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DVV International

FINAL REPORT

STUDY ON

BUILDING ADULT EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN AFRICAN CONTEXTS

SUBMITTED TO

Regional Director, Southern Africa
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BY

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AE	Adult Education
ALE	Adult Learning and Education
AU	The African Union
BFA	Belem Framework for Action
CESA	Continental Education Strategy for Africa
CSEC	Civil Society Education Coalition
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
DVV	Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband e.V.
EAC	East African Community
GEMR	Global Education Monitoring Report
GRALE	Global Report on Adult Learning and Education
ICT	Information Communication Technology
KII	Key Informant Interviews
LL	Lifelong Learning
MCECCD	Ministry of Civic Education, Culture and Community Development
MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MGDS	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy
MIS	Management Information Systems
NACLAE	National Centre for Literacy and Adult Education
NEET	Not in Education, Employment or Training
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
PAF	Peoples Action Forum
REFLECT	Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques
SADC	Southern African Development Community
TEVET	Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education and Training
TEVETA	Technical, Entrepreneurial Vocational Education and Training Authority
UIL	UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
VNFE	Vocational and Non-Formal Education
YALE	Youth and adult Literacy and Education

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This is a report of the study on building adult education systems that sought to explore how they have been set up, and how they are sustained, in African contexts, with a particular focus on the countries of Southern and Eastern Africa where DVV International is working.

The main objective of the study was to explore African experiences of adult education systems building in order to promote discussion and debate among governmental and non-governmental actors on the key elements of building robust and sustainable adult education systems in African contexts. Specific focus was on DVV International's projects and experiences of adult education system building from the two regions of Southern Africa and Eastern Africa.

The study explored key elements of policies and legislation, financing, curriculum and programme development, training, and monitoring, evaluation and data collection. The key stakeholder groups for the study were civil society organizations and Government ministries, departments, and agencies.

The study included a desk review and structured interviews with ALE sectoral stakeholders at macro level in DVV catchment areas in Southern and Eastern Africa, but also benefited from perspectives from West Africa region.

Key Findings

The analysis provides status on (a) policies and legislation, (b) financing, (c) curriculum and programme development, (d) Training, and (e) Monitoring and Evaluation and Data Collection.

Policies and legislation
- ALE definitions inform policies as manifested in 84% of SSA compared to 80% of the DVV focused countries.
- ALE Policy frameworks exist for non-formal learning and informal learning though a division still exists between those that adopt a narrow definition, and those that embrace a broader perspective compatible with the CONFINTEA goals.
- 68% of SSA countries had developed policy frameworks by 2013 and within DVV focus countries this currently stands at 80%.
- Most countries in Africa, while adopting some form of broad adult education definition in their policies, have a narrow vision of ALE, often limited to literacy. This results in policies that are overly-focused on literacy and basic education and miss the other needs of learners to respond to the full dimensions of their lives in a holistic manner.
- ALE reporting remains based on literacy rates.
- 58% of countries in SSA enacted new ALE related policies (Adult Education, Non-Formal Education, Technical and Vocational Education, and Literacy). All DVV focus countries have enacted some kind of ALE related policies. These contribute to providing an enabling environment for ALE.
- There are some obstacles such as low level of commitment and political will to advance policies that foster ALE.
- The SDG agenda promotes a more holistic approach to ALE, as opposed to the more traditional literacy/illiteracy focus, but the new dimensions are difficult to measure. Consequently, ALE reporting remains based primarily on literacy rates.
- Challenges
    - Lack of comprehensive ALE policy frameworks in some countries.
    - ALE programmes still tend to be based on the traditional concept of literacy rather than the evolving notion of literacy conceived within a lifelong learning perspective.

- Recommendations
  - Pan-African clarification and standardization of ALE terminology and concepts is required to enable comparability of data and to help regional collaboration and dissemination of information and research.
  - Develop more comprehensive, consolidated, inclusive ALE policies and implementation guidelines.

Financing
- Accurate assessments of both ALE investment needs and investment realities are very difficult to make. It is clear that adult education does not receive enough investment at national or international levels.
- ALE is linked to a range of social and economic policy goals, so is also funded in a myriad of direct and indirect ways across ministries and between public and private sources. Underreporting of investment is therefore inevitable.
- 25% of SSA countries spend at least 6 per cent of GDP on education, with 10% reporting spending 4% cent or more of public education expenditure on adult education; 26% spend 0.4% and below on adult education.
- SSA countries allocate 4.1% of GDP to education (16.9% share of total public expenditure), which is less than the BFA threshold, with most countries spending less than 2% of the education budget on ALE.
- Accessing financial data is arduous because of the veil of secrecy that often surrounds financial issues, coupled with generally poor record keeping.
- Funding for ALE programmes has been far below international benchmarks of allocating at least 3% of the education budget to ALE
- Southern African countries spend between 2.2% to 9.6% of GDP on education, averaging 5.8% of GDP (including some DVV focus countries). The budget is entirely on recurrent spending, with typically 85– 95 % of it being on teacher salaries.
- 44% of countries reported an increase in ALE spending since 2009 (as a proportion of public education spending), though 22% reported a decrease in SSA.
- ALE budgets only pay for what is in policies/strategies and yet polices have too narrow a focus on literacy, which is aggravating the situation.
- 23% of countries did not have information on educational expenditure on ALE.
- 80% of DVV focus countries reported stagnant public spending on ALE between 2014 and 2018, while 20% reported decreased spending.
- This picture of ALE financing challenges affords an opportunity to advocate for a multi-sectoral approach and understanding of ALE.
- Challenges
  - Basic information about financing systems and practices is still lacking.
  - Evidence of the concrete and wider benefits of ALE remains elusive and is needed to attract new sources of financing.
- Recommendations
  - Robust empirical research and data collection tools on ALE financing are needed to deepen understanding of cost benefits from ALE investment and build a robust knowledge base upon which to shape effective and efficient financing models for adult learning and education.
  - There is a need for new and innovative ways to mobilise financial resources.
  - Inculcate a culture and spirit of "how to achieve more ALE delivery with a small budget" at all levels.

Curriculum and Programme Development
- Basic definitions of youth and adults as targets of ALE are unclear and inconsistent, varying widely from country to country, and policy to policy within countries.

- Therefore, curricula and programmes are based on inconsistent and incoherent definitions, and are unsuitable as a result, and often do not meet the needs of learners.
- ALE quality is about factors that make learning and education worthwhile and purposeful.
- Pre-service qualifications are increasingly required in nearly all countries and there is growth in in-service and continuing education for practitioners, although the capacity for this is limited.
- Quality of ALE is not only a responsibility of the education and training sector, but of a wide range of stakeholders, including local, regional and national authorities.
- The number of countries engaging in curriculum reviews, development of new materials and the introduction of new instructional approaches has grown since 2009, directed at quality improvement in ALE delivery. 59% of countries reported witnessing quality improvements over this period.
- There are significant signs of the growth of in-service and continuing education and training for practitioners; though it was noted that 61% had inadequate capacity, and 32% had sufficient capacity. One can conclude that professionalization of adult educators is increasing, though the process is under-resourced.
- Continuing lack of data on quality improvements and innovation may hamper a fair assessment of progress in the regions.
- Research is key in driving ALE quality improvement. This is manifested in curriculum reviews, improved learner materials (particularly in local languages), and improved assessment of ALE learners.
- There is a continuing disconnect between local languages and the language of instruction that plays a particularly important role in the slow development of literacy skills in indigenous populations.
  - The vast majority of students are taught in a language other than their mother tongue, which compromises their ability to learn effectively.
  - This creates a lack of relevance, which ignites high dropout rates; men tend to stay away. This is compounded by reliance on semi-voluntary instructors.
- Recommendations
  - Need to overhaul conceptualisation, curriculum and materials of national literacy; to observe international and regional conventions; and to promote the use of mother-tongue as the medium of instruction
  - Customise curricula to respond effectively to learners' needs and revise practices and develop unified national curricula for ALE interventions

Training
- A key prerequisite for an education system to achieve its potential is the quality of educators.
- Establishing, maintaining and improving professional personnel in adult education, and creating the working environment to foster professionalism are critical issues.
- Since ALE operates in multiple dimensions, appropriate training-delivery systems are needed to better meet needs of ALE participants.
- Capacity for quality ALE provision is closely linked to a country's ability to train qualified staff that can carry out all of the activities related to conceptualizing training programmes and implementing them.
- Professionalization of adult educators is increasing but it is under-resourced. It is constrained by lack of finance for adequate training, poor quality of trainers in ALE and low retention of those trained in-service. Professionalisation is not systematic; the majority of trainers are not certified.
- Core competencies that address learners' needs can be learned using a wide range of approaches.

- There are different factors that contribute to low quality and lack of relevance of literacy and adult education programmes in SSA. Some of these factors are related to the quantity and quality of literacy teachers.
- In all of the countries in SSA, much work in ALE appears to be carried out by volunteers. It is an achievement to have persuaded young people to give their time in this way, and this, indeed, may have been the only solution available, given the paucity of resources that characterize these economies.
- There are consequences in terms of the amount of time that volunteers actually give on a daily or weekly basis, as well as in terms of the quality of service delivered. High turnover of volunteer workers can also prevent the build-up of expertise and constitutes a threat to effective literacy programme implementation.
- Quality of teaching is also affected by a lack of teaching and learning materials.
- Recommendations
    o Standardize and professionalise the training of Adult Educators.
    o Establish and support appropriate national level qualifications frameworks.
    o Develop and implement a national level capacity building plan for ALE practitioners and harmonise conditions of service.

Monitoring and Evaluation and Data Collection
- Legitimacy of statistics cannot be underestimated. Reliable statistics are critical to efficient programme design and implementation in ALE.
- This underlines that need to insist on more in-depth, robust research in ALE.
- Monitoring and evaluating ALE is vital. However, as education and learning often happen in undocumented non-formal or informal spaces, it can be difficult to assess with accuracy.
- Continually raising the visibility of all forms of ALE and striving for closer monitoring and more accurate data collection to inform decision-making is key.
- Basic data on ALE continues to be inadequate, and thus the true impacts of ALE are poorly understood.
- Beyond self-reported data by States, robust evidence on ALE remains hard to come by. The challenge is that responsibility for providing ALE and managing knowledge is shared by a range of public institutions and private actors. Moreover, ALE that takes place in non-formal and informal settings, which is most common, is hard to quantify and measure.
- There is a stark *data desert* in ALE. It is common knowledge that lack of data equals poor planning and implementation. Staff trained in M&E are often not available in ALE sector.
- Challenges
    o ALE knowledge-management systems are generally weak.
    o Lack of a monitoring and evaluation systems and strategies for adult education programmes.
    o Use of multiple unharmonized methods to produce literacy and adult education data. When various methods are used at different times, this creates challenges with regard to the comparability of the data.
- Recommendations
    o Develop knowledge-management systems for the collection, analysis and dissemination of both qualitative and quantitative ALE data, and document good-practice to inform policy development and practice of ALE.
    o Continue raising the visibility of all forms of adult learning.
    o Development and operationalization of national level ALE MIS.

Conclusions
- ALE makes a difference by helping people to continuously update their knowledge and skills throughout their lives and enabling them to maintain their ability to contribute as healthy and productive members of society.

- Africa continues to be challenged by the educational and livelihood needs of its rapidly growing population, with high illiteracy rates, and gender and urban/rural disparities.
- Drop-out rates from primary schools remain high, resulting in a corresponding surge of a group of illiterate, unskilled or semi-skilled adults with limited capacities and opportunities to improve their livelihoods.
- The weak current state of ALE in SSA is mainly due to minimal investment levels made by states/governments, which do not meet international targets and fall far short of meeting existing demand.
- ALE takes place across all sectors. Therefore, resource mobilization requires multifaceted and innovative strategies that highlight the positive impacts of ALE and which will appeal to a wide range of potential funders.
- Research has an important contribution to make to quality management in ALE, as it shines a light on the causal chain between inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes.
- Sustained emphasis needs to be placed on the benefits of ALE for a wide range of stakeholders. Increased partnership between the government, civil society and the private sector is essential for developing and sustaining ALE.

Key Recommendations
Based on the analysis of the study findings, the following recommendations are made:
a) For ownership and buy-in, policies and strategies must be developed in a participatory manner involving all relevant stakeholders.
b) Develop comprehensive ALE and Lifelong Learning policies to coordinate different forms of ALE across sectors.
c) *Increase Funding*: Governments and donors should make long-term commitments to finance ALE.
d) *Enhance the Monitoring Role of Regional and sub Regional Bodies*: AU and Sub-regional bodies (e.g. SADC, ECOWAS & EAC) should encourage and reinforce ALE policy formulation, monitoring and implementation.
e) *Database for Literacy*: Countries should develop national databases on ALE aid flows, service delivery and financing.
f) *Enhanced Partnerships*: Governments, communities, CSOs, the private sector and development partners should work together to develop and implement sustainable ALE programmes.

1.0   INTRODUCTION

DVV International is the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband e.V.), which represents the interests of approximately 900 adult education centres (Volkshochschulen), the largest further education providers in Germany. As the leading professional organisation in the field of adult education (AE) and development cooperation, DVV International has committed itself to supporting lifelong learning for more than 45 years, providing worldwide support for the establishment and development of sustainable structures for Adult Learning and Education (ALE)[1]. DVV International provides capacity development and professional training, as well as advice and media for adult education policy engagement and system building.

DVV International works in 8 countries in Africa, where it supports partners on the micro, meso, and macro levels to expand and improve access and quality of ALE programmes, builds the capacity of civil society organisations and other stakeholders in ALE, and works with governments and partners to build and strengthen sustainable national youth and adult education systems. DVV International recognises that ALE is not only a basic human right, but is also essential to the development of individuals, communities and nations. It influences and enhances all sub-sectors of education from early childhood to old age in a framework of lifelong learning.

However, despite the pivotal role that ALE plays in development at all levels, it remains the most overlooked and underfunded sub-sector of education. ALE stakeholders, both governmental and non-governmental, worldwide face a myriad of challenges (e.g. in relation to policies and legislation, financing, curriculum development, training, monitoring and data collection systems, etc.) in catering to the learning needs of youth and adults. In the African context, many developing countries lack the resources to adequately address these challenges.

Despite this, national adult education systems exist and persist across the continent. This study seeks to explore how adult education systems have been set up, and how they are sustained, in African contexts, with a particular focus on the countries of Southern and Eastern Africa where DVV International is working.

1.1   ALE background and study context

1.1.1   Pedagogy of adult education

The issue of learner-centred education is widely developed in adult education. Malcolm Knowles (1973[2]) promotes the concept of *andragogy* defining it as the "art and science of helping adults to learn". Nowadays andragogy is a well-accepted term defining the pedagogy of adult education around the world. According to Merriam and Caffarella (1999)[3] andragogy is based on humanistic learning theory which places the human being at the centre of the learning process.

Andragogy comprises not only methodological issues but also ethical issues, which are fundamental to ensure confidence in adult learners. Knowles (1984)[4] outlined six principles of adult learning which are related to individuals as adult persons and as learners. These principles are: (1) Adult learners are self-directed, (2) they have considerable experience and knowledge

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[1] Global consensus of the UN and other stakeholders is to henceforth use the acronym ALE (which is considered to include youth). This is because of the mixed 'branding' message of different documents using ALE, ABEL, AE, AL, etc.

[2] Knowles, M. (1973). The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species (1st Ed.). Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing. p.43

[3] Merriam, S. B., & Caffarella, R. S. (1999). Learning in Adulthood. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

[4] Knowles, M. (1984). The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species (3rd Ed.). Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.

acquired in different contexts of their lives, (3) they are goal-oriented (readiness to learn), (4) they are relevance-oriented, (5) they are problem-oriented and (6) their motivation to learn is internal.

Obviously, in terms of self-directedness, some adult learners may need initial assistance to achieve this characteristic (Cercone, 2008)[5], particularly the less schooled or when the task or the learning content is new for them. Adult learners, in general, are autonomous, independent, self-reliant and self-directed (Knowles, 1980)[6]. These characteristics need to be taken into account in the design of adult education programmes and training activities. For instance, adult learners need to be included in decision making about their process of learning. This step can be realized by giving them a voice in the process of the identification of their learning needs. They can be asked to identify relevant content that they need for their lives and work. The involvement of learners can be respected in the planning process as "human beings tend to feel committed to a decision to the extent that they have participated in making it" (Ibid. p. 48). Commitment can also increase the sense of ownership of the programmes and the chance of success. In the process of implementation of the planned educational activities, the educator needs to ensure mutual responsibility between him/herself and the learners. Adult education programme participants possess rich experience which might be privileged during the learning process.

Thus, according to Knowles (1984) educators need to acknowledge the experience that their learners bring into the learning process and use them as a resource for learning. Past experience is the basis for the acquisition of new knowledge and skills. Adult learners are goal-oriented, they are likely to participate in learning programmes when they see possibilities to apply the knowledge and skills they have acquired in their own lives. Merriam and Caffarella (1999, p. 272) noted that "the readiness of adults to learn is closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social roles". Adults "become ready to learn something when they experience a need to learn it in order to cope more satisfyingly with real life tasks or problems" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). In this sense, adult learners are more relevance-oriented as "they learn to be able to solve current problems or apply whatever knowledge and skills they gain today…" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). That is why they need to understand the benefit of a certain content or learning programme before they participate in it. Jarvis et al (2003, p. 257)[7] explain that "if an activity has clear and immediate relevance to the participants' own particular needs and interests, it will attract and hold them, and bring about the desired changes".

The relevance of the learning activity can contribute to the motivation of adults to learn. The motivation of adults to learn is described as more internal than external; it is linked to factors such as job satisfaction, self-esteem, quality of life etc. (Knowles, 1984; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). However, external motivation in adult learners is also observed, especially when they link their motivation to factors such as higher categories in the work place and increased salaries (Knowles, 1984). Jarvis et al. (2003) describe different principles to take into account when designing learning programmes for adult learners. For instance, opportunities to practice the skills described in the learning objectives is emphasised. "If the objective is to develop critical thinking, the participant must have the opportunity to practice such skills in the learning situation" (Jarvis et al., 2003, p. 260). This is valid for all types of skills including vocational skills.

It is against this theoretical underpinning that adult learning programmes need to be linked to

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[5] Cercone, K. (2008). Characteristics of adult learners with implications for online learning design. AACE Journal, 16(2), 137-159.
[6] Knowles, M. S. (1980). The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Cambridge Adult Education.

[7] Jarvis, P. Holford, J and Griffin, C., (2003). The theory and practice of learning. 2nd edition. London: Kogan Page

the needs of the learners so that they can realize their goals. This can be advantageously realised in educational programmes using a non-formal approach. Combs & Ahmed (1974 p.35)[8] define Non-Formal Education (NFE) as "any organised systematic educational activity carried out outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups of the population". Tuijnman (1996)[9] explains that the essence of NFE is the systematic transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills in a more diverse and flexible way, in terms of space, time and material. The concept of NFE in the practice of developing countries mainly refers to out-of-school training activities that aim to offer skills, develop knowledge, attitudes and values related to occupational activities in the formal or informal labour market. The pedagogical characteristic of flexibility in NFE create space to take into account not only the learners' needs, but also their backgrounds and the context in which the activities take place. Flexibility and the relevance of the learning programmes are linked because the possibility to flexibly adapt learning to the needs of the participants makes them more motivated to learn and patronize learning activities.

1.1.2 Study context

Adult learning is no longer on the margins of educational theory and practice but has gained new impetus within lifelong learning as a paradigm for inclusion and empowerment. To some extent, this process reflects theoretical and socio-political evolution: access to diverse kinds of learning is a universal right and a democratic entitlement for people of all ages, whatever their personal, social and economic circumstances[10]. While educational policymakers in many countries have begun to grasp the importance of adult learning and its core positioning within lifelong learning, the adult education sector has remained poorly resourced and poses challenges for effective governance. The mapping study undertaken by DVV International in late 2017 in Malawi[11] confirmed the main gaps identified in the provision of ALE and NFVE services that included financing, staffing, policy, networking, and information/documentation gaps. This has resulted in limited scope of the UNESCO Member States' potential for rekindling policy action in the adult education sector which has not been realised to the extent initially hoped. Consequently, one important lesson for the post-2015 development agenda is to ensure that adult learning and education within lifelong learning is accorded much greater priority, backed up with commitments open to mutual monitoring.

The *Belém Framework for Action* sought to anchor the concept of literacy as a continuum in UNESCO Member States' policies and actions[12]. Learning and using literacy skills is a continuous, context-bound process that takes place both within and outside explicitly educational settings and throughout life. This understanding implies concerted development of cross-sectoral policy. Thus, if literacy is to take its rightful integral place in the implementation of lifelong learning for all, policy and action must be underpinned and guided by the state of the art – conceptually, methodologically and practically. The focus should be on the creation of rich literate environments and learning societies, rather than simply on reducing illiteracy per se. Such environments and societies can best emerge when literacies and learning are embedded in broad-based educational perspectives with life-wide reach – encompassing work-related and work-based learning, community education, social and political participation, family life, health and environmental action.

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[8] Coombs, P. H. and Ahmed, M. (1974) *Attacking Rural Poverty: How non-formal education can help,* Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press

[9] Tuijnman, A.C. (ed.) (1996). International Encyclopaedia of Adult Education and Training (2nd edition). London: Pergamon and Elsevier Science.

[10] Second *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education (GRALE) 2013 p.i*

[11] DVV/GoM: (2018) Youth and Adult Literacy and Education and Vocational and Non-Formal Education Mapping Study. Lilongwe. p.24

[12] *CONFINTEA VI: Belém Framework for Action: Harnessing the power and potential of adult learning and education for a viable future.* 2010a. Hamburg,

The study's main focus is to promote discussion and debate among governmental and non-governmental actors on the key elements of building robust and sustainable adult education systems focusing on exploring key elements of:
a) Policies and legislation
b) Financing
c) Curriculum and programme development
d) Training
e) Monitoring & Evaluation and data collection

This focus is in tandem with the five fields of policy and action specified in the *Belém Framework for Action*, namely, Policy, Governance, Financing, Participation, and Quality.

The *Belém Framework* stipulates that policies and legislative measures for adult education need to be comprehensive, inclusive and integrated within a lifelong and life-wide learning perspective, based on sector-wide and inter-sectoral approaches, covering and linking all components of learning and education. Although a significant majority of reporting countries have formulated adult education, adult literacy or lifelong learning policies, success in translating policy into action has been limited with reports showing that little has changed on the ground since the first GRALE in 2010. The critical importance of learning and education in youth and adulthood continues to be unevenly recognised in policy-making around the globe. Definitions remain confused and cloudy, while non-formal and informal learning modalities and pathways remain at the margins of recognition and reward.

This underscores that adult learning and education and lifelong learning are given prominence in the post-2015 strategic agenda's priorities. The increasing acceptance and application of the principle of lifelong learning in framing education agendas is a positive trend, demonstrating a growing awareness of the integrated nature of different formats and modalities of education.

1.2   Critical Action priorities for African Countries

As a follow up to CONFINTEA VI, African countries held a regional expert meeting on 'increasing the participation of youth and adults in learning and education' in November 2012 in Praia, Cabo Verde[13]. At the meeting, a matrix of actions was developed around four main areas as follows:
a) **Policy:** Advocate for a holistic approach to youth and adult education at regional, sub-regional and national levels.
b) **Governance:** Advocate for effective inter-ministerial, multi-sectoral cooperation and coordination in youth and adult education, support networking, partnership and the involvement of youth, and advocate for the establishment or strengthening of relevant, well-staffed and well-resourced agencies specialized in youth and adult education.
c) **Participation, equity and quality:** Map the situation of vulnerable youth and assess their needs, conduct needs assessments to ensure the development of contextually and culturally relevant and useful programmes, develop alternative programmes for marginalized and disadvantaged groups, improve training-delivery systems to better meet the needs of vulnerable youth, revise curricula to better fit with the specific needs of marginalized groups, especially youth, and train curriculum designers to do so, and develop knowledge-management systems for the collection, analysis and dissemination of both qualitative and quantitative data and good-practice reports to inform policy development and practice.
d) **Special Focus on Youth:** Prioritize vulnerable youth and equip them with appropriate literacy and other basic life skills as well as professional skills. This is a complex process that requires the active and sustained participation of all key stakeholders.

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[13] UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL), 2013. *Regional Expert Meeting for the Follow-Up of CONFINTEA VI in Africa: Increasing the Participation of Youth and Adults in Learning and Education.* pp1-2

In terms of Governance, the *Belém Framework for Action* adopted two key principles for the promotion of good governance: effective, transparent, accountable and equitable implementation of policy and programmes; and stakeholder representation and participation to guarantee responsiveness to learners' needs. Thus, the involvement of all relevant actors remains a key requirement for good governance in ALE, and mixed governance models require highly effective consultation and coordination mechanisms and practices.

Stakeholder representation is often very weak in most of the countries where most processes are deemed government business with little or no involvement of other critical players. For example, in Malawi, policy development has been largely a governmental process, with only a few partners (United Nations (UNESCO), DVV) at the table. Mali has a similar situation with few non-state actors on the horizon.

In its current form, AE often seems to be largely prescriptive. The BFA was not merely offering a suggestion for countries to follow. It was reporting back on the findings from around the world. The key question is: *Have countries responded? If not, they show themselves as unable or unwilling to learn yet while promoting lifelong learning for others.* This underscores the premise that governmental and non-governmental actors need to work together more rigorously and systematically. This does not mean that CSOs and NGOs should blindly follow government policies that they were perhaps never consulted on.

It is against this background that this study is significant to dig deep and situate the adult education systems within the African context particularly among the countries in the two regions of Southern Africa and Eastern Africa where DVV currently works.

1.3 Purpose and objectives of the study

1.3.1 Purpose

The purpose of the consultancy was to carry out a study on building effective adult education systems in the African contexts.

1.3.2 Objective of the Study

The main objective of the study was to explore African experiences of adult education systems building in order to promote discussion and debate among governmental and non-governmental actors on the key elements of building robust and sustainable adult education systems in African contexts. Specific focus was on DVV International's projects and experiences of adult education system building from the two regions of Southern Africa and Eastern Africa.

1.3.3 Stakeholder Map

The selection of stakeholders consulted was motivated by the desire to balance up geographical and sectoral representation of players in adult learning and education at macro level that would enrich the study outcomes. Therefore, the study identified the following stakeholders:

- *Civil Society Organizations*: The team engaged with some representatives of CSOs locally in Malawi and in the region to get a diversity of context of adult education landscapes in the regions of focus. These included DVV International Malawi, DVV International Mozambique, DVV International South Africa, DVV International Uganda, DVV International Ethiopia, DVV International Mali, DVV International, National Commission for UNESCO Malawi, Catholic Development Commission of Malawi, ANCEFA (Zambia), and SAFCC, TWC-SA, NMU, and DHET in South Africa.

- *Government*: The team had consultations with the Ministry of Civic Education, Culture and Community Development in Malawi; the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development in Uganda; Ministry of Education (Tanzania), Ministry of Education (Mozambique), and Ministry of Education (Ethiopia).

2.0 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Study Strategy

The study focused on desk review and in-depth interviews with ALE sectoral stakeholders at macro level to explore relevant issues around effective adult education systems in the DVV International catchment area in Southern and Eastern Africa but also benefited from the perspectives from the West Africa region.

Thus, stakeholder participation was an integral component of the study design and planning, information collection, the development of findings, reporting, and results dissemination. The techniques involved various stakeholders in the continuum of ALE across the regions with major considerations of their views and experiences based on previous lessons learnt.

2.2 Data collection methods

In order to collect the data required for a thorough analytical report, the study took three main approaches, namely, literature review, individual structured interviews, and meetings with stakeholders.

a) Planning and Consultative meetings and Study preparations

During this stage, the consultants undertook preliminary review of documentation in the fields of ALE and held preliminary discussions with the client, DVV, in order to determine information gaps and appropriate areas of focus. This process entailed reaching consensus on access to necessary data and it ensured that the consultant and client had the same understanding of the task.

b) Literature review

The consultant undertook a desk review of the existing body of literature in the field of ALE as it relates to effective delivery scenarios at macro level spanning the five areas of study focus. Literature review constituted the core of the information gathering that informed the study report. It provided an overview of the development, financing, implementation and review of ALE policies and systems in African contexts. This focused on relevant international comparative literature with analytical reports and publications from institutions at international (UN Level), continental (AU level), regional (SADC, EAC, etc. level), and national level (country level). These are appended in Annex 2.

c) Key Informant Interviews

Consultants carried out 21 key informant interviews with stakeholders to gather in-depth information from representative institutions in Malawi, Zambia, Uganda, Ethiopia, Mozambique, South Africa and Mali. KIIs were carried out to obtain specific information from specialists and people with special interests in the ALE sub-sector. This entailed the use of a structured questionnaire as a guide which was developed around a Country Situation Analysis of the following focal issues at macro level, namely:
a) Policies and legislation
b) Financing

c) Curriculum and program development
d) Training
e) Monitoring & Evaluation and data collection

Government Ministries, Departments or Agencies (MDAs) responsible for ALE filled the questionnaire, though sometimes assisted by other ministries such as gender, social affairs, health and labour/employment, by national institutions, and by a variety of civil society organizations (CSOs) depending on the strength of national collaboration on ALE. Thus, consultations were by means of meetings and administering the questionnaire. Regular consultation with the client, DVV, kept them abreast of the progress as the study unfolded.

This was augmented by the input of delegates to the presentation of the draft report as per the attached list in Annex 1.

2.3   Data compilation and analysis

The data collection tools generated data in both quantitative and qualitative form. Qualitative data included the responses of open-ended survey questions and interviews with selected key informants.

The qualitative data collected was analysed, critiqued, processed and summarized based on key domains/issues which were established during the literature review, field survey, and from interview notes. Thus, for analysis and presentation of findings from the study, the consultants used a mixture of grounded theory analysis, synthesis, elements of storytelling, content analysis, pattern analysis, and key word analysis. The quantitative data has been presented as quoted from the secondary sources and complemented by the input of KIIs.

2.4   Limitations of the study

It is acknowledged that this study had some limitations to the scope of the topic and these derive from the following:
a) Timeframe of the study was short, motivated by the desire to focus on input into the international conference held in September 2018, hence with much focus on desk review.
b) While the topic is broad, coverage of the study sample and issues is narrow - focused on the countries where DVV works. Therefore, it cannot be considered that exploring the ALE context of 5-8 countries gives a full picture of the roughly 50 African countries. Rather, it is a cross-sectional analysis intended to help DVV, AE stakeholders and partners (governmental and non-governmental) in these countries to gain a snap shot for a better understanding of ALE and plan better to effectively spur a broad-based ALE agenda anchored in systematic models that add value to quality ALE delivery systems.
c) Emanating from b) above, it follows that the study is not all-encompassing in ALE, but rather provides an opportunity to build on this and expand the study in other countries and regions at a later stage.

2.5   2030 Education Agenda and Status and importance of ALE in Africa

2.5.1   2030 Education Agenda

The 2030 Education agenda is anchored in Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 *"Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all"*. The Goal has two targets that directly seek to accelerate ALE, namely:
► Target 1: "By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship"

▶ Target 2: "By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy"

The SDG agenda acknowledges that ALE is a core component of lifelong learning. This is reinforced by the fact that, according to the Third GRALE[14], globally 65% of countries identified illiteracy as major factor preventing ALE from having a greater impact on health and well-being.

2.5.2 Status and importance of ALE in Africa

Between 2000 and 2016, the adult literacy rate increased from 81.5% to 86% worldwide, although it remains at 65% in Sub-Saharan Africa and 61% in low income countries as shown in Table 1. The number of adults with no literacy skills has fallen by just 4% to 750 million[15]. The number of youth (aged 15 to 24) with no literacy skills has fallen by 27%, although more than 100 million young people still cannot read, including more than one in four in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and in low income countries. Why such low levels of progress in ALE in SSA? This emanates from various factors. The continuing disconnect between local languages and language of instruction plays a particularly important role in the slow development of literacy skills in these populations. In most countries in the SSA region, the vast majority of students are taught in a language other than their home or first language, which compromises their ability to learn effectively. This manifests lack of relevance to the learners, which ultimately ignites high drop-out rates, and exacerbates the tendency of men to stay away from ALE. The semi-voluntary nature of instructors compounds the situation. Curriculum development and programme delivery and training aspects of ALE are also crucial factors and are dealt with in more detail in 3.4 and 3.5 below.

Table 1: Youth and Adult Literacy Indicators 2000 and 2016 Globally and Africa

	Youth						Adults					
	Literacy (%)		Gender Parity Index		Number of Illiterate (M)		Literacy (%)		Gender Parity Index		Number of Illiterate (M)	
	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2016	2000	2016
WORLD	86.6	91.4	0.93	0.97	143	103	81.5	86.2	0.88	0.92	785	750
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	65.9	75.4	0.84	0.89	44	48	56	64.6	0.71	0.79	157	200
LOW INCOME	58.2	72.9	0.81	0.89	34	36	50.7	60.6	0.69	0.77	115	148
LOW MIDDLE INCOME	78.7	89.1	0.86	0.95	97	59	66.7	76.4	0.75	0.84	495	486

Source: UIL Database (2018)

In addition, low historic primary education completion is a key contributor to high levels of adult illiteracy in sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, the quality of teaching and learning in recent decades has remained insufficient to guarantee acquisition of basic literacy skills after four years of primary education. Only half of adults aged 20 to 64 who had completed five years of school could read an entire sentence, according to the latest Demographic and Health Surveys in 36 countries[16].

A large share of the adult population in low- and middle-income countries has not completed primary school and is unlikely to return to complete basic education. For example, in Mozambique, although only 20% of adults had completed primary school by 2016, only 0.5% were enrolled in formal education. Countries where adult enrolment was higher (above 4%) were mainly upper middle-income countries such as Brazil, the Dominican Republic and Thailand. However, these statistics do not tell how many adults are involved in continuing education outside the formal system. Labour force surveys could be better used to capture not only technical and vocational, but also other kinds of adult education (UNESCO 2018, GEMR).

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[14] GRALE, 2016
[15] UNESCO (2018) Global Education Monitoring Report
[16] UNESCO 2018 GEMR p.204

The SDG agenda rightly shifts attention away from the conventional dichotomy of literacy/illiteracy to measures of proficiency in literacy skills. For policy-makers, the rigid distinction between adults who do or do not possess literacy skills is less informative than the range of proficiency levels found among adults in various contexts and the kinds of policy interventions that can effectively improve literacy levels among particular groups. For the time being, however, the needed measurement tools are not widely available, so reporting on youth and adult literacy based on traditional literacy rates continues. According to the most recent estimates, the global adult literacy rate was 85%, which means 758 million adults lacked any literacy skills[17]. There were 91 literate women for every 100 literate men – and as few as 74 literate women for every 100 literate men in low income countries. The youth literacy rate was 91%, meaning 114 million youth lacked any literacy skills.

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[17] UNESCO 2016 GEMR p.45

3.0   STUDY FINDINGS

3.1   Preamble

The analysis featured experiences, challenges and recommendations related to building adult education systems in African contexts. The analysis took place against the background of various processes. Firstly, it was nine years since the international community held the Sixth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI), in 2009 in Belém in Brazil. Secondly, it was being prepared following the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in 2015 and the Incheon Declaration – Education 2030 and the Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education. Thirdly, a mid-term review of the CONFINTEA VI including the status of adult learning and education in sub-Saharan Africa was undertaken in 2017. Thus, the analysis broadly provides the status of adult education systems in Africa, particularly in Southern and Eastern Africa, focusing on the five aforementioned themes developed during CONFINTEA VI. These are (a) policies and legislation, (b) financing, (c) curriculum and programme development, (d) Training, and (e) Monitoring and Evaluation and Data Collection.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that Africa remains a poor continent, further challenged by rapid population growth, coupled with weak or very modest educational outputs[18]. However, Africa's Agenda 2063 and the CESA (2016/2015) brings some hope of transformation by, among others, calling for increased investment in human capacity development of its people through an expanded and equitable quality education system (AU, Agenda 2063; AU, CESA, 2015).

3.2   Policies and Legislation

Stakeholders in ALE in Africa have advocated for a holistic approach to ALE policy processes following CONFINTEA VI. There is consensus that these policies need to be comprehensive, inclusive, integrated within a lifelong and life-wide learning perspective, based on sector-wide and inter-sectoral approaches, covering and linking all components of learning and education.

The suggested definition is as follows:
> "Adult learning and education is a core component of lifelong learning. It comprises all forms of education and learning that aim to ensure that all adults participate in their societies and the world of work. It denotes the entire body of learning processes, formal, non-formal and informal, whereby those regarded as adults by the society in which they live, develop and enrich their capabilities for living and working, both in their own interests and those of their communities, organizations and societies" (*2015 Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education (UNESCO UIL, 2016, p. 6)*).

ALE definitions inform policies[19] as manifested in 84% of SSA countries (Aitchison, 2017) compared to 80% of the DVV focused countries at the time of the study. Prior to 2009, various countries in Africa had established national qualifications frameworks which allowed for recognition of prior learning, notably South Africa, Malawi, Mauritius, Seychelles, Botswana, Lesotho and Zambia. There have been ongoing developments in developing a regional Southern African Development Community Qualifications Framework. Also prior to 2009, the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning had collaborated with the Mauritius Qualifications Authority in launching a pilot project on the recognition of prior learning for unemployed

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[18] J Aitchison (2017) Midterm Review of CONFINTEA VI
[19] Policies include laws, regulations and other public policy measures, as well as initiatives or strategies with primary focus on supporting either lifelong learning, adult education or adult literacy.

workers from the sugar and textile sectors who were to be recruited into the tourism and hospitality industry[20].

The national progress reports show that a division still exists between those that adopt a narrow definition, and those that embrace a broader perspective compatible with CONFINTEA goals[21]. Before the BFA in 2009, 37% of the countries had some ALE policy framework but this almost doubled (71%) globally by 2015 (GRALE, 2016). In comparison post CONFINTEA VI, 68% of the Sub-Saharan Africa countries had developed policy frameworks by 2013 (GRALE, 2013) and within the DVV focused countries this currently stands at 80% according to consultations during the study.

However, a midterm review of CONFINTEA VI implementation in Africa shows that most countries in Africa, while adopting some form of the above adult education definition in their policies, have a narrow vision of ALE, often limited to literacy. The question of the youth component of ALE needs to be revisited, particularly considering the large populations of youth who are not in education, employment or training (NEETs) in Africa.

The preceding implies that policies focused too narrowly on literacy and basic education fail to respond to the needs of learners across all dimensions of their lives. Therefore, it is necessary to explore other policy models that are more responsive and relevant to learners' needs. The answer may lie in the SDG agenda, which promotes a more holistic approach to ALE (Aitchison, 2017), moving away from traditional literacy/illiteracy perspectives towards other dimensions of learners' lives. However, it must be acknowledged that impact on these dimensions is still difficult to measure presently, hence ALE reporting on the whole remains based on literacy rates.

Few countries (34%) have acted to change or create definitions since CONFINTEA VI to incorporate vocational, continuing and socio-economic development-related learning, as has occurred in Chad, Mauritius and Tanzania. Several countries restrict their ALE definition to literacy (alphabétisation) or adult basic education (e.g. Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Togo and Uganda), though the definition may be embedded in the language of sustainable development. Sometimes even what is termed 'lifelong education' is clearly only literacy. A few countries quite explicitly restrict it to literacy and second chance schooling (e.g. Gabon, Malawi and Mali). Some apply it to apprenticeships and professional training (TVET) (e.g. Chad and the Democratic Republic of Congo). What is clearly lacking in policies focused on literacy and basic education is what happens after learners exit the programmes[22].

Studies by UIL (2014, 2018) in five countries (Kenya, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Rwanda, Namibia) showed that there were limitations in the expansion of ALE. The participating countries managed to promote and implement lifelong learning (LL) initiatives by, for example, developing national policies to promote LL, prioritizing adult and non-formal education, creating community learning opportunities, and promoting IGAs as well as ICTs. Although various policies from the selected countries embrace aspects of lifelong learning (LL), a clear understanding of what lifelong learning is and the many ways in which it can be implemented is still lacking. Acquainting policy-makers and education stakeholders with the many facets and benefits of lifelong learning can encourage a better understanding of, and therefore result in more initiatives embodying the concept of lifelong learning. 58% of countries in SSA have enacted ALE related policies - Adult Education, Non-Formal Education, Technical and Vocational Education, and Literacy (Aitchison, 2017). Almost all DVV focus countries have enacted some ALE related policies.

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[20] Aitchison, J (2017) p. 11
[21] GLARE, 2013 p. 41
[22] Aitchison, J (2017) Mid Term Review of CONFINTEA VI in Africa

As a case in point furthermore, a study in Zambia[23] showed that in terms of legal framework, the Constitution of the Republic of Zambia provides for the right to education. This is reinforced by the Education Act of 2011 which emphasizes the need to provide education for all people, including youth and adults. Zambia has been providing free basic education since the 2002 free education policy. However, primary education is not compulsory as provided for in various international legal and policy frameworks and this leads to problems of access at lower levels, which causes higher illiteracy levels as children grow to youth and adulthood. The 2012 Ministry of Education Statistical Bulletin showed that at least 411,506 school-aged children (7-13 years) were out of school. If these children are not compelled to attend school, they add to the increasing number of illiterate youths and adults later in life.

There is limited access to and awareness of policies and legislation, where they exist. Very few countries have uploaded their policies to websites. In addition, the main civil society adult education institutions and practitioners have little knowledge of or limited access to policy, legal and regulatory documents (Aitchison, 2012, p. 10). In response, the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL) should compile a full set of current ALE policy documents from Africa (Aitchison, 2017) as a resource to enhance policy and legislation awareness.

Both the Belém Framework for Action (UIL, 2010) and the Cabo Verde meeting's matrix comprising action points (UIL, 2014) worked on the assumption that comprehensive action plans would be developed in each country to cover areas of policy, literacy, governance, financing, participation and quality. Were such policy-related plans developed, and was enhanced implementation of programmes the result? The reality is that only 54% of SSA countries which responded developed a post-CONFINTEA VI action plan. This stands at 60% in DVV focus countries. The 14 countries that did so stated that their plans were comprehensive and covered all or most of the indicated areas. Within the context of this study, Table 2 show the status of DVV focus countries in relation to various policy and legislation processes put in place.

Table 2: State of policy and legislation pre- and post-CONFINTEA VI by DVV focus countries

Description	Malawi	Uganda	South Africa	Mozambique	Mali
Existence of Official definition of ALE	X	✓	✓	✓	X
Key Policy Focus	Policy in development (as of October 2018)	Organized educational process; formal and non-formal education system	Education as paralleled with formal education descriptions – in this context for "second chance learners"	Competencies in basic skills of listening, writing, speaking and calculating	
ALE's fit into broader education sector framework	Adult literacy	Business, Technical, Vocational Education and Training (*BTVET*) act 2008 and *Uganda* Vocational Qualification Framework (UVQF)	Post School Education and Training (PSET)	Through acquisition of competencies and skills	Non-Formal Education (out of the classical teaching system)
Focus of ALE Policy	Policy in development mainly focused on literacy, with some broader ALE elements	TEVET Adult literacy Adult education Youth literacy Education for marginalized groups	Adult literacy Adult education	Adult education Youth literacy	TEVET Adult literacy Adult education Youth literacy REFLECT

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[23] Zambia: A Post CONFINTEA VI review (PAF, 2013)

CONFINTEA VI action plan post BFA	✓ Adult literacy Policy Governance Financing Participation Quality	✓ Policy Governance Quality Participation Financing	X	✓ Policy Governance Quality	X
Political commitment to ALE	Has made significant progress on ALE policy: Introduction of Mass Adult Literacy Programme; Increased literacy centres from 4,000 to 8,000 for vernacular classes; and Introduction of Adult Literacy English syllabus	Significant progress on ALE policy: *National Action Plan for Adult Literacy (NAPAL) - 2011-2016 was developed National Adult Literacy Policy (NALIP) - 2014 was enacted; National Community Development Policy (NCDP) – 2015 was enacted*	Some progress: *Improved policy formulation and some initial signs of commitment to future implementation*	Some progress: increased budget allocation and policy makers' commitment in ALE & Govt open space for Non-Formal AE approaches	Significant progress on ALE policy: Vigorous Program for Literacy implemented since 2007 at governmental level throughout the country using Faire strategy
Policy framework to recognize, validate and accredit non-formal and informal learning	None	Yes, a policy framework was developed after 2009	None	Yes, a policy framework was developed after 2009	Yes, a policy framework existed before 2009
Enactment of any new ALE related policies since 2009	✓ ALE has been incorporated into MGDS II &III and National Education Sector Plan, and Strategic Plan of MoCECCD	✓ *NAPAL -2011 NALIP- 2014 NCDP -2015*	✓ *Post School Education and Training (PSET)(2013)*	✓ *National Policy of Adult Education or AE Strategy*	✓ Non-formal education (NFE) policy document was reviewed in 2012; introduction of REFLECT in NFE; and Creation of 1st Integration Education Centre at border between Mali and Burkina

From the preceding, it is evident that a number of countries have explicit legislation on ALE or a sub-set of it (usually literacy or basic education – 'non-formal education') or legislation that sets up a body or institution or commission to deal with literacy or adult basic education or broader adult education. Those countries with legislation spanning between 2009 and 2013 include Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Chad, Nigeria and South Africa (2013). Unfortunately, two countries, Guinea and Guinea-Bissau, noted a regression since 2009. In the case of the latter, this occurred despite the adoption of the education system Guidance Law in 2011. In Guinea, a ministry was created in 2010, but closed again in 2013. However, there were few new legislative developments and little progress in dealing with information management or accreditation or certification of ALE programmes (Aitchison, 2017:14). Generally, it is difficult to quantify significant changes since 2009, as some new development may simply be a renaming or restructuring of previous ministries or directorates or new iterations of existing development plans. This emanates from low commitment and political will to advance policies that foster ALE as revealed from this study.

3.2.1 Some country contexts of policy and legislation

Mozambique

Adult education in the context of Mozambique is implemented in a restricted way, focusing mainly on literacy and numeracy teaching. This approach limits the youth and adults' opportunities for the acquisition of functional skills. While literacy skills are foundational for the development of further skills and competences, adult education must include a broader range of hard and soft skills acquisition integrated across a variety of sectoral and livelihood focus areas. Literacy cannot be the ultimate goal of adult education.

In the context of Mozambique, adult education programmes (especially literacy classes) include adolescents and youth who for various reasons could not enrol or dropped out of regular classes in formal primary education.

Adult education in Mozambique is administrated by the National Directorate for Literacy and Adult education and guided by a strategic plan which is designed to be implemented in five years, which has been extended to align with the broader education sector strategy. The Mozambique Education Strategic Plan (PEE) 2012-2016 was extended until 2019. Initially approved in 2012 by the Ministry Council, the PEE was endorsed by the Local Education Group (LEG), which includes Education Sector Cooperating Partners (CPs) and representatives of Civil Society Organizations. In 2015, the MINEDH and its partners decided to extend the PEE until 2019 to allow more time to focus on implementation issues, while at the same time ensuring a stronger alignment with the Government's Five-Year Plan for 2015-2019. The overall objective of the PEE is to improve learning outcomes through strengthening quality of education by improving school management, developing pre- and in-service teacher training, expanding bilingual education, supporting teacher motivation, and allocating sufficient resources and materials for primary education. The PEE focuses on the first few years of primary, from pre-primary to third grade, as they are deemed key to developing better results at all education levels.

Uganda

Uganda is an exception that can inspire other SSA countries in the setting of a standalone policy concerning ALE. In 2002, Uganda established a National Adult Literacy Strategic Plan (NALSIP), for the period 2002/3 and 2006/7. This Plan provided a strategic direction for provision of adult literacy services in the country and increased financing for adult literacy both from the Government of Uganda and development partners. In order to consolidate it, NALSIP was followed by the National Action Plan for Adult Literacy (NAPAL) which covered the period of 2011-2016 and focused on expanding access to and improving quality of adult literacy services through enhancing capacity of implementers, strengthening coordination and management, and increasing collaboration and partnership. NALSIP had many positive impacts on ALE in the country. Following its adoption and the launch of NAPAL, the quality of learning has improved, and the knowledge and skills of adult literacy facilitators/instructors and community development workers involved in the programme have been strengthened, which has heightened the demand for higher level training for adult literacy learners and instructors. These two initiatives contributed to improving Uganda's adult literacy rate which increased from 68.14 per cent in 2002 to 73.86 per cent in 2015, ranking the country amongst the best performers in the sub-Saharan Africa region.

Uganda has ultimately developed an integrated ALE approach that brings together different sectors, among others, agriculture, health, and co-operatives in a holistic manner to deliver programmes that address literacy and numeracy as well as livelihoods and life skill needs of adults and youth. This required a system building approach to effectively and efficiently deliver the expected results.

Ethiopia

Ethiopia introduced the National Adult Education Strategy in 2008 which later gave rise to the innovative national program, Integrated Functional Adult Education (IFAE). It has been instrumental in addressing the challenge of educating over 21 million illiterates (M 33%, F 67%) as of 2016, which represents more than 20% of the total population. Structurally, Ethiopia lacks an independently organized sector to coordinate the program and this is coupled with limited commitment across sectors for the implementation of IFAE, though some of them have signed up and agreed to work with the Government on its implementation.

There are also attendant management and coordination hurdles in relation to the programme. The IFAE Board is non-functional, and therefore unable to play its rightful role in the programme. There is a lack of sectorial integration and an absence of integrated monitoring and support processes. Despite the rich base of community development infrastructure in Ethiopia, there has been little or no extensive community mobilization for the programme. Consequently, well established community organizations were not properly utilized and involved at the grassroots level.

3.2.2   Key challenges
ALE policy and legislation in most of countries faces a lack of comprehensive ALE policy frameworks, and weak integration of a lifelong learning perspective in ALE programming. ALE is mentioned in most policy documents as part of the strategies to address literacy challenges, but its provision is still poorly regulated and weakly coordinated, with little policy guidance due to the lack of a substantive policy foundation. Countries struggle to develop dedicated policies on ALE that can provide a strong foundation and fulfil their role of regulating, coordinating and establishing standards for ALE. The piecemeal approach to ALE practice and provision found in most countries negatively impacts the effectiveness and efficiency of the subsector. Consequently, most ALE programmes still tend to be based on the traditional concept of literacy (i.e. ability to read, write and calculate) rather than a lifelong learning perspective, and the evolving concept of literacy within lifelong learning.

3.2.3   Key recommendations

The following recommendations are made in relation to ALE policies and legislation:
a) Pan-African clarification and standardization of ALE terminology and concepts is required to enable comparability of data among countries, as well as to help regional collaboration and dissemination of information and research.
b) Develop more comprehensive, consolidated, inclusive ALE policies and implementation guidelines to ensure effective implementation framed within a lifelong learning paradigm in line with the requirements of the Sustainable Development Goals to coordinate different forms of ALE across sectors.
c) Enhance awareness and recognition of ALE – Public and private agencies at all levels, including government MDAs, to more overtly identify themselves as providers of ALE.
d) Evidence-based policy-making practices should be adopted to enable governments to identify any shortcomings in current ALE and lifelong learning policies or implementation processes and, consequently, elaborate new strategic approaches to address these issues. Each policy document related to ALE and lifelong learning should be accompanied by a detailed assessment of existing challenges, threats and opportunities; this would help to determine the best direction for implementation.
e) For ownership and buy-in, policies and strategies must be developed in a participatory manner involving all stakeholders.

3.3   Financing

The first challenge in analysing the financing of adult education is that accurate assessments of both investment needs and investment realities are very difficult to make. It is clear that adult education does not receive enough investment, either at national or international levels. Investment levels do not meet international targets and fall far short of meeting demand. ALE is linked to a range of social and economic policy goals, so is also funded in a myriad of direct and indirect ways across ministries and between public and private sources. Underreporting of investment is therefore inevitable[24].

According to the second GRALE Report (2013), many Member States were unable to provide accurate information on financing in their national progress reports. Given the diversity of adult education programmes and the variety of financial channels, it will take much effort before reliable and valid data on the costs of adult education become available at national and international levels. The departure point should be to look at the proportion of the overall education budget that goes to ALE. Robust empirical research and data collection tools on the financing of adult education are still needed, not only to deepen the understanding of the cost benefits from investment in the field, but also to mobilise more financial resources.

BFA called on countries to increase financial investment to education in general and to ensure quality provision of ALE[25] specifically. Specific calls relating to ALE were[26]:
- To increase the share of resources allocated to ALE (and to education generally, with a benchmark of 6 per cent of GDP);
- To integrate financial provision for ALE into various government departments as part of an integrated ALE strategy;
- To establish transnational funding for ALE;
- To create incentives for funding for ALE from non-state sectors;
- To prioritize funding of ALE for vulnerable, marginalized and disabled people.

Two key targets for public financing of education appear in the Education 2030 Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2015a)[27], namely, allocating at least 4% to 6% of gross domestic product (GDP) to education, and/or allocating at least 15% to 20% of public expenditure to education.

In general, there is limited data on funding for ALE. Notwithstanding the difficulties Member States encounter in securing accurate and valid data, the reality of under-investment in the adult education sector is undeniable[28] and this is confirmed by the CONFINTEA VI Mid Term review (2017) which asserts that ALE funding is limited or inadequate. While a quarter of sub-Saharan African countries already spend at least 6 per cent of GDP on education (Botswana, Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Sao Tome e Principe, South Africa, Swaziland), only three countries (10%) reported spending 4 per cent or more of public education expenditure on adult education with the bulk (26%) spending 0.4% and below.

Thus, on average SSA countries allocate 4.1% of GDP on education (16.9% share of total public expenditure), which is less than the BFA threshold (UNESCO, 2018 p.263), with most countries having spent less than 2% of their education budget on ALE. The good news is that 60% reported plans to increase spending, although actual implementation of such plans remains elusive with constantly changing social, economic and political landscapes of most countries. Figure 1 shows the percentage of education budgets spent on ALE by countries in SSA.
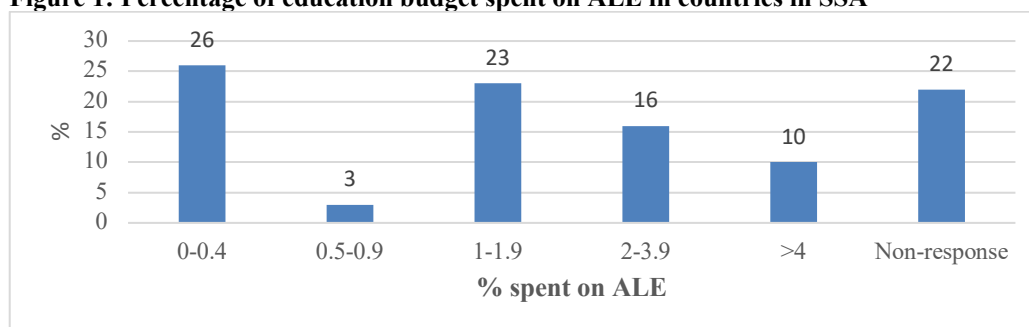
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[24] GRALE, 2013 p.157
[25] Aitchison, 2017
[26] UIL, 2010c, pp 7–8
[27] UNESCO, 2015a. EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015: Education for All 2000-2015 – Achievements and Challenges. Paris, UNESCO.
[28] GRALE, 2013 p. 158

Figure 1: Percentage of education budget spent on ALE in countries in SSA

It is difficult to give a fair assessment of gains or setbacks in public ALE financing given, first, the consequence of austerity measures following the global financial crisis of 2008, and, second, due to an overall shortage of data. It must be acknowledged that accessing financial data is arduous because of the veil of secrecy that often surrounds financial issues, coupled with generally poor record keeping. Deeper analysis shows that funding for ALE programmes has been far below international benchmarks of allocating at least 3% of the education budget to ALE. From Fig 1, generally, most countries spent less than 2 per cent of the national education budget on ALE. Failure to provide adequate funding to the subsector in line with benchmarks shows a lack of political will. Positively, most countries report plans to increase spending on ALE, and nearly half of the countries report innovations in ALE funding since 2009 (usually some form of cost-sharing with civil society partners).

Table 3 shows that Southern African countries spend between 2.2% to 9.6% of GDP on education, averaging 5.8% of GDP. These countries also include some DVV focus countries. It must also be acknowledged that the budget is entirely on recurrent spending with typically 85– 95 % of it being on teacher salaries.

Table 3: Financing of ALE in SADC and some DVV focus countries

Country	Public Expenditure on Education*	% of education budget spent on ALE**
	2000-15	
	% of GDP	
Angola	3.5	
Mozambique	6.5	1% – 1.9%
Malawi	5.6	0 – 0.4%
Zimbabwe	8.4	
South Africa	6.1	0.5% – 0.9%
Zambia	3.7	<1%
Mali	-	1% – 1.9%
Uganda	-	0.5% – 0.9%

Source: ANCEFA (2017)*, Study Findings (2018)**

Furthermore, 44% of the countries reported that since 2009 there had been an actual increase in ALE spending (as a proportion of public education spending), though 22% noted a decrease (Fig 2) in SSA. These increases may, unfortunately, be illusory, given the severe depreciation in the value of the majority of African currencies since 2009. It was worrying that 23% of respondents did not have information on educational expenditure at all. More positive was reporting that 77% countries are planning to increase ALE spending.

In some of the DVV focus countries, it was established that between 2014 and 2018, public spending on ALE as a proportion of public education spending has remained the same (as reported by 80% of countries), while 20% reported that spending decreased, as shown in Fig 2. ALE Budgets only pay for what is in policies/strategies. Considering that most ALE policies

have too narrow a focus of ALE (i.e. literacy), ALE is not being marketed to a wide range of potential stakeholders and funders. Credible education plans allow for clear accountability. They should have clear targets and lines of responsibility and allocate resources through transparent budget mechanisms that can be independently tracked and queried.

Figure 2: Changes in ALE spending since 2009 in SSA and since 2014 for DVV focus countries
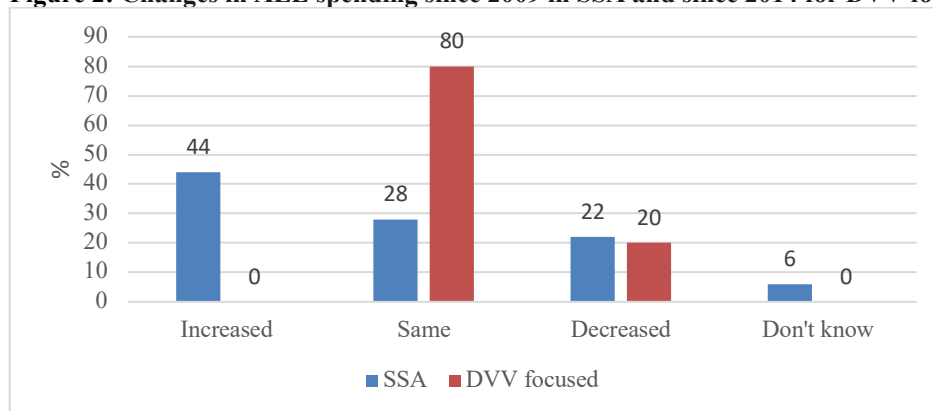
For example, an analysis of Zambia according to a post CONFINTEA VI Review[29] showed that while 50% of the education budget went to basic education, less than 1% was devoted to ALE. In general, since 2009 funding for literacy programmes has been far below the international benchmarks of allocating at least 3% of the education budget to literacy. Funding for skills programmes (TEVET) has also been below the national Implementation Framework (NIF) policy target. Able 4 below illustrates funding allocation across sub-sectors within the education based on the 2013 data.

Table 4: Funding within education sector across sub-sectors based on 2013 Zambia Education Budget

SUB-SECTOR	BUDGET IN K	BUDGET (USD)	BENCHMARK %	ACTUAL %
ECD	6,279,835,942	1,162,933	3	0.11
BASIC	3,058,834,000,000	566,450,741	50	55.5
TVET	36,844,000,000	6,822,963	0.8	0.67
ADULT LITERACY	1,003,152,622	185,769	3	0.02

Source: PAF (2013)

In Mozambique, public spending on education has rapidly increased over the past five years and, despite a slight decrease recently, the share of total government spending remains high by international standards. From 2009 to 2015 government education expenditure showed a steady annual increase of 0.1% to 0.5%of GDP, reaching over 7.1 percent in 2015. Public expenditure on education more than doubled from MZN16.6 billion in 2009 to MZN32.1 billion in 2015 (at constant 2009 prices). These increases are large when compared to other SSA countries. The priority given to education in the budget remained fairly constant at 20% until 2012 and dropped by a percentage point each year until 2015 when it rebounded to 19.9%. Although the actual execution per level of education is not available, the recent Public Expenditure Review estimates that the share of primary education was consistently above 45% over the past five years.

Thus, most countries reported plans to increase spending on ALE, and nearly half of countries reported innovations in ALE funding since 2009, usually some form of cost-sharing with civil society partners. Some of these are highlighted as follows:
o Kenya charges fees for adult secondary education (as most learners are in some kind of employment). In literacy and basic education learners may be asked to make some contributions that go towards payment of a stipend to volunteer facilitators.

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[29] Peoples Action Forum (PAF) (2013). Provision of Youth and Adult Learning & Education in Zambia after Belem. Lusaka, Zambia

o South Africa has continued throughout the post-2009 period to fund the large-scale Kha Ri Gude adult literacy campaign (which started in 2008), which pays the stipends of volunteer educators, supervisors and coordinators. Additional finance for the campaign is gained from servicing government work creation projects such as the Expanded Public Works Programme.

A five-country study (Ethiopia, Kenya, Namibia, Rwanda, Tanzania) by UIL (2014)[30] noted that "despite growing recognition of the benefits of ALE, non-formal and adult education remain of low priority, especially in terms of investment. Government budgets for non-formal and adult education are minimal". It further noted that "although there has been a sizeable increase, lack of financial resources is hampering the expansion of formal and non-formal education in both quantitative and qualitative terms". In comparison with formal education, non-formal education is of lower priority in the five countries. In addition to noting the pressing financial challenges that adult education faces, it is important to emphasize that sufficient funds for education and learning opportunities to serve citizens throughout life are required to ensure learning for all.

In Tanzania, like most of the countries studied, a policy-maker confirmed that the largest challenge to educational development in the country was the shortage of financial resources. Although the government spends 18.3% of its national budget on education, it was reported that there is still a major shortfall. Facilities, equipment and teaching and learning materials are all in short supply in the country's adult learning centres. A practitioner in Tanzania commented frankly: "For this to happen, the centre must first of all be equipped with small labs, sewing machines, carpentry tools and food processing equipment."

Pressure for better financing is needed to address resource shortfalls within provision of ALE "The insufficient number of teachers in both formal and non-formal education remains a challenge for all five countries, and the lack of adequate training for staff in non-formal education is particularly pressing. In fact, despite many years of development, all five countries still rely on volunteers to serve as teachers and facilitators for non-formal and adult education, earning very little and poorly trained. In prioritizing the development of non-formal and adult education, as recommended above, it is imperative to upgrade the status and remuneration of educators in adult and non-formal education, and to provide them with continuing professional development. An expert in Tanzania commented that "at the same time when training teachers for school education, we should also think of how to train facilitators for adult literacy programmes" (UIL, 2014).

The preceding picture of ALE financing challenges affords the opportunity to advocate for a multi-sector approach and understanding of ALE. There is ample evidence and reports of recommending measures to be taken. Animators of ALE need to answer some mind-boggling questions: *Are we doing the right things? If not, are we guilty of performing the same actions over and over and somehow expecting that the result will eventually be different?* So, there is a need to look at alternative financing modalities. *What might these be? What contributions do NGOs and the private sector make? For the available resources, are we using these scarce resources effectively?*

In conclusion, the analysis revealed that financial investment in ALE still remains critically low, with often limited or no increases witnessed in financial resources. As financing usually emerges from national policies, this low level of investment may be caused by a lack of political

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[30] Shirley Walters, Jin Yang and Peter Roslander (2014) entitled, Key Issues and Policy Considerations in Promoting Lifelong Learning in Selected African Countries: Ethiopia, Kenya, Namibia, Rwanda and Tanzania. UNESCO UIL

will and interest among SSA states in developing ALE where there are competing priorities in circumstances of scarce resources.

International declarations stress the importance of increasing financing to achieve the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, including in education. There is consensus that current levels of funding are inadequate to meet the ambitious SDG 4 goals; views differ on various actors' responsibilities and relative contributions. Commitment to the idea that financing education should not simply help achieve targets but do so equitably is often missing from these discussions[31].

3.3.1 Key challenges
- Basic information about financing systems and practices is still lacking.
- Clear evidence of the concrete and wider benefits of ALE remains elusive - to appeal to the would-be investors.

3.3.2 Key recommendations
- Robust empirical research and data collection tools on ALE financing are needed to deepen understanding of cost benefits from ALE investment[32] and to build a robust knowledge base upon which to shape effective and efficient financing models for adult learning and education.
- Diversity is an inherent characteristic of the adult education sector. Hence, mobilising resources requires multi-faceted and innovative strategies. Therefore, there is a need for governments and their agencies and stakeholders at national, regional and local levels to explore new and innovative ways to mobilise financial resources that can make a difference by assuring quality ALE provision. New partnerships and stakeholders/funders must be identified and engaged.
- Urgently advocate for and increase the percentage of national budgets allocated to the adult education and training sector and consider a skills development levy on the private sector.
- Inculcate a culture and spirit of "how to do more ALE delivery with a small budget" at all levels.

3.4 Curriculum and Programme Development

Relevance, equity, effectiveness and efficiency were the four dimensions of quality in adult education identified in the first *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education[33]*. Ensuring quality in adult education, including adult literacy, means paying attention to these dimensions. The BFA underlines the importance of quality in ALE by stating "Quality in learning and education is a holistic, multidimensional concept and practice that demands constant attention and continuous development"[34]. Thus, ALE quality is about factors that make learning and education worthwhile and purposeful[35]. Research drives ALE quality improvement, which is manifested in curriculum reviews, improved learner materials (particularly in local languages), and improved assessment of ALE learners[36].

GRALE (2013) acknowledges that the quality of adult learning and education is not only a responsibility of the education and training sector. A wide range of stakeholders, including local, regional and national authorities, actors in social and economic development (such as employers and employees, academics, researchers, and the communications media), and non-governmental organisations and agencies share this charge.

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[31] UNESCO GEMR, 2018 p.262
[32] GRALE, 2013
[33] UIL, 2010
[34] UIL 2010a, p. 8
[35] GRALE, 2013 p. 133
[36] Aitchison, J (2017) Mid Term Review of CONFINTEA VI in Africa

A continuing lack of data in relation to quality and innovation hampers efforts for improving the quality of ALE delivery. Only about a third of the countries collect information on completion rates compared to 80% of the DVV focus countries. 60% of DVV focus countries collect data on certification of programmes.

Basic definitions of youths and adults, as targets of ALE, are unclear and inconsistent, varying widely from country to country, and even policy to policy within countries[37]. Curricula and programmes developed without clear and coherent definitions can be problematic and may not meet the needs of learners. This fact motivated the study to briefly dwell on the theoretical context of adult learning and its significance in informing ALE curriculum and programme development (see Section 1.1.1).

3.4.1   Curricula reviews

Quality Improvement
The theoretical context of ALE underlines the need for curricula to be responsive to learners' needs. In this regard, the study examined the status of ALE curriculum development in various countries. It was established that pre-service qualifications are increasingly required in nearly all countries, at least for some programmes, and that there is growth in in-service and continuing education for practitioners, although the capacity for this is limited[38]. Many countries are in the process of developing qualifications frameworks, particularly in areas where specific tasks and skills can be identified[39]. The number of countries engaging in curriculum reviews, development of new materials and the introduction of new instructional approaches has grown since 2009 directed at quality improvement in ALE delivery[40].

With support from international programmes such as Capacity Development for Education Development (CapED), the reshaped successor to Capacity Development for Education for All (CapEFA), that is aligned with Sustainable Development Goal 4 – 'Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all' – and Agenda 2030, sustainable improvements in monitoring and evaluation capacity are being made. This is essential for verifying that quality improvements are real. However, the continuing lack of data on quality improvements and innovation hampers an accurate assessment of progress in the region.

As the learning content of adult literacy and education is clearly of fundamental importance, unified curricula (or unified competencies) could help coordinate ALE providers' efforts and generate awareness of international and national concerns, as well as the benefits of lifelong learning for learners. Although curriculum, curriculum content and curriculum approaches have not been prominent subjects of debate in SSA, some countries have taken steps to address this issue.

In Tanzania, for example, curriculum revision has led to the development of a more effective Integrated Community-Based Adult Education (ICBAE) approach. The assumption is too often made that literacy is a relatively simple matter that can be addressed by teachers who have little more education than those they are teaching. However, one frequent evaluator of literacy programmes on the African continent has pointed to the complexity of successful literacy programmes. Careful attention must be given to what is to be delivered on the so-called supply side. However, they also engender interest in what they offer by attending to the so-called demand side. This is achieved by careful analysis and consideration of the literate environment

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[37] SARN/OSISA (2012)
[38] Aitchison, J (2017) p. 26
[39] GRALE, 2013 p. 135
[40] Aitchison, J (2017) p. 26

to maximise how different materials are used in various contexts. We must be aware of the various opportunities for development within a community. Such opportunities might arise through the enhancement of managerial capacity and responsibility, or changes in cultural, religious, or political attitudes. How textual materials are being used in schools, workplaces, and households must also be considered. The everyday language of the learners should be used as far as possible. Unless such elemental groundwork is consistently undertaken, ALE programmes are likely to be shunned by many of the intended beneficiaries. Successful ALE programmes need to be led (and implemented) by knowledgeable decision-makers and skilled educators.

National standards, quality assurance mechanisms, and national assessments of learning achievements and curricula are all important tools for measuring and monitoring progress in the field of ALE. This is of vital importance, especially for a field that is under constant pressure to demonstrate its value and make its impacts visible. Some key issues that require soul searching include:
► Are curricula relevant? What factors affect this?
► Who dictates content?
► What alternative approaches exist? Are they recognized /viable /accredited?
► Why have traditional literacy approaches persisted for so long?

Even though this remains a challenge for most SSA countries, some in the region have taken inspiring measures to cope with this issue. For instance, Kenya has set up a central body, Kenya's Department of Adult Education, which conducts literacy proficiency tests every year to determine the level of attainment of learners.

Some further examples of quality of innovation that have taken place since 2009 in the area of curriculum review and quality improvements[41] include:
o Ethiopia at federal level has formulated a number of guidelines and directives under the National Adult Education Strategy (2008), including the Integrated Functional Adult Education Programme (IFAE, 2011), which emphasises improved supervision of instructors.
o Kenya has developed an Integrated Education Management System. Books used in ALE programmes have been revised to make them more relevant to leaners, and computers have been introduced at education facilities since 2016.
o The Zambian Government enacted a Teaching Profession Act in 2013, which has facilitated the establishment of the Teaching Council of Zambia, in an effort to promote quality teaching and learning. The Act aims at enhancing professionalism in teaching services and regulating teacher training institutions. Zambia developed guidelines for open and distance education providers.
o Assessment of literacy and adult basic education learners was improved in Kenya (via annual literacy proficiency tests by Department of Adult Education), in South Africa (via a literacy campaign that assesses learners on a national scale). Zambia and Zimbabwe have also introduced measures to improve learner assessment.
o Some countries, such as Chad, have improved their learner materials (particularly in local languages).

Development of skills and competences
A review carried out by UIL (2014)[42] highlighted attempts by countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Namibia) to develop key core skills, competences and capabilities of

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[41] Aitchison, J (2017) Mid Term Review of CONFINTEA VI in Africa
[42] UIL study by Shirley Walters, Jin Yang and Peter Roslander (2014) entitled, Key Issues and Policy Considerations in Promoting Lifelong Learning in Selected African Countries: Ethiopia, Kenya, Namibia, Rwanda and Tanzania

individuals and groups in order to fully realize their potential and aspirations. For example, the Curriculum Framework for Ethiopian Education (2010, pp. 9–10) stipulates as key competences the following: life skills (e.g. the ability to listen actively, recognize different points of view and share ideas), basic skills (literacy and numeracy), higher-order skills (critical and creative thinking), active participation in the learning process and community life, independent thinking, adapting to change, and time-management competences.

The Kenyan Implementation Strategy for Education for Sustainable Development (2008, p. 6) emphasizes the role of education in giving people critical knowledge and skills to be creative and find new solutions to social, economic and environmental issues.

The Namibian Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme (2007, p. 19) envisages more relevant learning outcomes in primary and secondary education as a result of two parallel processes: (1) the definition of core competences; and (2) the revision of curricula. This involves mainstreaming ICT, strengthening English, mathematics, natural sciences and entrepreneurship training, HIV/AIDS orientation, and environmental learning.

Rwanda's (2010) Education Sector Strategic Plan (2010–2015) puts emphasis on child-friendly schools and repeatedly argues that the shift towards more learner-centred pedagogical approaches will support the development of individuals' communication, problem-solving, teamwork, creative and critical thinking skills. In Tanzania, the team learned that the government has redesigned the curriculum so that it emphasizes competence rather than content, with a focus on life skills and entrepreneurial skills. However, adapting the quality and relevance of curricula to learners' needs, particularly in rural communities, and the lack of adequate staff training, remain major challenges for policy and practice for both formal and non-formal education.

Further review showed that adult education curriculum remains one of the top priorities for all five study countries, in line with Recommendation 3 and SDG 4.6. The focus of programmes in this domain has shifted from equipping learners with only basic literacy skills to providing functional literacy and skills-based training that can enhance livelihoods and well-being. In all cases, the curricula for adult literacy and post-literacy programmes include vital topics such as health care, family planning, sustainable development, and community engagement, corresponding to Recommendation 2 and contributing to education for sustainable development as set out in SDG 4.7. The growing economic development of African countries has created an even greater need for a skilled workforce, and therefore educational initiatives have been expanded to provide a larger breadth of vocational training. There are opportunities for adults in the five countries to undertake skills-based programmes and technical and vocational education (SDG 4.3) and to obtain certificates or diplomas that are recognized by employers (UIL, 2014).

The CONFINTEA VI Mid Term review has shown that apart from the influence of research, there were a number of interventions directed at quality improvement in the region. 59% of countries reported witnessing quality improvements over this period.

Some illustrative decisive steps to improve ALE quality, efficiency and results include the following:
- In Lesotho, all literacy providers can have their participants assessed by the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre;
- In Uganda, annual proficiency examinations are prepared with the involvement of district-level supervisors of adult literacy programmes, and instructors participate in developing questions in all key learning areas.

- South Africa has state adult basic education examinations, as well as state-recognised ones provided by two NGO assessment agencies.

There are also significant signs of the growth of in-service and continuing education and training for practitioners, though it was noted that 61% had inadequate capacity, and 32% had sufficient capacity. One can conclude that professionalization of adult educators is increasing, though the process is still very under-resourced.

Programme participation

Understanding the dynamics of participation in ALE in sub-Saharan African is hindered by the inadequacy of information and statistics. A quarter of the countries were unable to provide any data on participation levels. Hence, there is generally a lack of availability of data on youth and adult literacy and education programmes and the data that does exist is often of poor quality. However, generally females dominate in most youth and adult literacy and education programmes.

According to the CONFINTEA VI 2017 Mid-Term Review, women predominate in adult education as a whole, in non-formal education and massively so in literacy. Men predominate in general education and massively so in technical and vocational education and training (TVET). Both general education and TVET cost more to provide than literacy and non-formal education, and provision of TVET is in many countries far short of the potential demand. It is common that men are given preferential access to TVET.

In general, there is increased participation among those with low levels of literacy and among unemployed youth. However, growth in participation for hard to reach and marginalised groups such as migrants, refugees, people with disabilities, the elderly, prisoners and the long-term unemployed is low; this is aggravated by limited availability of disaggregated data for these groups. Examples of efforts from African countries on participation include:

o Zambia expanded parallel programmes for in-service and distance education for pre-service and in-service training in colleges and universities. In terms of participation, a post-CONFINTEA VI review (PAF, 2013) showed that females constituted more than 50% in the literacy classes. For instance, according to NIF (2012) in 2007, females amounted to 32,324 (70%) while males amounted to 9,750 males (NIF 2012:66). According to data from MoF (2012), in 2011 at national level, out of 2,353 classes and a total membership of 23,000 learners, there were 9,369 males (41%) compared with 13,631 females (59%). But there was no data to measure other aspects of participation or inclusion in adult literacy classes based on poverty, rurality, language, ethnicity, and imprisonment. The study recommended that that future reports take these into account.

o Kenya examples for expansion: men-only classes have been established in remote areas as men do not like mixing with women due to cultural bias. Mobile classes and libraries have been established in areas where people are nomadic. Evening classes have been opened in larger urban centres for learners who are working during the day. Some learners have been involved in developing their own reading materials, and individualized paid-for tuition has been given to some older, wealthy people who would not like to be identified as illiterate – they are now taught separately in their homes and at times they choose.

o Mauritius has developed new formal qualifications for literacy educators and a second-chance programme which aims to inculcate basic numeracy and literacy skills in youth aged 16 to 21 years who have dropped out of school and who are neither in full-time employment nor full-time training to orient them to vocational training programmes. The objectives of the programme are to develop reading, writing and communication skills, life skills and a positive attitude, to psychologically prepare young people for the world of work and to provide recognition of prior learning.

Programme coordination

A study by UNESCO[43] shows that in terms of coordination among stakeholders, collaboration at all levels, and networking/clustering within and across economic and knowledge sectors is important in avoiding overlaps and in supporting concerted efforts for delivery, leading to more relevant learning opportunities in communities. However, ministries and government agencies are often poorly coordinated within the overall government structure. Thus, it is difficult to incorporate other important stakeholders, such as civil society organizations and private enterprises, into one national structure. Therefore, the status of stakeholder representation is usually very weak in most countries. For example, in Malawi, policy development has been largely a government led process, with only a few partners (UN, DVV) at the table.

ALE often seems to be largely prescriptive. The BFA was not merely offering a suggestion for countries to follow. It was reporting back on the findings from around the world. Have countries responded? If not, we show ourselves as unable or unwilling to learn – while promoting lifelong learning for others. This highlights the need for government and non-governmental actors need to work together. This does not mean that CSOs and NGOs should blindly follow government policies that they were perhaps never consulted on.

The CONFINTEA VI Mid Term review showed a positive finding on increased stakeholder participation (or at least government plans to consult with stakeholders and civil society) in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of ALE policies. More had happened since 2009, with 61% of the countries reporting having had such consultations and 35% reporting plans to consult. Countries listed a range of mechanisms for such consultation with stakeholders, including (in order of popularity): policy briefings and validations, civil society networks, public consultation on draft policies, forums and working groups, government departments and directorates, inter-ministerial structures, public-private partnerships, policy conferences, technical, advisory and steering committees with stakeholder representatives, focus groups and research interviews, seminars, evaluation with the participation of stakeholders, and literacy weeks.

Effective coordination between ministries and government agencies, on the one hand, and with civil society organizations and private enterprises, on the other, is particularly important for effective implementation of policies in non-formal adult education, including literacy, as NGOs often shoulder a major responsibility for non-formal education. Coordination at local levels of government is often undermined by an absence of capacity, which is aggravated by weak stakeholder engagement. Improvement of the latter would help address the capacity gaps that exist. In Rwanda, an interviewee reflected that "there is a strong need for more synergy, coordination and capacity-building of all learning activities, both across the different line-ministries, but more importantly between different providers (formal and non-formal), particularly at local levels". It is worth noting that decentralized governance has increasingly been favoured in the five countries, although evidence indicates that the capacity of local authorities in the five countries remains weak in terms of planning, programme design and implementation.

3.4.2 Key recommendations

The following recommendations are made in respect of curriculum and programme development:

a) In terms of literacy and language – there is a need to overhaul the conceptualisation, curriculum and materials of national literacy; to observe international and regional conventions; and to promote the use of mother-tongue as the medium of instruction.

b) Customise curricula to respond effectively to learners' needs and revise practices and develop a unified national curriculum for ALE interventions

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[43] UIL, 2014

c) More relevant curriculum and facilitation fostered especially with respect to non-formal / community education skills development.

3.5   Training

ALE policy, poor structures, weak institutional capacity and lack of funding badly affect the quality, results, efficiency, and reputation of ALE. Linked to these factors is the lack of qualified teachers and literacy instructors. A key prerequisite for an education system to achieve its potential is the quality of educators (Hattie, 2009)[44]. Establishing, maintaining and improving professional personnel in adult education, and creating the working environment to foster professionalism are critical issues[45].

Since ALE operates in multiple dimensions (GRALE, 2013), appropriate training-delivery systems are needed to better meet needs of ALE target groups. Capacity for quality ALE provision is closely linked to the country's ability to train qualified staff that can carry out all of the necessary activities related to conceptualizing training programmes and implementing them. Adult education personnel come from a variety of backgrounds, often working on short-term contracts in addition to another job. Professionalisation of adult literacy instructors and recognition of their status would obviously have a significant impact on quality of teaching. The prevailing trend is that professionalisation of adult educators' is increasing but it is under-resourced. It is constrained by a lack of finance for adequate training, poor quality of trainees in ALE, low retention of those trained in service. Furthermore, professionalisation is not systematic and the majority of personnel are not certified.

Some countries still do not have policies for the recognition of prior learning. There are more attempts to create pathways from adult education and non-formal education programmes into the formal education and training systems via various forms of certification and accreditation, though there is, as yet, little accessible evidence of how successful such attempts have been[46]. For example, in Lesotho adult education is considered a specific profession, with the National University of Lesotho offering qualifications from Diploma to Masters (via distance education through the Institute of Extra Mural Studies), with plans to introduce a PhD programme. Graduates from these courses are recruited across many government services and NGOs and most receive increased remuneration at work in recognition of this qualification. Continuing education is provided via the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (LDTC). Some of these courses are free for volunteer adult education facilitators.

There are different factors that contribute to low quality and lack of relevance of literacy and adult education programmes in SSA. Some of these factors are related to the quantity and quality of literacy teachers. For instance, in Mozambique, in 2013 approximately 80% of literacy teachers were volunteers with low educational backgrounds and with no specific training. The existing number of professional literacy teachers could not respond to the demand (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013).

This is coupled with weak motivation of literacy teachers, often attributed to irregularities in payment of their subsidies, which are only a symbolic payments. Consequently, many literacy teachers quit and seek out other activities that can ensure better income.

In all countries in SSA, most work in ALE appears to be carried out by volunteers. It is an achievement to have persuaded young people to give their time in this way, and this, indeed, may have been the only solution available, given the paucity of resources that characterize

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[44] Hattie, J. (2009) *Visible Learning,* Oxford, Routledge.
[45] GRALE, (2013) p. 143
[46] Aitchison, J (2017) p. 39

these economies. There may, however, be consequences in terms of the amount of time that volunteers can actually give on a daily or weekly basis, as well as in terms of the quality of service delivered. Also, the high turnover of volunteer workers can also prevent the build-up of expertise and constitutes a threat to effective literacy programme implementation.

The design of literacy and adult education programmes are often excessively formal. This formalism hampers flexibility in terms of responding to the learning needs of target groups, as well as the implementation of learner-centred programmes, which is essential in adult education. Programmes often do not include systematic monitoring or programme evaluation to allow for critical reflection and to feed into programme improvement and teacher training.

Many literacy teachers often do not have the required competences to appropriately deal with the teaching process, which impacts negatively on the learning process and the objectives of adult education. Manuel, Popov and Buque (2015) conclude that adult education programmes tend to be teacher-centred. On the one hand, this results in a lack of empowering learning experiences; on the other hand, it hampers creativity and critical thinking on the part of learners. This, in turn, impacts on enrolment and dropout rates as adult learners are motivated to learn when they realize that they can apply the new knowledge to solve real problems in their lives.

This is compounded by the fact that qualified instructors are not motivated to serve in ALE due to inadequate remuneration, poor status and reputation, and low career development prospects. While the relevant mother ministries in charge of ALE and trade unions are moving towards professional bodies for formal school teachers, there is no equivalent move for those engaged in ALE. Where rudimentary elements of associations of adult educators exist, they are seemingly dormant.

Discussions with stakeholders also suggest that those engaged in ALE in most the countries do not seem to be regularly and constructively in touch with international bodies focusing on ALE, such as the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, the International Council for Adult Education, and the Commonwealth of Learning. For example, UNESCO structures such as its Institute for Statistics, HQ, Harare Regional Office for Southern Africa, and others, are not being engaged to the possible benefit of ALE in the region to the measure that they could be. Initiating partnerships with such organizations would help states to learn from international experiences on ALE, benefit from their expertise and strengthen national capacity for ALE, which in turn would contribute to enhancing the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of ALE systems.

Quality of teaching is also negatively impacted by a lack of teaching and learning materials. Teachers do not have appropriate material. Due to their social and economic conditions, learners often cannot provide learning material for themselves and local literacy centres cannot support them either. This aspect coupled with perceived the lack of relevance of many literacy programmes, as alluded to earlier, is another factor that contributes to high dropout rates of learners in ALE. Consultations revealed that some learners drop out of literacy programmes, especially literacy through radio, due to the disparity between their expectations and the programme content, which is very basic and limited.

Adult education should empower youth and adult learners, and this cannot happen without a diversity of powerful learning experiences in appropriate contexts. Adult education providers and decision makers need to design sound policy frameworks and ALE programmes that can contribute to strengthened partnerships with different actors that enhance learning contexts. These actors could be a) universities, by involving students in their practical activities as mediators of adult learning, as well as their lecturers in the process of training, monitoring and evaluation of the training programmes and research on literacy programmes; b) Non-Governmental Organisations, in a collaborative process and exchange of experiences. This may

help adult education to increase the participation of youth and adults in social, economic and political life and towards the achievement of their aspirations.

3.5.1 Key Recommendations

a) Standardise and professionalise the training of adult educators. This should entail serious attention to post-literacy and basic continuing education provision, including of technical and vocational education and training, as well as the recognition of non-formal education programmes.
b) Establish and support appropriate national level qualifications frameworks (NQF) to ensure access to and recognition of prior learning of adults and to simplify the registration process for existing NQFs, especially for smaller organisations.
c) Develop and implement a national level capacity building plan for ALE practitioners, harmonise conditions of service with those of conventional educators and trainers, encourage Open and Distance learning and ensure universities and research institutions provide ALE practitioners with support.

3.6 Monitoring and Evaluation and Data Collection

The importance of statistical data cannot be underestimated. Reliable statistics are critical for planning, and monitoring and evaluation, which depend on baseline data. In 2007/08 the Kenyan government undertook a survey to measure the national literacy rate and found that UNESCO and other agencies had over-estimated the literacy rate by about 15%. This spurred the government to put more effort and resources into literacy[47]. This example underlines the pressing need to insist on more in-depth, robust research and data collection.

Monitoring and evaluating of ALE is vital, but because adult education and learning often happen in undocumented non-formal or informal spaces, it can be difficult to assess and monitor with accuracy. There is a need to raise the visibility of adult learning in all its forms and to strive for improved monitoring and more accurate data collection to inform decision-making[48].

Despite notable progress in monitoring and evaluation since 2009, basic data on ALE continues to be inadequate, and thus the true effects of ALE are poorly understood. It is acknowledged that data problems exist in all regions of the world, even where well-developed information systems are in place. This calls for a sober discussion on how best to design systems that: a) recognize the problems impeding data-gathering; and b) match countries' current and future financial and human resource capacities[49].

Beyond self-reported data by States, robust evidence on ALE remains hard to come by. The challenge is that responsibility for providing ALE data and managing knowledge is shared by a range of public institutions and private actors. Moreover, ALE that takes place in non-formal and informal settings, which is most common, is hard to quantify and measure[50].

While it is clear that the ALE authorities in African countries believe that ALE leads to economic benefits, this remains merely a belief, lacking good evidence that can be communicated to important stakeholders. Hence, more evidence is needed to prompt higher levels of investment in ALE[51]. ALE needs to be part of the data revolution as espoused in the *Education 2030 Framework for Action* calling for better monitoring and reporting in education,

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[47] YALE Policy in Africa DVV Regional Workshop Report/Gweru, Zimbabwe. Sept 2012 p.13
[48] GRALE, 2016 p. 5
[49] Ibid.
[50] GRALE, 2016 p. 15
[51] Aitchison, J (2017) p. 37

and for a 'research and evaluation culture' to help improve policies. This will be a particular challenge in the field of ALE, where the knowledge base remains weak[52].

The ALE sector very often lacks staff trained in M&E. Non-formal ALE lacks an effective monitoring and evaluation system to provide sufficient data to track the implementation progress of non-formal education programmes. Capacity building programmes in monitoring, evaluation and assessment processes should be introduced to ensure professionalism and accuracy in data collection and analysis. Furthermore, governments must develop countrywide information systems designed to provide transparency and accountability regarding the programme implementation, as well as to disseminate the results of initiatives among all relevant stakeholders. Another important component of the evaluation model for adult education projects is feedback from employers who recruit graduates, as well as from alumni whose suggestions should be taken into consideration for updating curricula and teaching methodology (UIL, 2014).

3.6.1 Key challenges
a) ALE knowledge-management systems are generally weak in the region, despite the setting up of various technical support initiatives to improve data-collection and analysis.
b) Lack of a monitoring and evaluation system and strategy for adult education programmes. There are no specific standards for adult education other than those for education in general.
c) Use of multiple methods to produce literacy data, including population censuses and household surveys. When various methods are used at different times, this creates challenges with regard to the comparability of data. On the other hand, a number of countries reported that they rely on only one method (e.g. household survey, educational attainment or testing) as the sole source of literacy data.

3.6.2 Key recommendations
a) Develop knowledge-management systems for the collection, analysis and dissemination of both qualitative and quantitative ALE data and good-practice reports to inform policy development and practice of ALE. This should seek to standardise the data required from youth and adult education providers, digitise access to reports, research and evaluations and strengthen capacity to conduct research to inform policy and practice;
b) Quality assurance, monitoring and evaluation – develop a framework for youth and adult education validation which is equivalent to the system for formal education;
c) Continued raising of visibility of adult learning in all forms;
d) Development and operationalisation of national level ALE MIS.

4.0 Key Challenges, Conclusions and Recommendations

4.1 Key challenges
While many countries have reported some improvements in recent years, ALE sectors with well-functioning systems are still a long way off. Much system-strengthening is still required, and must be undertaken with the following challenges in mind:
a) There is a lack of comprehensive ALE policy frameworks in most countries, and the concept of a lifelong learning framework is not yet well-understood. There is generally a piecemeal approach to ALE practice and provision and most ALE programmes still tend to be based on the traditional concept of literacy, rather than the evolving notion of literacy conceived within a lifelong learning perspective.
b) There is a lack of conceptual clarity about the division of the adult education field between general adult education, on the one hand, and vocational adult education and training on the other. Different stakeholders emphasise different principles, purposes and practices, rather than establishing connections and seeking cross-cutting alliances.

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[52] GRALE, 2016 p. 16

c) Few countries have allocated the necessary financial resources for education and this is even more pronounced in the case of ALE. Low prioritisation, public spending constraints and other factors exacerbate this situation.

d) The adult education sector remains under-professionalised. Employment conditions are often poor, which ultimately affects the quality of adult education practitioners' performance and has an impact on the quality of education offered.

4.2 Conclusions

ALE makes a difference by helping people to continuously update their knowledge and skills throughout their lives and enabling them to maintain their ability to contribute as healthy and productive members of society. However, African countries continue to be challenged by the educational and livelihood needs of their rapidly growing populations. After decades of sustained efforts to eradicate illiteracy, the rates still remain high, with gender and urban/rural disparities. The remarkable growth in free universal primary education will hopefully alleviate this problem over time. However, drop-out rates from primary schools remain high, resulting in a corresponding surge of a group of illiterate, unskilled or semi-skilled adults with limited opportunities to improve their livelihoods.

The existing recommendations in the four ALE-related declarations – the *Belém Framework for Action*, the *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: Transforming the World*, the *Incheon Declaration. Education 2030: Towards inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all*, and, finally, the new *Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education* – need to be continually voiced and heeded in policy development, planning, implementation and monitoring for the next stage of ALE in Africa[53].

The weak current state of ALE in SSA is mainly due to the minimal investment made by states/governments in the past decades. ALE investment levels do not meet international targets and fall far short of meeting existing demand. This highlights the need for those working in the ALE field to encourage the investment of new resources in ALE by making every possible effort to design and carry out programmes that demonstrably show results and impact on the lives of learners, communities and countries. Increased understanding of the positive impact of existing programmes - their achievements, success factors, challenges, and lessons learned – is needed to inform future ALE policy development. A diversified and multi-sectoral approach to ALE is needed in order to mobilise resources across a variety of sectors.

At policy level, ALE is integral to lifelong and life-wide learning as a framework for fostering and sustaining the development of active democratic citizenship. Apart from literacy skills development, increased efforts must be made to link adult education to economic development, social inclusion and poverty reduction. These are the main aspirations expressed in overarching policy frameworks. However, governments in Africa are generally failing to deliver sound policy frameworks that foster an enabling environment for the development of quality and relevant adult education systems in a lifelong learning perspective. Gaps between policy and research still remain wide, and greater efforts will be required to improve coordination among ALE stakeholders in a sector that is too often fragmented.

A review of Southern Africa Countries (Angola, Zambia, South Africa, and Malawi) showed that there is something of a *data desert* when it comes ALE due to weak data collection capacity. Linked to the need for better data on participation is the need for research on impacts arising from ALE that is evidence-based and well-communicated. This will require support from academic institutions nationally and from the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning and other international organizations.

Clear identification of learning outcomes is key in ALE delivery in order to increase

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[53] Aitchison, 2017 p.43

transparency, flexibility and accountability of ALE systems and institutions to ably facilitate learning and support individual learners. Maintaining and training professional personnel in ALE, as well as creating a working environment that fosters professionalism is essential if this is to become a reality.

The need to invest in ALE, and specifically adult literacy as a basis for continuing education and learning, remains. However, many national governments' education and social policies have not prioritized adult education and adult literacy. While the links between education and poverty reduction have long been understood, the political argument has yet to be won and political will yet to be secured. Sadly, this situation is also reflected in international agreements where previously the Millennium Development Goals and the Dakar Framework for Action have been very weak in their advocacy for adult education, it is yet to be seen how a shift will be secured for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Incheon Declaration, Education 2030, and, the new Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education.

Efforts to address these and many other challenges in recent years seems to have had a limited impact on the overall number of youth and adults in need of quality ALE provision. Research has an immense contribution to make to quality management in ALE, taking into account the causal chain between inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes. Strategies usually focus on the training of adult education practitioners or improving curriculum and manuals. Although important and needed, these efforts often address only the symptoms of deeper underlying causes of poor functioning adult education systems. Attention is rarely given to the fact that adult education provision is part of an integrated system that encompasses related national policies and strategies, planning and budget frameworks, design of implementation structures and processes, and monitoring and evaluation systems, among others.

Without adequate financing and concerted efforts to increase the access and quality of adult education provision, the demand for education for all will remain a purely programmatic demand and the numbers missing out on education will not diminish. While recognising that governments bear the principal responsibility for the provision of adult education, the contributions of civil society, the private sector and other stakeholders must also be properly acknowledged, valued and utilised. Partnerships must be forged and strengthened between governments, civil society and the private sector in developing and sustaining adult learning and education.

4.3   Key Recommendations
Based on the analysis of the study findings, the following recommendations are drawn:
a) For ownership and buy-in, policies and strategies must be developed in a participatory manner involving all relevant stakeholders;
b) Comprehensive lifelong learning policies should be developed to coordinate different forms of ALE across sectors;
c) *Increase Funding*: Governments and donors must make long-term commitments to finance ALE;
d) *Enhance the Monitoring Role of Regional and sub Regional Bodies*: AU and Sub-regional bodies (SADC, ECOWAS & EAC) should encourage and reinforce ALE policy formulation, monitoring and implementation;
e) *Database for Literacy*: Countries should develop national databases on ALE aid flows, service delivery and financing available to stakeholders in the sector;
f) *Enhanced Partnerships*: Governments, communities, CSOs, the private sector and development partners should work in a more coordinated and cooperative manner to develop and implement sustainable ALE programmes.

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ANNEXES

Annex 1: List of People Consulted

MALAWI
1. Benedicto Kondowe, Civil Society Education Coalition, Lilongwe, September 2018
2. Matthews Mkandawire, Link for Education Governance (LEG), Lilongwe, September 2018.
3. Getrude Maliko, District Education Manager, Zomba
4. Lyson Walusa, Naphini Community Learning Centre, September 2018
5. David Harrington, DVV International, Southern Africa, Malawi
6. Aubet Mkwawira, Community Development Department, Lilongwe
7. Gertrude Kabwazi, Age Africa, Blantyre
8. Elles Kwanjana, NASFAM, Lilongwe
9. David Mulera, UNESCO, Lilongwe
10. Gray Nyali, National Library Service, Lilongwe

ZAMBIA
11. Matildah Mwamba, Africa Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA), Lusaka, Zambia, 15, August 2018.
12. Gina Mumba Chiwela, Peoples Action Forum (PAF), Zambia, Lusaka, 15 August 2018.
13. Schalke, Kasanda, Lusaka Open Business College, Zambia, Lusaka, 16 August 2018.
14. Nelson Banda, Zambia Open Community Schools, Lusaka, Zambia, 17 August 2018.

EXTERNAL
15. Sonja Belete, DVV International East Africa, Ethiopia
16. Farrell Hunter, DVV International, South Africa
17. Christina Wagner, DVV International West Africa
18. Mouhamadou Diagne, DVV International, Mali
19. Caesar Kyebakola, DVV International, Uganda
20. Augusto Macicame, DVV International, Mozambique
21. Abate Eshetu, DVV International, Ethiopia

Annex 2: Key Informant Interview Tool

ADULT EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN AFRICAN CONTEXT STUDY
Name of Organization: _____
Name(s) & positions of staff met: _____

_____

_____

_____

Date of interview:
1. Niche in ALE: |__|

        1=Service provider 2=Just an interested party but not service provider
2. If service provider in 1 above, what type of service provider |__||__||__| (*Multiple possible*)

        1=Working (service delivery) 2=Managing (Policy guide, coordination, & oversight role)
        3=Financing 4=Just interested party
        5=Others specify_____
3. Definitions of Adult Learning and Education (ALE)
    3.1 Does your country have an official definition of ALE?
        |__| 1=Yes=1 No=2

    3.2 If yes to 3.1, enter the official definition of ALE here:

        |_____|

    3.3 Are literacy and basic skills a top priority for ALE programmes in your country?
        |__| 1=Yes=1 No=2

    3.4 If yes to 3.3, describe here the key points of your country's policy approach to literacy and basic skills.
        |_____|

    3.5 Would your country's ALE stakeholders agree or disagree with the following? statements? (We are not asking for your personal views)
    Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

Statement	Disagree	Tend to disagree	Tend to agree	Agree
Youth education and ALE are seen as part of an integrated whole				
ALE policy addresses learning processes and teacher-learner relations				
ALE is such a diverse sector of provision that it is difficult to define precisely				
Adult literacy and adult education are the same thing				
ALE and continuing vocational education and training are not integrated.				
New technologies have fundamentally changed the scope of our ALE practice				
Demographic trends (e.g. ageing societies and migration patterns, population growth, are making ALE policy much more important than it				

used to be.				
ALE policy identifies non-formal and informal learning as important				

3.6 Has your country formulated a CONFINTEA VI action plan following the Belem Framework of Action?

|__| 1=Yes=1 No=2

3.7 If yes to 3.6, what areas does it cover?

|__|Adult literacy |__|Policy |__|Governance
|__|Financing |__|Participation |__|Quality
|__|Other_____

_____

4. Policy: political commitment to ALE

4.1 Overall, would you say that since 2009 your country …(Please choose **only one** of the following)

|__| **has regressed on ALE policy?**
|__| **is at the same level as in 2009?**
|__| **has made some progress**
|__| **has made significant progress on ALE policy?**

4.2 Provide the most significant indicator of this progress or regression here depending on response in 4.1 above other than 'same level'.

4.3 Which target groups of (potential) learners are especially important in ALE policies in your country? Check up to five groups. Please select at most 5 answers

Please choose **all** that apply:
|__|**Individuals seeking personal growth and widening of knowledge horizons**
|__|**Individuals seeking to update work-relevant knowledge and skills**
|__|**Women and men in mid-life transitions (e.g. change in employment status; personal, health and family challenges)**
|__|**Individuals seeking recognition for prior learning (especially non-formally and informally acquired)**
|__|**Socially excluded groups (e.g. homeless people, [ex-]prisoners; adults with mental health problems, etc.)**
|__|**Adults with low-level literacy or basic skills**
|__|**Workers in low-skill, low-wage or precarious positions**
|__|**Long-term unemployed people**
|__|**Adults living with disabilities**
|__|**Residents of rural or sparsely populated areas**
|__|**Parents and families**
|__|**Lone or single parents**
|__|**Senior citizens/retired people (third-age education)**
|__|**Young persons not in education, employment or training (NEETs)**
|__|**Migrants and refugees from other countries**
|__|**Minority ethnic, linguistic or religious minorities and indigenous peoples**
|__|**Other**

4.4 Does your country have a policy framework to recognize, validate and accredit non-formal and informal learning? Please choose **only one** of the following:

|__|Yes, a policy framework existed before 2009
|__|Yes, a policy framework was developed after 2009
|__|No

4.5 Since 2009, has your country enacted any important new policies with respect to ALE? Please choose **only one** of the following:

|__| 1=Yes=1 No=2

4.6 If yes to 4.5 above, please provide the name of the policy, the year of adoption and if possible a link to the document.

4.7 To what extent are the following dimensions important for ALE policy in your country?

Please choose the appropriate response for each item:

Dimension	not at all	to a small extent	to a large extent	do not know
Non-economic outcomes and benefits for individuals (such as personal development, quality of life, well-being and social and cultural participation)				
Non-economic outcomes and benefits for collective and civil society (such as positive and trustful social relations, active and sustainable communities, and social integration, strengthened democracy)				
Economic returns for individuals, communities and society (such as employability, innovation capacity, financial autonomy, living standards, skills levels improvement and structural labour market evolution)				

5. Financing: Public investment in ALE

5.1 What percentage of public education spending currently goes to ALE?
Please choose **only one** of the following:

|__| 0 – 0.4%
|__| 0.5% – 0.9%
|__| 1% – 1.9%
|__| 2% – 3.9%
|__| 4% or more
|__| Do not know

5.2 Between 2014 and 2017, public spending on ALE as a proportion of public education spending in my country has: (Please choose **only one** of the following)

|__| increased
|__| stayed about the same
|__| decreased
|__| Do not know

5.3 Does the government plan to increase or decrease spending on ALE?
Please choose **only one** of the following:

|__| Plans to increase
|__| Plans to stay about the same
|__| Plans to decrease
|__| Do not know

6. Quality of ALE (Training and curriculum development)

6.1 Does your country systematically collect information about the following ALE outcomes? Please choose **all** that apply:

|__| Completion rates
|__| Certificates or qualifications issued
|__| Employment outcomes (or labour market outcomes)
|__| Social outcomes in the areas of health and well-being, community cohesion
|__| None of these – this information is not systematically available
|__| Other:_____

6.2 Are there initial, pre-service education and training programmes for ALE teachers/ facilitators in your country? Please choose **only one** of the following:

|__| **1=Yes=1   No=2**

6.2.1   If yes, how long are these training programmes?

|__| 1=1-2 weeks, 2=2-3 weeks, 3=1 month, 4=2-3 months, 5=>3months

6.3 Are initial, pre-service qualifications a requirement to teach in ALE programmes? Please choose **only one** of the following:
|__| Yes, in all cases
|__| Yes, in some cases
|__| No

6.4 Are there continuing, in-service education and training programmes for adult education teachers/facilitators in your country? Please choose **only one** of the following:
|__| Yes, with sufficient capacity
|__| Yes, but inadequate capacity
|__| No

6.5 Has your government introduced any significant innovation regarding the quality of ALE since 2009 that could be of interest to other countries?
Please choose **only one** of the following:
|__| 1=Yes=1   No=2

6.6 If yes to 6.5 above, give details and provide sources and URL links if possible here.

| |

6.7 How far do different stakeholders (public education agencies, public health agencies, NGOs, private providers, etc.) collaborate in the design and delivery of ALE programmes in your country? Please choose **only one** of the following:
|__| Hardly at all
|__| Not much, but to an increasing extent
|__| In theory, but not much in practice
|__| Effectively and successfully

6.8 Does your country have an interdepartmental or cross-sectoral coordinating body for ALE?
|__| 1=Yes=1   No=2

6.9 If yes to 6.9 above, Please write your answer(s) here:
Name of coordinating body:

| |

Briefly describe its mandate

| |

And its activities:

| |

6.10   To what extent do ALE programmes in general contribute to strengthening the following cultural and social resources in your country?

Resource	Not at all	To a small extent	To a large extent	Do not know
Multilingualism and cultural diversity				
Increased access to education, literature, the arts and cultural heritage				
Environmental sustainability in local communities				
Active citizenship and political and community participation				
Community solidarity and social justice				
Democratic values and peaceful co-existence				

None of these – adult learning and education programmes mostly have other purposes				
Other				

6.11   Only answer this question if the following conditions are met: Answer was 'not at all' *or* **'to a small extent'** *or* **'do not know' at question '6.10 above. Please write your answer here:**

6.11.1 How far does the statement below reflect the policy approach in your country?
Youth and adult literacy and basic skills programmes are not directed towards social and cultural development – they teach people to read, write and deal with numbers.
Please choose **only one** of the following:
|__| not at all
|__| somewhat
|__| a lot

7.   What are the main challenges of ALE in your country in relation to the:
   a. Policy and legislation?
   b. Financing?
   c. Curriculum and programme development
   d. Training
   e. Monitoring & Evaluation and data collection

8.   What recommendations would you propose to address the challenges mentioned?
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME