.

This requires:

- a) Assessment of the current role of non-formal vis-à-vis formal education in national education systems
- b) Clear identification of the relative roles of non-formal vis-à-vis formal education in education systems
- c) Clear identification of needs and demands
- d) Clear commitment from the government to facilitate non-formal education as a viable alternative for those who have dropped out of school or cannot enter school
- e) Non-governmental providers offering non-formal post-primary education opportunities of acceptable quality should be offered incentives and partnerships
- f) Non-formal post-primary education should be integrated into national development policy and planning as well as into the legal framework of education.

The latter would ensure that non-formal post-primary education information and data would be included in education management systems and that opportunities to move between the non-formal and formal sub-sectors within a diversified education system would be improved. Here overarching emphasis should be put on the provision of non-formal post-primary education supporting children and youth up to 16 years to enter and or re-enter the formal education sector (in order to avoid the development of an alternative inferior parallel system). Integration of non-formal education opportunities would also help to ensure minimum standards with regard to quality, the provision and the assessment of learning outcomes, and would enable non-formal post-primary education programmes to benefit from Ministry of Education inspection and supervision services, curriculum development and teacher training.

It is of highest importance for coordination to take place between ministries (Education, Youth, Sports, Agriculture, Employment, Women and Child Development and others), national and international NGOs, CBO, faith-based organisations and private organisations/companies involved in the provision of non-formal education. The installation of a committee at the ministerial level should ensure efficient exchange of information and experiences and thus facilitate coordination. The creation of a stakeholder communication platform (service providers, employers, learners) is of paramount importance to ensure that non-formal education continues to serve the needs of its target groups.

Beside the above, systematic needs assessment surveys of out-of-school children and youth, (with a special focus on children/youth under 16) should also be carried out in order to establish a solid base for policy decisions and programme planning.

The integration of non-formal education initiatives and outputs into the national qualifications frameworks would greatly foster the creation of synergies between the formal and the non-formal education sectors, as would recognition of the various types of non-formal post-primary education learning and education.

In light of limited financial resources, public-private partnerships are vital to mobilise the necessary resources, foster community support and ensure that non-formal post-primary education responds effectively to the expectations of local communities and national leaders.

Non-governmental providers of non-formal post-primary education opportunities of acceptable quality should be provided incentives and partnerships, e.g. buildings, tax reductions etc.

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Abbreviations

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AfDB	African Development Bank
BMZ	German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development
DFID	Department for International Development (of UK)
EFA	Education for All
GDP/GNP	Gross domestic product/gross national product
GER	Gross enrolment ratio
GO	Governmental organisations
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH (German Technical Cooperation)
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning (of UNESCO)
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LINS	Lærerutdanningens Internasjonale Senter (of Oslo University College)
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NET	Net enrolment ratio
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
PPE	Post-primary education
SEIA	Secondary Education in Africa (programme of the World Bank)
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa

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