International Labour Organization

Comparative Analysis of National Skills Development Policies:

A guide for policy makers

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Preface

The primary goal of the International Labour Organization (ILO) is to advance social justice through the promotion of full and productive employment and decent work for all.

In order to support member States and the social partners to reach the goal, the ILO pursues a decent Work Agenda which comprises four interrelated areas: Respect for fundamental and workers' rights and international labour standards, employment promotion, social protection and social dialogue. The "Decent Work Agenda in Africa 2007-15", reiterates the importance of skills development in generating employment, increasing productivity and competitiveness, and improving wages and incomes. However, it notes that Africa is suffering from shortages of skilled workers that are holding back growth and development. Therefore, it recommends that at least three-quarters of all African member States critically review and implement, with the involvement of the social partners, national policies and strategies for education and training.

The ILO is supporting member States to review their policies by providing policy advisory services and technical assistance, carrying out research and capacity building at national, sub-regional and regional levels. As part of its technical research and publications programme, the ILO promotes knowledge-generation around key policy issues and topics conforming to the core elements of the Decent Work Agenda.

The objective of this working paper is to strengthen the capacity of national stakeholders on international labour standards as well as on policies and experiences of other countries in the area of skills development. The paper is also intended to encourage the exchange of ideas and to stimulate debate and enable policy makers in developing effective, relevant and equitable skills development policies suitable for their country's context.

Charles Dan
Regional Director for Africa
ILO Addis Ababa

Foreword

The importance of skills development for social and economic growth, particularly for promotion of youth employment and decent work, has led to an increased interest in the formulation of skills development policies. At the 2008 International Labour Conference, the ILO's tripartite constituency of governments, employers and workers adopted a set of Conclusions focussing on how investment in education and skills can help economies achieve dynamic growth with quality jobs. The Decent Work Agenda for Africa 2007-15 sets a target for three fourth of African countries to reform their skills policies by 2015. Similarly, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) has recommended its Member States, in the strategic framework for 2012-16, to develop Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Policy. However, policy makers in various countries in SADC are grappling with the challenge of identifying effective policies and strategies for skills development and want to learn from the policies and experiences of other countries.

It is against this background that a study was undertaken by the ILO to do a comparative analysis of National Skills Development Policies of 12 countries from Asia and the Pacific and Africa. This paper would be a part of the ILO strategy to stimulate debate and enable policy makers in developing effective, relevant and equitable policies suitable for their country's context.

We would like to thank Ashwani Aggarwal, ILO Skills and Employment Specialist for Eastern and Southern Africa, for initiating, conceptualising, designing and leading the study and producing this paper. We would also thank Vladimir Gasskov, retired ILO skills specialist, for his contributions to the research and drafting.

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Last but not the least, the role of the ILO Regional Office for Africa is acknowledged for creating a conducive environment for undertaking research and knowledge sharing.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

AIDS	-	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
BTEB	-	Bangladesh Technical Education Board
CET	-	Continuing Education and Training
CSO	-	Civil society organisations
DWT	-	Decent Work Technical Support Team
HIV	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HRP	-	Human Resources Planning
ICT	-	Information and communication technologies
ILC	-	International Labour Conference
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
ILS	-	International labour standards
IPB	-	International policy benchmarks
LLL	-	Lifelong learning
LMI	-	Labour market information
LMIS	-	Labour market information system
M&E	-	Monitoring and evaluation
MNE	-	Multinational enterprises
NGO	-	Non-government organisation
NQF	-	National Qualifications Framework
NSDP	-	National Skills Development Policy
NTVQF	-	National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework
NVQF	-	National Vocational Qualifications Framework
OECD	-	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PWD	-	Persons with disabilities
RPL	-	Recognition of prior learning
SADC	-	Southern African Development Community
SD	-	Skills development
S.N.	-	Serial Number
SETA	-	Sector Education and Training Authority
SDP	-	Skills development policy
TAFE	-	Technical and Further Education
TEVET	-	Technical Entrepreneurship Vocational Education and Training
TVET	-	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
TVETSD	-	Technical and Vocational Education Training and Skills Development
UNESCO	-	United Nations Education Scientific Cultural and Organisation
VET	-	Vocational Education and Training
VT	-	Vocational Training
WPL	-	Workplace Learning
ZIMDEF	-	Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund

Comparative Analysis of National Skills Development Policies: a guide for policy makers

1 Introduction

Skills development is a key factor in improving the employability of individuals, increasing productivity and competitiveness of enterprises, reducing unemployment, poverty and exclusion, strengthening innovation and attracting investment. It also facilitates the transition from the informal to the formal economy (ILO, 2008). Its relevance and importance has been amplified with the increasing pace of globalisation and technological and climate changes.

The importance of skills development for social and economic growth and for promotion of decent work has led to increased interest in the formulation of skills development[1] policies. At the 2008 International Labour Conference, ILO's tripartite constituency of governments, employers and workers adopted a set of Conclusions focussing on how investment in education and skills can help economies achieve dynamic growth with quality jobs (ILO, 2008). The Decent Work Agenda for Africa 2007-15 sets a target for three fourth of African countries to reform their skills policies by 2015. Similarly, the Southern African Development Community (SADC), a regional economic community comprising of 15 countries, has recommended its Member States, in the strategic framework for 2012-16, to develop a Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Policy. However, policy makers in various countries in SADC are grappling with the challenge of identifying effective policies and strategies for skills development and seeking support of the ILO to learn from the policies and experiences of other countries, including those from other regions. The SADC has also sought the support of the ILO in skills policy development and harmonisation for the countries in the region.

Though there cannot be an 'ideal' skills development policy (SDP), comparative analysis and policy learning have the potential to expose national stakeholders to the policies and experiences of other countries, as well as to strengthen their knowledge of international labour standards (ILS) on skills development. This will enable them to develop effective, relevant and equitable policies suitable for their country's context. It is against this background that a study was undertaken by the ILO to do a comparative analysis of National Skills Development Policies (NSDPs) of 12 countries from Asia and the Pacific and Africa against the ILS. This report presents findings from the study and would be a part of the ILO strategy to capacitate policy makers and ILO constituents to develop or review skills development policies.

[1] The term skills development policy (SDP) in this report includes technical and vocational education and training (TVET) or vocational education and training (VET) or vocational training (VT) or TEVET or tertiary education policy, as per Table 1.

1.1 The importance of skills development policy

The trend to have an explicit National Skills Development Policy (NSDP) is discernible world over, especially in Southern and Eastern African countries. For example, five out of nine countries in Southern Africa have a skills development or a TVET policy and another two countries are in the process of drafting a policy.

Countries formulate skills development policies to engage all stakeholders in: setting a common vision of the skills system that a country aims to build; facilitating an alignment with national development framework and coherence with other policies; proposing coordinated and planned actions and reforms for improving outcome and impact of training; clarifying institutional arrangements for the skills system; anchoring existing good practices; and pledging political and collective will and commitment while clarifying roles and responsibilities of stakeholders (ILO, 2011).

Normally, a SDP is broader in scope than a TVET policy – the target group for the former includes youth who have completed formal schooling, school drop-outs, illiterate persons, workers in formal and informal economies, and the marginalized sections of society.

1.2 Methodology

A comparative analysis of national policies of 12 countries was done using the desk study method. The study used international labour standards (Conventions and Recommendations), ILC Conclusions and the ILO/ G20 training strategy, to analyse and categorise the policy principles concerning skills development stated in these documents under 15 policy thematic areas. These areas were finalised with the support of policy-makers from South Africa, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania, Malawi, India, Swaziland and Mauritius. The study also used joint publication of the ILO and UNESCO titled *Technical and Vocational Education and Training for the Twenty-first Century*, which contains revised Recommendations concerning Technical and Vocational Education of UNESCO and the Conclusions concerning Human Resources Training and Development of the ILO. Finally, these 15 policy areas drawn from ILO standards and the international policy principles were used as the standards or benchmarks for analysing the NSDPs of 12 countries from Africa, Asia and the Pacific. The draft report was reviewed by the policy-makers from the countries stated above, as well as experts from the ILO and was validated by stakeholders in Tanzania and Botswana during the workshops for formulating TVET and internship policies respectively.

1.3 Countries covered

NSDP documents of 12 countries from Africa, Asia and the Pacific (refer to Table 1) were covered. Out of the 12 countries, eight are from Africa (including all the seven countries from Southern and Eastern Africa, which had a skills policy) and four from Asia and the Pacific region. These countries represent a mix of developed, developing and the least developed countries. These policy documents are one to 15 years old – South Africa and Bangladesh developed their SDP in 2011 whereas those of Botswana (1997) and Zambia (1996) are the oldest. Four countries (Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, India and Sri Lanka) developed their respective policies during the last three years, while the remaining countries developed their policies during 2004-07.

This report also cites references from the National Skills Strategy of England and that of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Table 1: List of NSDPs of 12 countries

S.N.	Policy Document	Country	Year
1.	National Skills Development Strategy III	South Africa	2011
2.	Skills Development Policy	Bangladesh	2011
3.	National Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Skills Development (TVETSD) Policy and Strategy	Swaziland	2010
4.	National Skills Development Policy (final draft)	Zimbabwe	2010
5.	National Skills Development Policy	India	2009
6.	National Policy Framework on Higher Education and Technical and Vocational Education	Sri Lanka	2009
7.	National Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Strategy	Ethiopia	2008
8.	Tertiary Education Strategy 2007 – 2012	New Zealand	
9.	Draft TVET Policy	Ghana	2004
10.	Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education and Training (TEVET) Policy	Malawi	1998
11.	National Policy on Vocational Education and Training	Botswana	1997
12.	Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TEVET)	Zambia	1996

1.4 Policies and strategies

A 'policy' means major objectives or principles which are intended to guide the implementation and resource allocation decisions. Policies can be supported by national laws, regulations, and relevant institutions. Policies can be set

Box 1: Public policy

Public policy can be generally defined as a system of laws, regulatory measures, course of action, and funding priorities concerning a given topic promulgated by a governmental entity or its representatives. A major aspect of public policy is law, which includes specific legislation and more broadly-defined provisions of constitutional or international law. (Source: http://www.musc.edu/vawprevention/policy/definition.shtml)

for any area of practice – trade, foreign investment, demographic processes, employment and labour markets, as well as for education and training. For instance, Conventions and Recommendations of the ILO related to the Human Resources Development include the internationally-agreed policies such as the equitable access to training and employment, lifelong learning, demand-driven provision of skills training, etc.

A 'strategy' in the managerial sense means the adopted course of action necessary for meeting the long-term goals. It is a specific way to combine resources of all kinds – investments, institutions, time, staff, laws and regulations, etc. – in order to achieve certain objectives. A strategy may be further detailed, resulting in an implementation plan involving numerous objectives, time periods, resources and outcomes.

Apparently, a policy determine "what to do?", while a strategy is about "how to do?" Strategies are assumed to be guided by the policy principles and should aim to achieve those. The policies tend to be more generic than strategies and may not change frequently, whereas the strategies are more dependent on the availability of resources, institutional capabilities etc. and may need to change in shorter periods of time. There could also be several ways (strategies) to achieve the same policy principle. The strategies should indicate the time horizons by when related policy principles should be achieved.

Box 2: Policy and strategy

The National Skills Development Policy of India sets the relation between policy and strategy and states, "Planned development of skills must be underpinned by a 'policy', which is both comprehensive as well as national in character. A national policy response is, therefore, needed to guide the skill development strategies and coordinated action by all stake holders to avoid a piecemeal approach. It is also important that the policies of skill development be linked to policies in the economic, employment and social development arenas."

Source: India, 2009

1.5 Formats of the NSDP and strategy documents

In principle, there can be "pure" NSDP documents as well as "pure" skills development strategy documents. However, it is observed that most SDP documents contain both policies and strategies. The more a policy document describes the practical details on how the policy objectives will be achieved and indicates the resources required, the more the document becomes a strategy document. It is possible to have only a policy. However, if a policy is not followed up by clear implementation strategy or plan and a budget, which is commonly the case, then it is unlikely to be implemented effectively. It is also possible to develop a skills development strategy without agreeing on policy objectives and target groups but in this case, skills development systems run the risk of departing from the fundamental policy principles such as for instance 'SDP will be linked

to social and economic policies' or 'equal access to skills training and employment opportunities'.

One of the options could be to have a SDP and a skills development strategy as separate but closely interlinked documents. A SDP document should be concise but may explain why such policy choices have been made. A skills development strategy document will then focus on ways of implementing the policies and may set numeric targets for each policy objective and have an action plan.

1.6 Limitations of the study

There could be many ways to group policy principles into different policy thematic areas. In this study, policy principles have been grouped at a single level but grouping them at multiple levels is also possible. Single-level grouping is found more useful in carrying out comparative analysis of different countries' national policies, which have varying formats and policy areas. Some overlap among policy areas is inevitable, as some policy principles can be part of more than one policy area. However, an attempt was made to design the policy areas in such a manner that the overlap is minimised.

Comparative analysis of national policies is a challenging area not only due to lack of uniform standards, definition and scope of SDP, but also because of the use of different policy formats and the contextual differences among the countries. Some countries develop a policy, while few develop a strategy paper. There is also a huge diversity concerning the definition and scope of the policy – out of 12 countries covered in the study, four have skills development policies, three have TVET policies, two have TEVET policies, one has a tertiary education policy, and one country has used a combined term TVETSD. So, it makes the comparative analysis very difficult.

Most of the countries have not carried out a review or evaluation of the implementation of their policies. So, it is suggested that an in-depth study on the implementation experiences of these national policies be carried out to supplement this study.

1.7 Organisation of the report

This report comprises four chapters, as mentioned below:

Chapter 1: Provides the background, objectives, methodology and limitations of the study
Chapter 2: Mentions the policy principles for skills development
Chapter 3: Analyses national skills development policies
Chapter 4: Discusses the policy formulation process, implementation mechanism and the causes of policy failures

2 International policy principles for skills development

International labour standards (ILS) provide guidance or policy principles for countries to draft and implement law and policy such as skills development policy (SDP), in conformity with internationally accepted standards. Since ILS are developed by governments, employers and workers, they lay down the basic minimum standards agreed upon by all players in the global economy and thus can be used as principles or benchmarks for policy making (ILO, 2009b). Information about ILS and their development process is given in Box 3.

Box 3: International labour standards

Since 1919, the International Labour Organization has maintained and developed a system of international labour standards (ILS) aimed at promoting opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and dignity. They exist in a number of subject areas, including vocational guidance and training. ILS are expressed in the form of Conventions and Recommendations. Conventions are legally-binding international treaties that may be ratified by member States, whereas Recommendations serve as non-binding guidelines.

ILS are drawn up by ILO's constituents (representatives of governments, employers and workers from Member States) and are adopted at the ILO's annual International Labour Conference (ILC). They, thus, represent the international consensus on how a particular labour problem could be tackled at the global level and reflect knowledge and experience from all corners of the world. Governments, employers' and workers' organisations, international institutions, multinational companies and non-governmental organisations can benefit from this knowledge, by incorporating the standards in their policies, operational objectives and day-to-day action. The standards' legal character allows them to be used in the legal system and administration at the national level, and as part of the corpus of international law, which can bring about greater integration of the international community.

However, ILS reflect the fact that countries have diverse cultural and historical backgrounds, legal systems, and levels of economic development. Indeed, most standards have been formulated in a manner that makes them flexible enough to be translated into national law and practice with due consideration of these differences.

Other international institutions regularly use international labour standards in their activities.

Source: adapted from ILO, 2009b

Besides Conventions and Recommendations, the Conclusions of International Labour Conferences also provide policy guidance for the countries. Therefore, the study used international labour standards (Conventions and Recommendations), ILC Conclusions and the ILO/ G20 training strategy of the ILO, to analyse and categorise the policy principles for skills development, stated in these documents, under 15 policy thematic areas. The study also used joint publication of the ILO and UNESCO *Technical and Vocational Education and Training for the Twenty-first Century*, which contains revised Recommendations concerning Technical and Vocational Education of UNESCO and the Conclusions

concerning human resources training and development of the ILO. Policy principles, mentioned in Table 2, are citations from a single policy document or a combination of citations from several policy documents or they are summaries of the policy principles from such documents. The ILO documents analysed to consolidate policy principles include the Convention 142 on Human Resources Development (ILO, 1975); the Conclusions concerning human resources training and development (ILO, 2000); the Recommendation No. 195 concerning Human Resources Development: Education, Training and Lifelong Learning (ILO, 2005); the Global Employment Agenda, adopted by the Governing Body in March 2003; the Conclusions on promoting pathways to decent work for youth adopted by ILC in 2005; the Conclusions on the promotion of sustainable enterprises; the Conclusions on Skills for improved productivity, employment growth and development (ILO, 2008); the Global Jobs Pact (ILO, 2009a); and A Skilled Workforce for Strong, Sustainable and Balanced Growth: A G20 Training Strategy (ILO, 2010). In addition, the Paid Educational Leave Convention, 1974 (No. 140); the Tripartite Declaration of Principles concerning Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy (1977, as amended in 2000 and 2006) (MNE Declaration); and the policy brief on Formulating a National Policy on Skills Development (ILO, 2011) are also relevant policy documents.

Of the above, the important ILO documents concerning skills development are the Convention 142 (ILO, 1975); the Recommendation 195 (ILO, 2005); the Conclusions on skills for improved productivity, employment growth and development (ILO, 2008); and A Skilled Workforce for Strong, Sustainable and Balanced Growth: A G20 Training Strategy (ILO, 2010). Key messages from them are given below.

The Human Resources Development Convention, 1975 (No. 142), states that the ratifying States are required to formulate and implement policies and programmes of vocational guidance and vocational training in co-operation with employers and workers organisations, closely linked with employment, in particular through public employment services. For this purpose, the States are further required to develop open, flexible and complementary systems of general, technical and vocational education, educational and vocational guidance and vocational training, and to extend them gradually to young persons and adults, including appropriate programmes for the disabled (ILO, 1975; ILO, 2009b).

The **Recommendation No. 195** calls on Member States to develop and implement, through the process of social dialogue, education, training and lifelong learning policies that promote people's employability throughout their lives. The SDPs should be an integral part of comprehensive economic, social and labour market policies and programmes for economic and employment growth. It recognizes that education and training are a right of all people and advocates for promotion of equal education and training opportunities for all. The enterprises should play an increasingly role in enhancing the investment in training and in providing workplace-based learning (ILO, 2005).

In 2008, government, worker and employer representatives at the International Labour Conference (ILC) adopted a set of **Conclusions on skills for improved productivity, employment growth and development**. They stressed that education, training and lifelong learning foster a virtuous circle of higher productivity, more employment of better quality, income growth and development. The Conclusions state that countries that have succeeded in linking skills to productivity, employment, development and decent work, have targeted their SDP towards three main objectives (ILO, 2008):

(a) matching supply to current demand for skills;

(b) helping workers and enterprises adjust to change; and

(c) building and sustaining competencies for future labour market needs.

The ILC recommended a holistic approach for skills development, which encompasses the following features (ILO, 2008):

(a) *continuous and seamless pathways of learning* that start with pre-school and primary education that adequately prepares young people for secondary and higher education and vocational training; that provide career guidance, labour market information and counselling, as young women and men move into the labour market; and that offer workers and entrepreneurs opportunities for continuous learning to upgrade their competencies and learn new skills throughout their lives;

(b) development of *core skills* (including literacy, numeracy, communication skills, teamwork and problem-solving and other relevant skills) and learning ability, as well as awareness of workers' rights and an understanding of entrepreneurship as the building blocks for lifelong learning and capability to adapt to change;

(c) development of *higher-level skills* – professional, technical and human resource skills - to capitalize on or to create opportunities for high-quality or high-wage jobs;

(d) *portability of skills*, based first on the core skills to enable workers to apply knowledge and experience to new occupations or industries, and second, on systems that codify, standardize, assess and certify skills, so that levels of competence can be easily recognized by social partners in different labour sectors across national, regional or international labour markets; and

(e) *employability* (for wage work or self-employment) that results from all these factors – a foundation of core skills, access to education, availability of training opportunities, motivation, ability and support to take advantage of opportunities for continuous learning, and recognition of acquired skills – and that is critical for enabling workers to attain decent work and manage change and for enabling enterprises to adopt new technologies and enter new markets.

A brief background about the **G20 training strategy,** which further articulates the Conclusions of ILC 2008 on skills for improved productivity, employment growth and development, is given in Box 4.

Box 4: A skilled workforce for strong, sustainable and balanced growth: a G20 training strategy

In 2009, the G20 leaders asked the ILO, in partnership with employers and workers, to develop a training strategy to prepare the workforce for the economic recovery. The resulting G20 training strategy is composed of three elements: the reasons why a skills strategy is needed; a conceptual framework for such a strategy; and recommendations for its effective implementation. It recommends nine building blocks for effective policy implementation: anticipating skills needs; participation of social partners; sectoral approaches; labour market information and employment services; training quality and relevance; gender equality; broad access to training; finance; and assessing policy performance.
Source: ILO, 2010

2.1 Policy areas as per ILO standards

Fifteen policy areas for skills development analysed from the ILO standards are mentioned below:

1. Governance, coordination, and planning of SD system
2. Access, equity, and gender equality
3. Financing
4. LMI and anticipation of skills demand
5. Employment services
6. Qualifications, certification of skills and quality assurance
7. Pre-vocational courses in general education
8. Pre-employment training
9. Lifelong learning (LLL)
10. Institutional training providers
11. Workplace learning (WPL)
12. Skills for informal and rural economy
13. Human resources in SD system
14. Monitoring, evaluation, research and innovation
15. International cooperation and knowledge sharing

Policy principles for each policy areas are given in Table 2.

Policy objectives:

Key policy objectives for SDPs may include:

- The SDPs should contribute to achieving full and productive employment and decent work for women and men in working age group, while at the same time contributing to innovation, productivity, competitiveness and sustainability of enterprises; environmentally sound sustainable development and poverty alleviation (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008).

- The SDPs should aim at matching skill supply to current skills demands; helping workers and enterprises adjust to changes; and building and sustaining competencies for future labour market needs (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010).

- The SDPs should promote continuous and seamless pathway of lifelong learning; development of core skills and higher-level skills; portability of skills, and employability of individuals (ILO, 1975; ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008).

- The SDPs should facilitate social inclusion and equal and active participation of all through personal development, access to culture, education, training and employment, and active citizenship (ILO, 1975; ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010).

- The SDPs should be well coordinated with other policies – industrial, investment, trade, technology, employment, labour market, social protection, education, and regional or local development policies (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010).

- The SDPs should build solid bridges between the world of work and the world of learning by promoting collaboration among governments, employers, workers and training providers at the national, sector and local levels (ILO, 2010).

- The SDPs should ensure viable, equitable financing mechanism and sharing of training costs (ILO, 2010).

- The SDPs should aspire to promote international cooperation and knowledge sharing between and among governments, social partners, the private sector and international organisations on all aspects of skills development (ILO, 2005).

Box 5: EU strategic objectives of education and training policies

The European Union has come up with the following long-term strategic objectives of education and training policies (2020), and it is observed that these are aligned to the international labour standards on skills development:

I. *Making lifelong learning and mobility a reality;*
II. *Improving the quality and efficiency of education and training;*
III. *Promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship; and*
IV. *Enhancing creativity and innovation, including entrepreneurship, at all levels of education and training.*

Source: http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc28_en.htm accessed 200911

Table 2 : Policy areas and principles in international standards

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
1.	**Governance, coordination, and planning of SD system**	▪ The design and delivery of SDP should be based on shared commitment, tripartism and social dialogue between government and employers' and workers' organisations (social partners) at the national, local, sectoral and enterprise levels; partnership in skills development may also involve the professional associations, training providers, local community and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). To achieve this, effective coordination mechanisms should be established at various levels – at the national level to promote inter-ministerial coordination and policy coherence, at the sector level for sharing information about skills demands and training quality to improve planning and the delivery of training; at the local level for aligning training to the needs of the local labour market; and at the regional level for promoting recognition of skills and labour mobility (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008). ▪ The SDP should strive to maintain a balance between decentralized and centralized authority in order to be responsive to local labour market needs, as well as to meet the quality standards so that qualifications receive national recognition (ILO, 2008). ▪ Use sectoral approaches to build close collaboration between the social partners at the national and local levels for design and delivery of SDP and programmes (ILO, 2010).
2.	**Access, equity, and gender equality**	▪ Education and training should be a right of all people (ILO, 2005). ▪ The SDPs and programmes should aim at providing equal opportunities to all individuals regardless of race, religion and age, especially people with special needs such as youth, low-skilled people, people with disabilities, older workers, those withdrawn from child labour, the unemployed, immigrants, indigenous people, ethnic minority groups and the socially excluded, and workers in small and medium-sized enterprises, the informal economy, in the rural sector and in self-employment (ILO, 1958; ILO, 1975; ILO, 2005). ▪ Promoting gender equality in training and employment is very important. Use of lifecycle approach can be an effective method, which includes improving access for women to basic education; overcoming logistic,

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		economic and cultural barriers to vocational training and apprenticeship, especially in nontraditional occupations; taking into account women's home and care responsibilities when scheduling workplace-based learning and entrepreneurship training; and meeting the training needs of women re-entering the labour market and of older women who have not had equal access to opportunities for lifelong learning (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010). ▪ Targeted programmes such as the 'second chance' education to obtain basic literacy and numeracy skills are effective in meeting the specific needs of disadvantaged people. For persons with disabilities, reasonable accommodation in regular training programme, as well as targeted training should be provided (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010).
3.	**Financing**	▪ Funding for skills development should be shared between government, industry, community and the learner; co-financing of skills development can be promoted by establishing incentives for employers and individuals to invest in training; financing schemes are best established through a social dialogue (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010). ▪ Government has the primary responsibility for funding of universal education, pre-employment training and training of the unemployed or workers at risk of unemployment during economic crises (ILO, 2010). ▪ While government is a key investor, enterprise involvement is also needed, both to provide a stable and sustained means of financing training, particularly for continuing education and training, and to ensure its relevance (ILO, 2010). ▪ Workers invest their time and money to keep their skills up to date and to maintain employability (ILO, 2010).
4.	**LMI and anticipation of skills demand**	▪ Government should develop a national capacity for skills identification and forecasting; social partners should contribute to identifying skills demand by using sectoral bodies, training and research institutions, local networks of enterprises and workers' organisations, and social dialogue (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008). ▪ Methods for skills forecasting include: forecasting occupational and skills profile at various levels of disaggregation; social dialogue; labour market information systems and employment services; and analysis of performance of training institutes, including tracer studies. Quantitative analysis needs to be complemented

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		with qualitative information from employers and workers. Skills forecasting should also take into account macroeconomic, technological and demographic trends (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010).
5.	**Employment services**	▪ Public employment services (PES) plays an important role in making labour market information available, including current and future skills needs available in the form of vocational guidance, career counselling, and in providing job-matching services, information and access to labour market programmes (for example, skills training or retraining, self-employment and starting a business). Managing unemployment insurance programmes could also be an important function of PES (ILO, 2010). ▪ Private employment agencies should play a complimentary role to the PES (ILO, 2010). ▪ Vocational guidance and career counselling, as well as access to job placement services and job search techniques, should be equally available to all individuals throughout life in their choice of education, training and career. It should be supplemented by information on the rights and obligations of all concerned on labour-related laws and other forms of labour regulation (ILO, 1975; ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008).
6.	**Qualifications, certification of skills, quality assurance**	▪ Training programmes should consider social, cultural and educational background of the target group, take into account individual's own educational and career aspirations, as well as strive to meet labour market demand (ILO, 1975). ▪ A skill-based qualification system can accommodate multiple pathways through education, and between education and work. Modular qualifications, comprising shorter training courses, are useful to minimize the time-lag between the emergence of skills needs and the provision of appropriate training (ILO, 2010). ▪ Standards should be developed and periodically reviewed, in cooperation with employers and workers organisations, for all aspects of skills development: occupational qualifications, curricula, assessment and certification system, staff qualifications, ratios of teaching and training staff to learners, teaching materials, safety precautions, physical facilities (buildings, libraries, workshop layouts, quality and type of equipment), and environmental protection and conservation (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ There should be a framework for the certification of training providers and for quality assurance of training

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		programmes delivered by both public and private training providers; all the programmes, including those offered by private bodies, should be subject to approval by the public authorities (ILO, 2005; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ A framework is required for assessment, recognition and certification of skills, including prior learning and previous experience. The framework should ensure that skills are portable and recognized across sectors, industries, enterprises and educational institutions (ILO, 2005; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Skills assessment needs to be objective and non-discriminatory, and linked to standards (ILO, 2005). ▪ Effectiveness of training is enhanced by using learner-centred and flexible approach, by integrating theory and practice and presenting in a manner that motivates the learners. Full use should be made of contemporary educational technology, particularly the internet, information and communication technology, interactive multimedia materials, audio-visual aids and mass media, to enhance the reach, cost-effectiveness, and quality of programmes, especially in the promotion of self-learning (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Continuous evaluation of the teaching and learning process, including formative assessment, should be undertaken, with the participation of teachers, supervisors, learners and representatives from the occupational fields concerned, to ensure that the programme is effective and that the knowledge and skills imparted meet the needs of the workplace, and include recent developments in the field of study (UNESCO, 2001).
7.	**Pre-vocational courses in general education**	▪ Pre-vocational courses in schools can create awareness about the world of work among youth and enrich their learning process through practical experience, enabling them to develop right attitude towards vocational training and facilitate the choice of an occupation (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ The basic education and literacy programme should aim at building capacity of all children and adults for 'learning to learn'; provide foundation skills in literacy and numeracy; develop core or soft skills; and provide the foundation for their employability and decent work (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010; UNESCO, 2001).
8.	**Pre-employment training**	▪ Pre-employment (initial) training should aspire to consolidate foundation and core skills acquired in general education, developing portable and employable workplace skills, including entrepreneurial skills, for a

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		successful transition from school to work (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010). ▪ Core skills include literacy, numeracy, information technology skills, communication skills, teamwork and problem-solving, ability to learn, analytical skills, organizing and planning, understanding of entrepreneurship, and awareness of workers' rights (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010). ▪ Institution-based training should be combined with workplace learning (ILO, 2005).
9.	**Lifelong learning (LLL)**	▪ Promote the expansion of workplace learning and training through the utilisation of high performance work practices that improve skills (ILO, 2005). ▪ Learning new skills, upgrading existing ones and lifelong learning in industry should be promoted to help workers to maintain their employability, and enterprises to remain competitive; incentives to workers promote continuing education and training such as a paid educational leave and other forms of financial aid. The public training system should provide re-training and skills upgradation for those having lost or at the risk of losing their jobs (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Continuing education and training (CET) should be available throughout every individual's working life, without restriction with regard to age, sex, prior education and training, both within and outside the formal education system, with either public or private funding; mechanisms are required for seamless pathways for learners through horizontal and vertical articulation (ILO, 2005; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ CET should be delivered in a flexible mode, using part time, evening and weekend courses, distance learning, workplace learning and mass media to facilitate lifelong learning and continuous entry, exit and re-entry points (UNESCO, 2001).
10.	**Institutional training providers**	▪ The SDP should encourage an appropriate mix of public and private providers of skills development programmes, the responsibility of government being to facilitate choice of providers while ensuring quality (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Skills development institutions should have adequate autonomy in their administration and financial

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		management, as well as autonomy to design skills development programmes with the involvement of industry and social partners to meet local needs (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Involvement of employers and workers, and Public Private Partnership should be encouraged. Planning, construction and equipping of skills development facilities are best carried out in collaboration with specialists from industry, teachers and educational architects (ILO, 2008; ILO, 2010; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Training institutions should have adequate funding and qualified staff; maintain high quality of training contents, methods, facilities, and materials; and periodically update curricula and skills of staff to changing needs of the world of work (ILO, 2010). ▪ Periodic reviews of public training providers needs to be conducted to assess their performance in meeting the goals and their efficiency in using resources (ILO, 2010).
11.	**Workplace learning (WPL)**	▪ Employers are important providers of training and have a responsibility to provide training, while employees have a responsibility to pursue opportunities for lifelong learning, whether on the job or through training providers (ILO, 2010). ▪ Social partners should promote skills development in the workplace by: engaging in a social dialogue, which may include collective agreements signed at the national, sectoral and enterprise levels; fostering a learning culture at the workplace, which may include provision of paid time off for training; motivating and supporting workers in investing in – in terms of effort and commitment – and developing skills, providing apprenticeships and internships, upgrading the quality of learning and recognising the skills acquired by apprentices; and making workplace learning opportunities equally accessible to women workers (ILO, 2008). ▪ Governments support skills development at the workplace through: quality assurance of on- the-job training and certification of skills; incentives to encourage and enable enterprises to train their workforce as part of business development, and to workers to participate in training, specifically targeting the low-skilled workers; and encouraging a social dialogue on skills development at the enterprise, sectoral, and national levels (ILO, 2008). ▪ Apprenticeships, cadetships, traineeships and internships are effective means of bridging school and the world of

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		work for young people by making it possible for them to acquire work experience along with technical and professional training (ILO, 2008). ▪ Support and guidance should be provided to assist SMEs to retrain and upgrade the skills of their workers and to create networks to share information, good practices, and pool resources to support skill development (ILO, 2008).
12.	**Skills for informal and rural economy**	▪ Skills base of the informal economy should be strengthened to contribute to the improvement of productivity and working and living conditions, and to facilitate the formalization of informal activities; workers in the informal economy should be provided incentives to invest in skills development (ILO, 2008). ▪ Informal apprenticeship should be supported to help young people to acquire employable skills and ease their way into the formal economy (ILO, 2010). ▪ Community-based training, in which training is provided in line with the identified economic and employment opportunities of local areas, is an effective approach to reach out to disadvantaged and marginalized groups. Community-based training can be combined with post-training support in entrepreneurship and access to credit and product markets to foster local enterprises (ILO, 2010). ▪ The outreach of national training institutions to rural areas should be encouraged and combined with innovative learning methods - distance learning and mobile training (ILO, 2008).
13.	**Human resources in SD system**	▪ Priority should be given to the preparation of adequate number of well-qualified teachers, instructors/trainers, training administrators and guidance staff, and to the provision of continuous professional upgradation throughout their career (ILO, 2010; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Quality standards and certification system for trainers should be established along with provision of opportunities for them to meet such standards (ILO, 2005; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ The professional preparation of all technical and vocational teachers should include: educational theory, educational psychology and sociology; classroom management; teaching methods appropriate to the

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		subjects/fields of the future teachers; methods of evaluating/ assessing the students' work; teaching techniques and aids; producing teaching materials, including computer-aided instructional materials; an introduction to educational and occupational guidance methods, as well as to educational administration; planning the instructional environment of practical classes and laboratories and managing/maintaining these facilities; and training in safety (ILO, 2005; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Qualified teachers and trainers working under decent conditions are of fundamental importance to national skills development; teaching staff emoluments and conditions of service should compare favourably with those of the persons with similar qualifications and experience in other occupational sectors. Promotions, salaries and pension scales for teaching personnel should take into account any relevant experience acquired in employment outside the educational and training sector (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Skills development administrators should be equipped with: a broad vision of skills development; teaching experience; some work experience in one of the fields taught in the programme; knowledge of administrative techniques and procedures; management methods appropriate to educational administration, including information and communication technologies; methods of financial planning and efficient utilization of resources; contemporary human resources management (UNESCO, 2001).
14.	**Monitoring, evaluation, research and innovation**	▪ Research on human resource development and training should guide the planning and implementation of SDP and skills development programmes (ILO, 2005). ▪ The outcome of skills policies and systems should be measured, based on performance indicators, to monitor and improve their effectiveness and relevance; key elements of evaluation process may include: feedback from employers and trainees on the performance of training institutions and outcome of training; regular and timely labour market information on current and future skills demand and channelling it for use of training and employment services providers (ILO, 2010). ▪ Impact of SDPs should be evaluated on the basis of the progress made towards achieving broader national goals

S.N.	Policy areas	International policy principles
		on human development such as creation of decent jobs and poverty alleviation (ILO, 2005). ▪ Collaboration with employers' and workers' organisations is important in monitoring and evaluation of skills policies (ILO, 2010).
15	**International cooperation and knowledge sharing**	▪ Well-coordinated international cooperation, between countries and international organisations, can build national capacity to reform and develop training policies and programmes. Mechanisms should be established at the international and regional levels for regular exchange of knowledge, experiences, research findings, training standards, qualifications, curricula, teaching and learning materials and innovations in skills development and in other areas (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008; UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Regional cooperation can be encouraged through coordination mechanisms and by creation of joint facilities for research, training and development – for example, the development of qualifications, teaching/ learning materials, tools and the preparation of master trainers (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Fellowships and exchange programme for teachers, administrators, specialists and students, as well as the cooperation between similar institutions in different countries, should be promoted (UNESCO, 2001). ▪ Skills development programmes should be accessible to migrants and their children, and promote recognition and portability of skills (ILO, 2005; ILO, 2008).

3 Analysis of national skills development policies

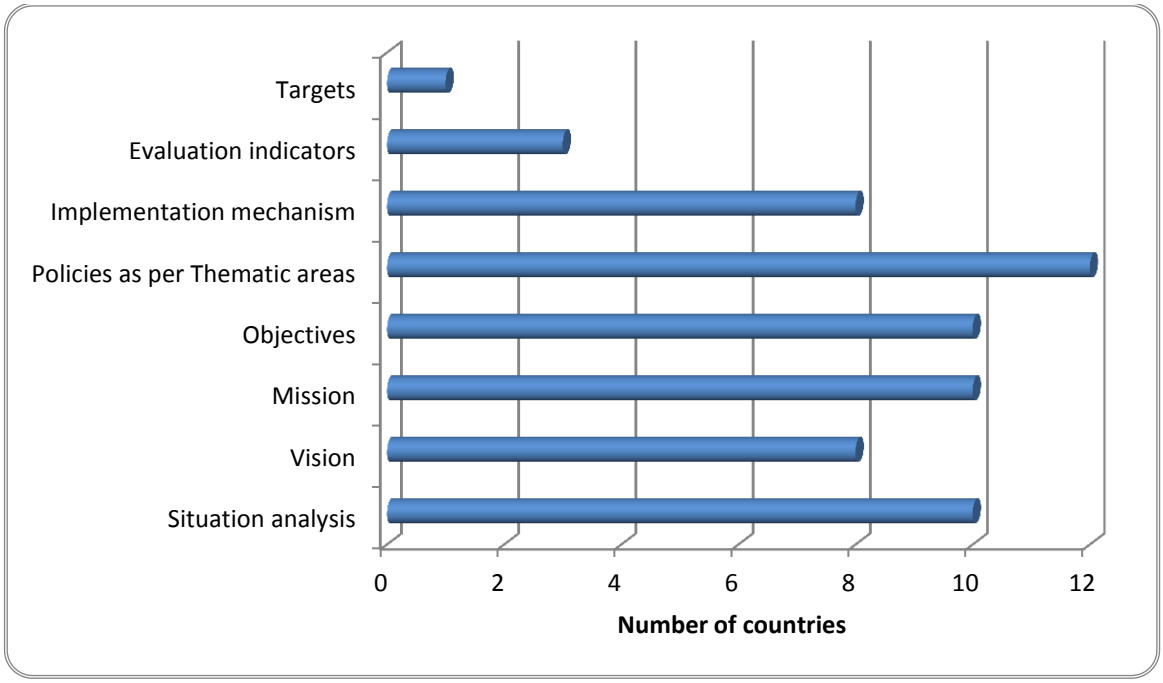
This chapter analyses national skills development policies (NSDPs) of 12 countries against the international policy principles on skills development mentioned in Chapter 2. The analysis covers issues such as: core challenge or motivation for developing NSDP; socio- economic context and problem analysis; vision, mission and policy objectives; policy areas and policy statements.

Initially, the contents of NSDPs were compared and it was observed that these could be broadly grouped into four major areas:

1. Introduction and situation analysis;
2. Preamble – vision, mission, objectives, guiding principles, scope & target groups;
3. Policy statements as per thematic areas; and
4. General implementation strategy – implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanism and institutional framework.

Figure 1 shows the coverage of above areas in the national policies of 12 countries; a comparative statement of the contents of the NSDPs of the countries is given in Annex-II.

Figure 1: Structure of NSDPs



Most of the NSDPs (10 of 12) include a section on situation analysis; 67 per cent have a vision; 83 per cent have a mission; 10 of the 12 include policy objectives; all of the NSDPs have structured policy statements as per thematic areas, though they do not cover all policy

areas as per ILO standards (refer to Table 2); 66 per cent of these have some information about how the NSDP will be implemented; but only 25 per cent of the NSDPs have indicators for evaluating the policy implementation. Detailed analysis of these categories is done in the subsequent sections.

3.1 Situation analysis

Situation analysis is a process to analyse the socio-economic and political environment, stakeholders and institutions, target groups and problems, and the alignment of SDP with social and economic policies. Situation analysis is very important and it should form the basis for formulating the policy. However, situation analysis is generally inadequate in the national policies, even though most of them (10 of the 12) have information about it.

The core challenge or motivation for the countries to formulate a SDP is to bridge the gap between demand and supply of the skills, so that it contributes to reducing unemployment, poverty and to promote economic growth. But most of the national policies do not include evidence to substantiate the problem. It is interesting to note that most causes of the core problem are similar across the countries; however, some causes are country- specific. For example, most countries covered in the analysis are facing the challenge of providing good-quality and relevant education and training and employment to an ever- increasing number of entrants in the labour market, whereas New Zealand is facing the challenge of aging population. Another important motivation for the skills policies is social inclusion.

While many countries are concerned about 'Brain Drain', at least two countries have plans to meet the shortage of skilled workforce in other countries. For example, a key motivation for the SDP of India is to fulfil the demand for skilled workforce in domestic and overseas labour market and it states:

> As the proportion of working age group of 15-59 years will be increasing steadily, India has the advantage of 'demographic dividend'... by 2020 the world will have a shortage of 47 million working people but India will have a surplus of 56 million people... Harnessing the demographic dividend through appropriate skill development efforts would provide an opportunity to achieve inclusion and productivity within the country and also a reduction in the global skill shortages. Large-scale skill development is thus an imminent imperative (India, 2009).

Common challenges identified in the national policies include the following:

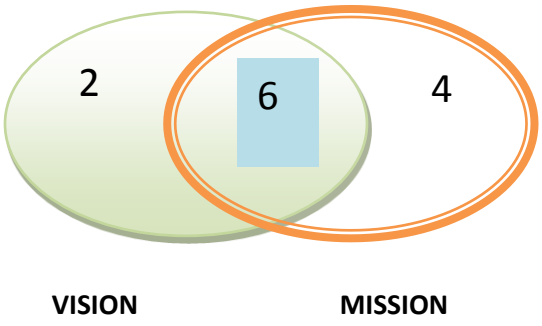
- Rapidly growing population;
- Unemployment, which is more pronounced among youth;
- Low level of skills of the labour force;
- Low social status accorded to skills training;

- Limited access to skill training;
- Low participation of females and persons with disability (PWDs) in skills training;
- Weak regulatory mechanism for skills development system;
- Lack of coordination among various agencies/ministries engaged in skills development;
- Weak link between skills development system and industry;
- Limited articulation between vocational training and higher general education;
- Inadequate mechanism for career guidance and counselling;
- Unsatisfactory quality of teaching and learning;
- Unattractive remuneration and conditions of work for instructors;
- Apathy of industry in taking full advantage of workplace learning;
- Dependence on government as the main source for finance, leading to inadequacy of finances;
- Inadequate/obsolete infrastructure available with skills development providers and institutions;
- Supply-driven skills development programmes; and
- Absence of research, development and innovation in skills development

3.2 Vision and mission

A vision statement outlines what the organisation wants to be – a dream it wants to realise; whereas, a mission statement defines the fundamental purpose of an organisation or what it does. These are significant elements of an organisation's strategy and guide the establishment of policy objectives. But, only half of the SDPs of the 12 countries have both a vision and a mission statement (refer to Figure 2). However, each of the country policy has, at least a vision or a mission statement.

Figure 2 : Number of country policies having vision and mission statements



Vision statements in the SDPs aim at developing competent and skilled workforce (100 per cent) and contributing to economic development (88 per cent), whereas, the focus of mission statements is on improving quality and relevance of skill development system (70 per cent), improving access for disadvantaged groups (40 per cent) and improving income and livelihood (40 per cent). Vision and mission statements of 12 countries are listed in Annex-III.

3.3 Policy objectives

Policy objectives are included in most of the NSDPs (10 of 12) and largely address the ILO standards (refer to Chapter 2), though not comprehensively.

3.4 Policy areas

This section analyses the policy statements recommended in the NSDPs with respect to 15 policy thematic areas as per ILO standards mentioned in Table 2. Under each policy thematic area, information about the extent to which NSDPs of 12 countries have similar or dissimilar policy principles is indicated; and then some good examples from NSDPs are quoted.

3.4.1 Governance, coordination, and planning of SD system

'Governance, coordination, and planning of skills development system' is an important policy area addressed in every national policy, but only half of them sufficiently meet the international policy principles (refer to Table 2). Various national policies recommend different types of institutional framework for managing the skills development system, but a key strategy recommended by most countries is establishing an apex body for skills development, having representatives of all stakeholders. However, significant differences exist in the nature of autonomy and the responsibilities of the apex body in various countries, which could be fully autonomous or semi-autonomous or advisory in nature (refer to Box 6). Some countries have recommended that the apex body will manage all the key sub-systems like qualifications, quality assurance, financing, etc. and that it will have subsidiary bodies/divisions/committees to manage those sub-systems. However, policies of some other countries recommend formation of independent bodies for managing those sub-systems. Examples of the countries having different institutional frameworks are given in Box 7.

Box 6: Nature of apex body for skills development

Autonomous – Malawi, Zambia, Ethiopia, Ghana
Semi-autonomous- Swaziland, Zimbabwe
Advisory – India, South Africa

Box 7: Diverse institutional frameworks

South Africa: At least seven different types of institutions share responsibilities at the national level, besides government departments. These include independent bodies – National Qualification Authority, three independent Quality Councils, National Artisan Moderation Body, Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), professional bodies and an advisory body- National Skills Authority. Besides, the country also has Human Resources Development Council.

Ghana: Policy recommends establishing an apex body to be called Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (COTVET) to coordinate and oversee all aspects of technical and vocational education and training in Ghana. The functions of the Council shall be discharged through the work of three semi-autonomous organs/committees (Ghana, 2004):

- The Ghana National Qualifications Authority (GNQA),
- The Industrial Training Advisory Board (ITAB), and
- The Training Quality Assurance Board (TQAB).

Ethiopia: A new organisational structure of the TVET system will be established, with autonomous TVET authorities at the federal and state levels and governed by TVET councils. (Ethiopia, 2008).

Even though it was beyond the scope of this paper to analyse the effectiveness of different institutional frameworks, but experts opine that the presence of too many independent bodies leads to complexity and overlapping of functions.

The NSDP of India presents a good example as to how to improve coordination among ministries on the one hand and promote private sector initiative through Public Private Partnerships on the other. India has introduced the following institutional arrangements, with the Prime Minister's National Council on Skill Development being the apex body for policy making (India, 2009):

- Prime Minister's National Council on Skill Development: apex body to give policy directions;
- National Skill Development Coordination Board (NSCB): to harmonize government initiatives;
- National Skill Development Corporation (NSDC): to foster private sector participation; and
- National Council for Vocational Training (NCVT).

The NSDP of India also recommends that partnerships will be consciously promoted between the Government, industry, trade unions, local governments, civil society institutions and all skill providers. The policy clearly defines the roles and responsibilities of the Government, employers, trade unions, civil society organisations.

Not many countries have addressed the important issue of coherence between SDP and socio-economic policies, but the Indian policy states that the NSDP will be an integral part of comprehensive economic, labour and social policies and programmes.

Many countries are focusing on sector-based approach in anticipating and meeting skills demand and generally, this function is performed through industry/sector specific bodies. For example, South Africa has Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs); the policies of India and Bangladesh recommend setting up of Sector/Industry Skills Councils.

3.4.2 Access, equity and gender equality

Improving 'access, equity and gender equality' is a key policy area addressed in all the national policies (NSDPs); although only half of them sufficiently meet international policy principles (refer to Table 2).

Among all the countries, the NSDP of India has elaborated the most in this policy area, which is understandable given a huge disparity in education and income levels of the population. It calls for substantial expansion and even specifies highly ambitious targets, and recommends policies and strategies for promoting access to skills development in rural areas and informal economy, for women and persons with disability and economically weaker sections of society (refer to Box 8).

Box 8: India: Improving access, equity and gender equality

- The current capacity for skill development in the country is 3.1 million. India has set a target of skilling 500 million people by 2022. Skill development initiative needs considerable amount of expansion of capacity and innovative delivery approaches and Public Private Partnerships.
- Entry barriers such as educational qualification, transportation, loss of wages and language will be addressed. While enhancing the opportunity of skill development for all, entry assessments will be deployed to channelize people with different profiles and needs into appropriate skill development programmes.
- The policy envisages raising awareness among the target groups about the benefit of skill development.

Rural areas:

- Innovative delivery models such decentralized delivery, flexible modular training, mobile training, distance learning, e-learning and web-based learning will be used.
- The expansion of public training institutions will be promoted, particularly in rural, border, hilly and difficult areas, where the private sector may find it difficult to invest.
- Skill development for self-employment will be an important component in rural areas. Post-training support, including mentoring for access to markets, credit and appropriate technologies, is an important part of skills development strategy for self-employment.
- Skills development centres at village and block level will act as one-stop kiosks, with information on the local labour market/employment, vocational learning opportunities and support schemes.

Economically weaker persons:

- Measures for poor people such as special coaching for competing in admission tests, provision of non-formal skill development opportunities and the expanded provision of scholarships, books and soft loans will be developed and implemented.
- The policy envisages integration and strengthening of the skill development components in poverty reduction programmes.

Box 8: India: Improving access, equity and gender equality (contd.)

Gender equality:

- Sectors which employ a large number of women will be identified and training institutes for women will be greatly expanded.
- Gender stereotyping in vocational courses will be eliminated to encourage women's participation in non-traditional occupations, including existing and emerging technological fields.
- Proactive measures that overcome barriers and facilitate participation of women such as hostels, scholarships, transport, training materials and loans, will be made available on a large scale.

Persons with disability:

- The policy envisages expanding the facilities for people with disabilities and providing reasonable accommodation that enables them to access the facilities through suitable transport and building designs.

Source: India, 2009

The policy of Bangladesh recommends targeting of sectors such as agriculture, fisheries and handicrafts industries in the first instance to improve access for groups that are traditionally under-represented in skills training (Bangladesh, 2011). The policy of New Zealand for equitable access to tertiary education is to ensure that students' own financial contributions through fees are affordable, predictable and fair (New Zealand, 2007). Further, it recommends tuition subsidies and a range of student support, including student allowances, merit- and needs-based scholarships and student loans, which are interest-free for students who remain in New Zealand. The NSDP of Zimbabwe also contains good features for promoting equity, access and gender equality and they are mentioned briefly in Box 9.

Box 9: Zimbabwe: Improving access, equity and gender equality

- Both public and private providers will be incentivised to offer special programmes targeting the training needs of special groups (women, youth, people with disability, informal apprentices, etc.) through a package of suitably designed incentives such as additional staff and financial assistance.
- Appropriate measures will be taken to ensure that persons with disabilities access the physical environment, transportation, information and communications technologies and systems, and other facilities and services open to the public, in both urban and rural areas.
- Gender will be mainstreamed into the curriculum at all levels of education and training as a cross-cutting issue.
- All stereotypes in syllabi, textbooks, other learning and teaching materials and media that perpetuate discrimination and denigrate females will be eliminated.
- Female role models, including those living with disabilities, will be used in teaching the curricula.
- Mechanisms for monitoring the participation of females and persons with disabilities in education and training will be put in place and will include females and persons with disability to ensure that the objectives of this policy are being met.

Source: Zimbabwe, 2010

3.4.3 Financing

'Financing' is the one of the most important policy areas, which is addressed quite well in the NSDPs. Out of the 12 countries, 11 have policies on financing; eight countries sufficiently meet international policy principles and the remaining three countries address them partially. Establishing a skills development fund primarily through pay roll levy is the most preferred strategy for having a sustainable funding source, though NSDPs recommend other measures such as training fee, income generation by training providers, Public Private Partnership, funding by government and development partners. An example from the policy of Zimbabwe illustrates how it aims at diversifying the sources for financing for SD (refer to Box 10).

Box 10: Zimbabwe: How stakeholders will contribute to financing

- Government through annual budgetary allocation
- Employers through contributions to the levy
- Private sector through provision of training, indenturing of apprentices and participation in PPP
- Beneficiaries through cost sharing and cost recovery measures
- Social partners like NGOs and CBOs [community based organisations] through provision of training at the community level
- Development partners through bilateral and international agreements
- [Training providers through] income generation …

Source: Zimbabwe, 2010

A few countries also recommend performance-based funding to the training providers so that training is demand driven. For example, the National Skills Strategy of England suggests rewarding colleges that will provide demand-driven courses and cutting back funding to courses that fail and to lower priority courses. The policy of Ethiopia not only talks about diversifying sources of financing but also about improving efficiency by reducing cost, promoting apprenticeship training, and performance-based funding allocation (refer to Box 11).

Box 11: Ethiopia: Policies on financing

- Resource constraints will be addressed by a combination of cost-saving mechanisms, generation of external resources and diversification of funding sources.
- Increase efficiency by modernizing management structures and procedures, granting more financial autonomy to the institutions, and increasing capacity utilization in TVET institutions, for example through flexible recruitment rules.
- Use performance-based allocation of resources.
- Promote apprenticeship programmes, which will gradually decrease unit costs in TVET.
- Stimulate private investment in TVET by providing financial incentives.
- Incentives will be offered to those companies providing in-company or cooperative TVET.
- Incentives will be developed to encourage employers to contribute to the cost of TVET through scholarships, donation of equipment and other means.
- Direct beneficiaries contribute funding.
- Internal revenue generation shall be the main source of finance for TVET institutes; strengthen the income-generating capacities of TVET institutions but income-generating activities should not distract TVET institutions from their core business of TVET.

Source: Ethiopia, 2008

3.4.4 LMI and anticipation of skills demand

The policy area 'LMI and anticipation of skills demand' is not adequately addressed by a majority of the national policies, even though it is a critical factor for having demand-driven training system. The importance of this policy area is reinforced by the National Skills Strategy of England, which, while recognising the importance of this policy area, states, "The better the market reflects the skills needs of business and the expectations of learners, the clearer the benchmarks of quality and relevance for our further education colleges will be." The strategy emphasizes the importance of collaboration among the Government, training providers, employers, sector skills councils, and regional and local authorities to identify the short-, medium- and long-term skills needs of the economy. Similarly, the strategy of New Zealand recommends collaboration between the Tertiary Education Commission and Department of Labour, besides active engagement of employers, industry and communities with tertiary education organisations to improve labour market information system (LMIS).

National policies of many countries, including those of India and Zimbabwe, suggest focusing on sector specific LMIS. Some examples of key policy principles for anticipation of demand for skilled workforce from select national policies are mentioned below:

India:

- Sector-specific LMIS will be established at the national and state levels, and area- specific ones at the local level, with the help of Sector Skill Councils (under National Skill Development Corporation) to undertake labour market analysis.
- Human Resource Planning (HRP) exercises will be undertaken to gauge the anticipated supply and demand of skilled workers by different skill levels, economic sectors and geographical areas over different periods.
- The information, so generated by the LMIS and HRP exercises, will be collated and disseminated widely to government, employers, training providers, trainees and prospective trainees at the national, state and local levels, to enable them to take appropriate decisions.

Source: India, 2009

New Zealand:

- The Tertiary Education Commission and Department of Labour will work together to improve labour market information at the national and regional levels.
- Employers, industry and communities actively engaging with tertiary education organisations will plan for their current and future skill and knowledge needs.

Source: New Zealand, 2007

Zimbabwe:

- Sector-based LMIS will be designed and implemented.
- Conduct manpower surveys and graduate tracer studies.

Source: Zimbabwe, 2010

Ethiopia:

- The research units in the federal and state TVET agencies will jointly develop a pragmatic and easy-to-implement concept of continuous labour market monitoring for TVET

purposes. This will be based upon networking with stakeholders and owners of labour market information and use the rich information base provided by tracer studies and works with low-cost tools for capturing signals for labour market trends.

Source: Ethiopia, 2008

South Africa

- Department of Higher Education and Training will collect and analyse information on skills needs from sector skills plans and also from independently commissioned labour market research.

Source: South Africa, 2011

3.4.5 Employment services

Public and private employment services, which are important institutions for facilitating employment services, are not even referred to in most national policies. Only half of the national policies include vocational guidance and career counselling, but even most of these policies do not sufficiently address the international policy principles. The issue of active labour market programmes for unemployed workers or those at risk of becoming unemployed is generally not addressed. Some examples of key policy principles for this policy area from select national policies are mentioned in Box 12.

Box 12: Examples of policies on vocational guidance and counselling

England:

- "Traffic light" data about every college and every course, including where possible, its record of getting people getting into jobs, will be introduced, so that learners know which courses will help get them the career progress they want. The "traffic light" data will also include information about the quality of different courses, customer satisfaction ratings, and likely resulting wage gains and so on.
- To help adults to get into work, progress in work or get a better job, we want to improve everyone's awareness of their training entitlements and their ability to exercise choice over the courses they take and how and where they take them.

Source: England, 2009

South Africa:

- Career paths are mapped to qualifications in all sectors and sub-sectors, and communicated effectively, contributing to improved relevance of training and greater mobility and progression.
- Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) and the National Skills Fund (NSF) must build career guidance initiatives in their sectors.
- Career guides are developed with labour market information from SETAs, addressing sub-sectors within their sector.

Source: South Africa, 2011

Box 12: Examples of policies on vocational guidance and counselling (contd.)

Sri Lanka:

- Establish a career guidance network for the TVET sector.
- Establish units to provide psycho-social counselling.

Source: Sri Lanka, 2009

Zimbabwe:

- Guidance and Counselling Committee of the National Training Authority will set up and coordinate structures at all levels of the system, including the training institutions which will provide guidance and counselling services.
- Produce a Career Guidance Book on an annual basis.

Source: Zimbabwe, 2010

India: Employment Exchanges will be restructured as career guidance centres to channel candidates into jobs, apprenticeships and training (India, 2009).

Source: India, 2009

3.4.6 Qualifications, certification of skills and quality assurance

'Qualifications, certification of skills and quality assurance' is an important policy area and has been addressed by most of the national policies; two-thirds of them sufficiently address international policy principles. Most country policies recommend establishing national qualification framework (NQF); setting standards; learning outcomes for qualifications; accreditation of training providers; recognition of prior learning; assessment and certification system as a means of quality assurance system. Most SDPs have also suggested articulation between general education and vocational education and training. Some examples from national policies are given below:

Swaziland: The TVET framework should ensure integration of academic, general, and technical and vocational education and training in a way that reflects the needs of a globally competitive Swazi workforce of the future. A system of vertical progression that recognizes prior learning must be developed, which must allow a high school graduate with vocational qualification to enter the programme at a relevant and appropriate level (Swaziland, 2010).

England: The skills system needs to mesh with our university system in such a way that there is a clear vocational route from apprenticeship to technician to foundation degree and beyond (England, 2009).

India: Extensive use of information & communication technology will be promoted for learning or increasing the impact of learning. There will be different learning pathways – academic and vocational – that integrate formal and non-formal learning, notably learning in the workplace, and that offer vertical mobility from vocational to academic learning (India, 2009). Five key functions of quality assurance, as recommended in the policy of India, are mentioned in Box 13.

Box 13: India: Quality assurance

Quality assurance is based on five key functions:
a) *Validation of qualifications for* ensuring that qualifications reflect the market needs and workplace requirements and are expressed in the form of competencies with clear assessment criteria;

b) *Validation of training process* for ensuring that proper tools, techniques, methodologies and material, as suggested in the curriculum/standards, are used by the resource persons;

c) *Quality-assured assessment of learners* for ensuring that assessment is based on national standards (competencies) and uses valid and reliable assessment methods;

d) *Accreditation of training providers and training institutions* for ensuring that training is delivered by competent and qualified trainers in well-resourced and managed institutions; and

e) *Research and information* for linking the supply of skilled workers to trends in well-researched LMI, covering both the organized and unorganized sectors of the economy.

Source: India, 2009

Few national policies aim at promoting excellence in skills development. Examples of policies on promoting excellence from Zimbabwe and India are quoted below:

> **Zimbabwe:** Promoting excellence in TVET through benchmarking (nationally and internationally) and rating schemes, and creation of institutions of excellence (Zimbabwe 2010).

> **India:** To promote excellence, a significant number of well-performing institutions will be assisted to develop into institutions of excellence. These institutions will be generously resourced, equipped with internationally comparable facilities and high-quality faculty and able to offer high-quality programmes in current and emerging technology areas. These institutions will be networked with a number of training institutions in their vicinity and serve as lead institutions in supporting their development (India, 2009).

3.4.7 Pre-vocational courses in general education

'Pre-vocational courses in general education' is not a popular policy area in the national policies; it is addressed in less than half of them and that too partially meeting the international policy principles. Ghana has the most comprehensive set of policies in this area and these are mentioned in Box 14. Botswana's policy mentions that close links will be developed between the National VET system and other sectors of the formal education system, particularly in the development of curriculum, strengthening of pre-vocational subjects in schools and career guidance and counselling (Botswana, 1997). The policy of

India is to use school education as a tool to increase vocational awareness among the young people. Sri Lanka aims to extend the resources of the TVET sector to the school system, through short-term programmes on technology. Swaziland's policy is for aligning pre-vocational educational programme to the National TVET Qualifications Framework levels.

Box 14: Ghana: Improving trainability of the workforce

- Students completing compulsory and post-compulsory education must have the *basic skills* (reading, writing, and computational skills) needed for the acquisition of, and adaptation to, emerging new technologies.
- English, science, mathematics and technology education (the application of science and mathematics in solving problems and in innovations) will be strengthened at the basic and senior secondary school levels for higher technical training, paying special attention to females.
- Pre-technical skills and pre-vocational skills will be integrated with and arts and crafts, which will be re-introduced into the basic curriculum to lay the foundation for design and art appreciation.
- Pre-vocational education elements will be postponed to the post-basic levels, namely, apprenticeship, vocational training institutes/centres, farm institutes and technical institutes.

Source: Ghana, 2004

3.4.8 Pre-employment training

'Pre-employment training' is an important policy area and has been addressed by a majority of national policies, although not all of them sufficiently meet international policy principles. Most NSDPs recommend setting up of National Qualification Framework (NQF) or National Vocational Qualification Framework (NVQF), using competency-based modular curricula, delivering training in a flexible mode and focus on soft skills. Some examples of country policies for pre-employment training are stated below.

Swaziland: The delivery of TVETSD must respond to formal, informal and non-formal sectors of the economy and must integrate other contemporary skills that will enhance the employability of the learners. Life skills must be integrated into the TVETSD curriculum, with a special focus on addressing the HIV and AIDS pandemic. Introduce flexible and modularized training packages based on research surveys for sustainable employability and/or self-employment. Ensure that programmes in training institutions are flexible and open to pre-service, in-service and the unemployed (Swaziland, 2010).

Botswana: The training programmes will emphasize flexible mode of delivery and will be responsive to technological changes. The number of training places for school leavers will be increased (Botswana, 1997).

Ethiopia: Programmes of TVET institutions shall be drawn up based on local skilled human resource needs and the needs of respective regional governments (Ethiopia, 2008).

Ghana: TVET must be designed to equip students with the basic core skills and desirable work habits, in order to improve the trainability of the future workforce. General

employability skills shall be included in the preparation of individuals for the world of work, which includes: work attitudes and habits, job-seeking skills, personal management skills, team work and interpersonal skills, creative thinking and problem-solving skills, career development and lifelong learning, and quality consciousness. Skill competencies and standards shall be determined by industry groups rather than training providers. Enterprise-based training shall be recognized, promoted and treated as an important part of the testing and certification system (Ghana, 2004).

New Zealand: Development of strong foundations skills, especially literacy, numeracy and language, as well as critical thinking, problem solving, numeracy skills and communication technology remains a priority (New Zealand, 2007).

India: In addition to vocational skills, the provision of soft (or life) skills – basic literacy, numeracy, occupational safety and health, hygiene, basic labour rights, team work and confidence building – will be made an integral component of the curricula (India, 2009).

3.4.9 Lifelong learning (LLL)

Lifelong learning (LLL) is an important policy area but only a few national policies sufficiently address the international policy principles. Some examples of the key policy principles for LLL from select national policies are mentioned below:

England: Support people who are on out-of-work benefits to get the skills they need to get a job and stay and progress in work, continuing to help them as a priority within the skills system (England, 2009).

Ethiopia: ICT will be introduced in training and skills assessment as an important tool for enhancing access and quality and developing LLL opportunities. TVET system will promote vertical and horizontal mobility and progression between different TVET occupations and different qualification levels, but also between TVET, general and higher education. TVET should create the possibility of career progression and continuation of learning (Ethiopia, 2008).

Ghana: Enterprises will be motivated to sponsor training programmes for continuous skills retraining and upgrading of employees (Ghana, 2004).

Malawi: TEVET will have multiple entry and exit points; learners shall be able to enter and leave the TEVET system at various points suited to their skills and needs, with their qualifications certified at different levels (Malawi, 1998).

Zimbabwe: LLL will be promoted through credit accumulation system leading to qualifications (Zimbabwe 2010).

India: NVQF will support lifelong learning, continuous upgradation of skills and knowledge (India, 2009).

3.4.10 Institutional training providers

'Institutional training providers' is among the most important policy areas that has been addressed by each of the national policies, although half of these do not sufficiently meet international policy principles. Most national policies have taken cognisance of the need to improve effectiveness and relevance of training of public training providers but only a few of them have policy on encouraging an appropriate mix of public and private providers. Most policies have recommended autonomy to public skills development institutions and formation of management boards with participation of all stakeholders, particularly industry. But a question arises: Can such a model be successful for all public training institutes irrespective of their location, especially those located away from industrial clusters? Aggarwal (2010) argues against such a policy in India and states, "The environment in which various ITIs [training institutes] function differs in terms of policies of respective state governments, level of economic and industrial development, location – rural/ urban/ industrial cluster ... So, one model will not fit all." Further, policies have not addressed the issue of achievability of academic autonomy, as these institutes need to follow centrally prescribed curricula and standards. In addition, how effectively will the financial and administrative autonomy be exercised, as public training institutes depend on funding from government or some other agency and need to follow their guidelines? Another crucial factor determining the effectiveness of autonomy of public training institutes is the overall governance system of public bodies and institutions in the country. Governance of the public training institutes is embedded in the social, economic and political culture of a country and any attempts to fix separate norms for public training institutes will face implementation challenges. As Levin (2008, p.67) notes in the case of TAFE colleges in Australia:

> While governments have authority to change governance processes and structures in [TAFE] colleges, such changes do not emerge from thin air or within government, but from the negotiated order between government and its institutions and from the social, political, and economic context in which government operates in any given jurisdiction (Levin, 2008).

Another crucial issue is the weak capacity of management of public training institutes to operate them as autonomous bodies. National policies have not elaborated on these crucial issues. Therefore, in general, policy relating to autonomy of public skills development providers appears to be a case of policy borrowing. However, there are exceptions and a noteworthy example is the **National Skills Strategy of England, which recommends that the system must provide progressively greater autonomy to colleges and training institutions that demonstrate teaching excellence.** It is also analysed that many national policies have not sufficiently addressed the issue of availability of adequate human and financial resources in the training institutes or that of accountability for their performance.

Ghana's policy focuses on encouraging private sector to provide training and recommends extending similar benefits (scholarships and loans) to students of private and public training institutes; extending facilities in public training institutes to students of private institutes; and

tax incentives and soft loans for private providers. A unique feature of the policy is adopting 'customer-service provider' concept and setting up of regional resource centres, whose facilities can be used by training institutes in the region (Ghana, 2004).

Improving the performance of training providers is emphasized in the policies of India, New Zealand, Sri Lanka Bangladesh and Zimbabwe. The policy of India aims at no discrimination between private or public delivery, placing importance on outcomes, users' choice and competition among training providers and their accountability. The strategy of New Zealand also focuses on the performance of training institutes and recommends investments in private training establishments in line with performance. The policy of Sri Lanka focus on linking training institutes with national MIS and monitoring their performance. It also recommends giving more financial autonomy to public TVET institutes, improving their partnership with industry and developing a performance appraisal system for staff.

In South Africa, the strategy is to establish partnerships between Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) and Further Education and Training (FET) colleges and develop the capacity of teachers. Swaziland advocates devolving the governance and management of public TVETSD institutions. The focus of the policy in Zambia is on strengthening the capacities of training institutes to deliver training for the informal sector and to increase capacity utilization of training facilities.

Examples of key policy principles for this policy area from Zimbabwe and Bangladesh are mentioned below:

Zimbabwe:

- Management Boards will be created in TVET institutions. The Boards will be appointed by the Minister in consultation with the Authority/Council and will be representative of relevant stakeholders for each institution.
- Incentive packages for the establishment of Public Private Partnership will be designed in accordance with the PPPs policy guidelines established by the Government.
- A programme to re-equip the institutions with modern equipment compatible with the needs of the labour market will be developed and systematically financed through ZIMDEF, funding from communities and through public-private partnership; the re-equipping of the institutions will take into consideration the needs of persons with disability.
- Institutions will be expected to generate resources in the process of training, without compromising training,
- Institutions will have full authority to manage resources generated at the institution level; a system for regular reporting on the management of locally generated resources and assets will be implemented in order to ensure that resources are not misappropriated.
- Institutions will develop capacity to set up institutional management information systems (MIS) to capture data on enrolments and graduates, placement ratios, financial revenue and expenditures and assets of the institution as components of a LMIS.

Source: Zimbabwe 2010

Bangladesh:

- Financial and administrative authority will be decentralized so that college principals are better able to form effective local working partnerships with the industry. Boards of

Management with stakeholder participation will be established in all government training centres.

- Institutions will be given greater academic autonomy to close down courses in areas of low market demand and be empowered to develop and deliver new courses with BTEB to respond to emerging industry needs.
- Recruitment and selection of instructors and trainers in public training institutions will be decentralized.
- All training institutions will also be required to provide post-training placement support to graduates.
- Over time, all Government agencies delivering skills training will become accredited against the new quality standards, so that learners can receive formal recognition of skills learned, through Statements of Attainment and other qualifications from the NTVQF.
- Private training providers will receive financial support if they meet national quality standards for BTEB affiliated programmes.
- In this new, more decentralized and demand-driven system, institutions will need to develop marketing strategies to promote their courses. They will also be required to implement a transparent process for receiving and responding to complaints, both from students and their clients in industry.
- Training providers will be encouraged and empowered to respond to the demand through incentives, performance-based funding mechanisms and accountability regimes.
- Institutions will maintain accurate and reliable data on student enrolment, course completion, employment outcomes, etc.
- A new institutional performance monitoring system based on outputs will be developed to reward the better performing institutions.

Source: Bangladesh, 2011

3.4.11 Workplace learning (WPL)

A majority of the national policies address the policy area 'workplace learning' but only partially meet the international policy principles. The national policies can reflect better on ensuring quality of WPL and fostering a learning culture at the workplace through collective bargaining. Examples of national policies on WPL are mentioned below.

Bangladesh: Skills development in the workplace and along industry value chains will be promoted. The apprenticeship system will be strengthened and expanded, so that more employers, master craftspersons and learners, from both the formal and informal economies, can participate in the new system (Bangladesh, 2011).

Ethiopia: Incentives will be given for apprenticeship training (Ethiopia, 2008).

Ghana: The current industrial attachment will be transformed into a structured 'work-based learning' system that recognizes the workplace as an authentic learning environment (Ghana, 2004).

India: On-the-job-training and apprenticeships will be encouraged; Infrastructure will be created for workplace learning and apprenticeships. Over the next five years, the number of companies participating in apprenticeship will increase to about 0.1 million, covering about one million apprentices (India, 2009).

New Zealand: The policy aims to strengthen work-based learning and ensure that the growth in industry training, modern apprenticeships and other vocational education is sustainable and of high quality (New Zealand, 2007).

South Africa: SETAs will provide workplace training programmes for employees and report on the impact of training (South Africa, 2011).

Zimbabwe: Companies will recruit apprentices from both the formal and informal sector and will offer attachment to students. The ZIMDEF rebate system will be reviewed and improved in order to ensure timely and efficient disbursements to companies, so as to promote on-the-job training, apprenticeships, enterprise-based training and student attachment (Zimbabwe 2010).

The policy messages of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) for WPL are to: make substantial use of WPL in initial training; ensure that the workplace training is of good quality and there is a provision of a clear contractual framework for apprenticeships; and complement WPL by training in an institute (OECD, 2010).

3.4.12 Skills for informal and rural economy

Skills development in the informal and rural economy is an important policy area and has been addressed by a majority of the national policies, although only few of them sufficiently meet the international policy principles. Country policies recommend promotion of technical and entrepreneurial skills for promoting self-employment; improving access by using flexible and modular courses, mobile training and distance learning; improving apprenticeship in the informal economy; and recognising prior learning. However, policies, in general, are silent about the international policy principles on 'strengthening skills base for formalisation of informal economy'. Some examples of the key policy principles for skills development in the informal and rural economy from select national policies are mentioned below:

Ghana:

- A number of initiatives have been taken to modernize the informal sector and improve its productivity. Two models of intervention, the Ghana Regional Appropriate Technology Industrial Services (GRATIS) model and the Vocational Skills and Informal Sector Support Project (VSP) model are recommended for replication. The GRATIS model focuses on developing new technologies appropriate to the users and already operates in all regions of the country as Intermediate Technology Transfer Units (ITTUs). The VSP model imparts enhanced skills to master craftsmen and apprentices by linking the informal apprenticeship system to formal training institutions.
- Programmes for target groups will concentrate on business skills, marketing, improved production technologies, accessing and managing credit; the development of linkages with formal sector enterprises; the provision of complementary; and follow-up services.
- Agricultural training will promote the 'environmentally-friendly' practices; the priority concerns are conservation (of soil, water, and forests) and the efficient use of agro-chemicals.

- The traditional apprenticeship system will be reformed by introducing a competency-based training and assessment system, integrated into the National Qualifications Framework.
- TVET and poverty alleviation programmes will be integrated in order to facilitate access to training and provide post-training support to trainees. Reputed and accredited master-craftsmen will be contracted to train boys and girls under poverty alleviation programmes.

Source: Ghana, 2004

Bangladesh:

- NGOs and other providers of non-formal skills training, including the Bureau of Non-Formal Education (BNFE), will be encouraged to utilise the new skill standards and support materials, so their programmes can be nationally recognized
- A code of practice for apprenticeships in the informal economy will be developed to set up the agreed minimum rates of pay, working conditions and duration of the apprenticeship, content of training and obtain registration.
- Recognition of prior learning (RPL) will be introduced.
- The Government and its partners will explore innovative ways of addressing the cost burden, including the use of micro-credit linked to business advice and the formal recognition of Master Trainers and accredited training workshops.

Source: Bangladesh, 2011

India:

- Public training institutions will be encouraged to design and offer programmes that meet the requirements of local economy and specific target groups.
- Flexible delivery strategy such as part/full time and on/off site training will be adopted; mobile training vans will be deployed in rural and remote areas; training will be predominantly short-term to encourage participation.
- Skill development initiatives for the unorganized sector will include a definite component on literacy, basic education and soft skills.
- Competency standards and certification systems will be developed for the unorganized sector work and incorporated in the national testing and certification system.
- Skill development programmes will be devised in existing / traditional skills and knowledge. Mechanisms will be evolved to upgrade them into modern skill areas.
- Skills of local trainers will be upgraded in modern techniques, technologies and pedagogy. They will be trained and developed into master craftsmen.
- Opportunities for linking apprenticeships to formal training institutions will be explored to extend expertise, pedagogical support and tools & equipment.
- Social protection mechanism for apprentices will be devised.

Source: India, 2009

Ethiopia:

Basic entrepreneurial and business management training will be incorporated into all relevant TVET programmes and TVET authorities will provide assistance to TVET providers to develop appropriate training packages for self-employment.
Source: Ethiopia, 2008

3.4.13 Human resources in SD system

'Human resources in SD system' is an important policy area that has been addressed by each of the national policies, although a few of these sufficiently meet international policy principles. Most national policies have focused on training and development of trainers; a few recommend training of administrators; and very few suggest training of other support staff. The emphasis of national policies is on practical work experience for instructors. Examples for staff training and development from select national policies are given in Box 15.

Box 15: Policies on staff training and development

Zimbabwe: A variety of staff development programmes will be developed, which will include upgradation of qualifications, attachments to industry, refresher courses and study visits; and strengthening of trainers' training institutes (Zimbabwe 2010).
Ghana: Develop competency profiles to guide instructor training and institutionalize in-service training and industrial attachment for TVET instructors (Ghana, 2004).
Bangladesh: Professional development plans are developed for all public sector instructors (Bangladesh, 2011).
South Africa: Introduce staff exchange programmes with industry, guest lectures, and industrial visits to provide industry exposure to staff (South Africa, 2011).
Sri Lanka: Develop staff through pre-service training and in-service exposure to industry (Sri Lanka, 2009).
Zambia: Train instructors in technical and basic entrepreneurial skills (Zambia, 1996).
Malawi: TEVET managers and administration staff will be trained (Malawi, 1998).

Some countries, including Zambia and Zimbabwe, have recommended improving service conditions and remuneration of TVET personnel. There are noteworthy examples also; Malawi has suggested accreditation of instructors and South Africa has recommended use of in-service training as a criterion for salary increments, promotions, scholarships and rewards. Some countries have also suggested a combination of improved qualifications and practical work experience or recruiting persons from industry as trainers. Some examples of key policy principles from national policies for ensuring competent human resources are mentioned below:

Ethiopia:
- Graduates from TVET system, preferably after some years of practical work experience, and other skilled practitioners from the world of work will be encouraged to join the TVET teachers' and instructors' profession. They must appear for and pass occupational assessment as a precondition to entering to TVET teachers' / instructors' training.

Source: Ethiopia, 2008

Ghana:
- Establish a clear and separate career path for TVET instructors.
- Develop a unified instructor qualification framework.
- TVET instructors should have practical work experience.

- Train practising and retired specialists from the industry to become instructors in TVET institutions.
- Promote the training of more female technical instructors, especially in male-dominated trades.
- Make conditions of service for TVET instructors comparable to that in the industry.
- There is a need to gradually shift from the present pre-service teacher training approach to the training of people with industrial experience to become TVET instructors.

Source: Ghana, 2004

India:

- Employment of former trainees, who have gained workplace experience, and of master craftspersons as trainers.
- Retired employees will be retrained to meet the requirement of trainers.
- Incentive mechanisms, including reward and career progression systems, will be introduced to improve the status of trainers.
- The gender balance among trainers will be improved.

Source: India, 2009

Bangladesh:

- All instructors employed by the Government will be trained and certified under the new system
- All private sector instructors and instructors delivering formal programmes that lead to nationally recognised qualifications under the NTVQF must be certified under the new system
- A national pool of certified national master trainers be created to implement the new instructor training programmes, which will also include a separate group of master trainers for the disabled
- Current prerequisites for instructors and trainers will be reviewed to ensure that all instructors will have technical qualifications or industrial experience to at least the level of the qualification they are teaching.
- Incentives will be developed to encourage private sector trainers to gain certification under the new system.

Source: Bangladesh, 2011

Sri Lanka:

- Develop and implement a performance appraisal (PA) system and an internal promotional scheme which is effective, fair and systematic.

Source: Sri Lanka, 2009

3.4.14 Monitoring, evaluation, research and innovation

'Monitoring, evaluation, research and innovation' is an important policy area and has been addressed by most of the national policies, though half of them sufficiently meet international policy principles. A few country policies such as India and Malawi, stress on the culture of innovation as a means to have a dynamic skills development system.

Ghana will use tracer studies to evaluate the performance of training providers (Ghana, 2004). In Swaziland, the ministry responsible for education and training will monitor and evaluate

the implementation of SDP and strategy through performance targets. However, a key role will be played by an apex body for skills development, which will monitor the outcome of training, using tracer study and LMI (Swaziland, 2010). The policy of Malawi gives emphasis on promoting research, creativity and innovation in skills development. It recommends enhancing coordination and information sharing among training, research and development institutions; and developing a pool of researchers and system for disseminating research finding (Malawi, 1998). The South African strategy states that the Government will develop annual implementation plans and targets (South Africa, 2011). The policy of India focuses on employment outcome, research and innovation and asserts:

> Skill training must ensure a job for those who seek it. The placement ratio will be monitored and placed in the public domain by agencies involved in skill training... Research will be a key strategy for managing change and benefiting from it. Since experimentation and innovation flourishes in a vibrant and self-confident environment, flexibility and operational autonomy will be extended to deserving institutions. Research in international developments and in organisational practices and pedagogical approaches will be an on-going activity. Standing institutional arrangements will be established for the purpose and research will be funded both in these arrangements and in outside research institutions (India, 2009).

The strategy of New Zealand is to prepare annual monitoring reports, which will inform the contribution of the tertiary education system to the Government's goal and progress on achieving the outcomes using quantitative and qualitative indicators (New Zealand, 2007).

The National Skills Strategy of England clearly indicates that the success of the skills system will be measures by employment and other outcomes and not just outputs (qualifications targets). It recommends adopting a national score card approach in measuring the skills progress, using four elements: ensuring the supply of skills matches demand; ensuring that the skills delivered have economic value for employers, raising productivity as a result of training; ensuring that training helps adults improve their employability and progress – by measuring employment and earnings outcomes from training; and driving progress on raising skills towards a world-class skills base – using industry-approved vocational qualifications as the main indicator (England, 2009).

3.4.15 International cooperation and knowledge sharing

'International cooperation and knowledge sharing' is not a popular policy area in the national policies; it is addressed in only one third of the national policies and that too partially meeting the international policy principles. The policies of these countries mention only the cooperation with international development agencies and donor countries. Examples of policy principles from national policies are mentioned below:

> **Ghana:** Cooperation with international agencies and development partners will be promoted (Ghana, 2004).
>
> **Zimbabwe:** The Government will mobilize support from development partner for skills development through bilateral and international agreement (Zimbabwe 2010).

Ethiopia: The Ethiopian Government will invite cooperating partners to continue and increase their financial and technical assistance to the TVET sector. The TVET executive bodies at the federal and state levels will ensure that all official bilateral and multilateral cooperation will be coordinated and that planned activities are geared towards the achievement of the objectives of TVET strategy and integrated in the annual and midterm activity plans. Appropriate mechanisms for donor cooperation will be organized to ensure coordinated approaches and to avoid duplicating or conflicting activities. Monitoring systems of cooperation projects in the TVET sector have to be aligned with the national TVET monitoring system (Ethiopia, 2008).

India: The Government will facilitate international cooperation (India, 2009).

4 Policy formulation and implementation

This chapter discusses the policy formulation process used by the countries, the implementation mechanism for the policy, and the causes of perceived policy failure.

4.1 The process for developing policy and challenges faced

Policy development process is as important as the contents of a policy. The process not only affects the quality of contents but also the level of consensus and commitment of stakeholders to the policy and its implementation (ILO, 2011). Therefore, an analysis of the process adopted by various countries to develop the policies was done and it was found that the countries, in general, have developed the policies through a consultative process involving most of the stakeholders. Some countries (e.g. Malawi and Swaziland) have official guidelines on the process to be followed and on structuring the policy document. Many countries have involved international experts or have been supported by an international development agency in developing the policy. Two of the countries– Zimbabwe and Swaziland – have even mentioned the process used in developing policy in the policy document (refer to Annex-IV). However, the policy development process in most countries faced challenges, which impacted the quality of policy formulated. Key challenges faced by the countries are mentioned in Box 16.

Box 16: Challenges faced in the policy development process

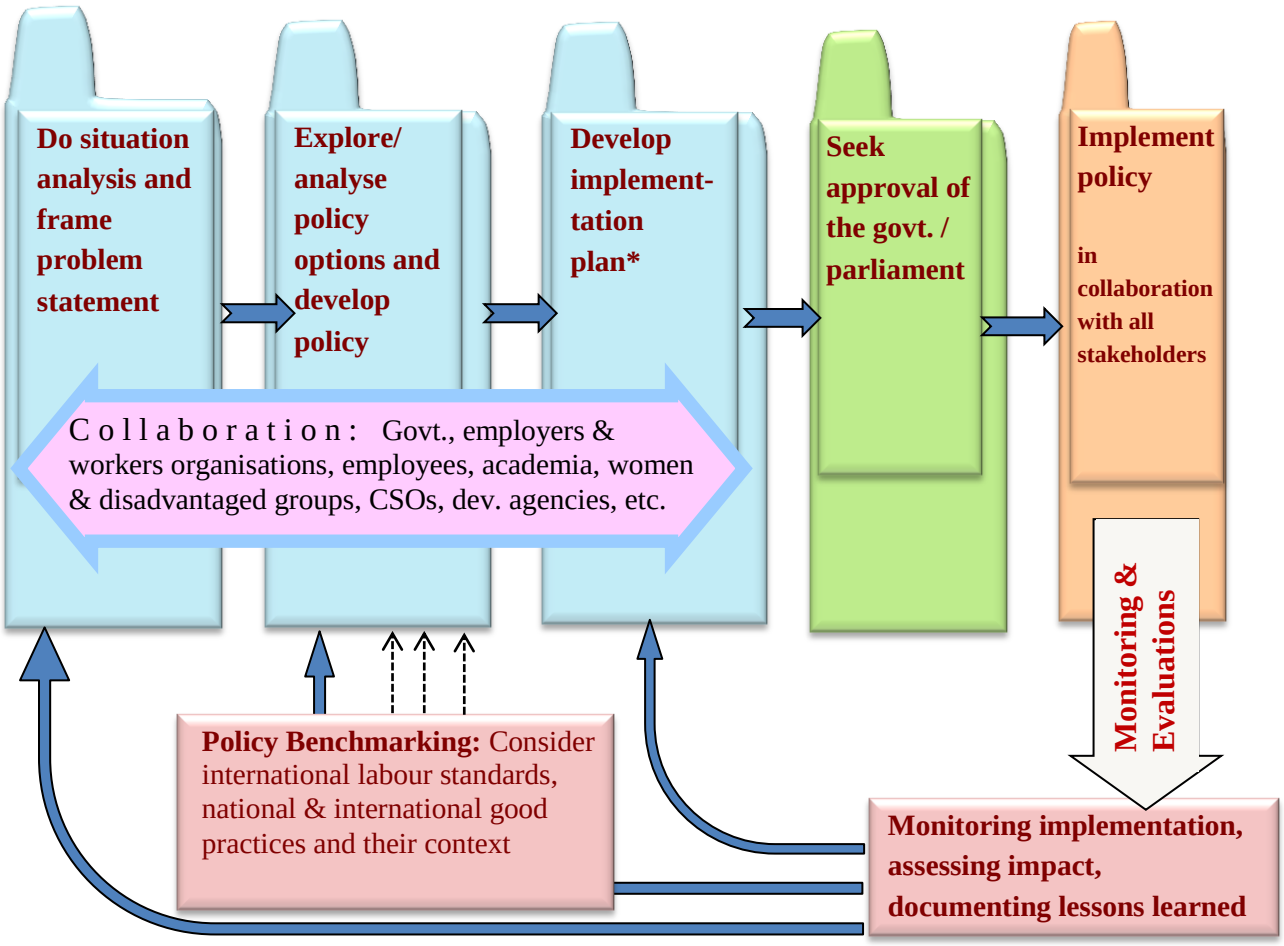
Some of the challenges faced or shortcomings in the policy development process are:

- The situation analysis was weak or subjective and not based on evidence.
- Consultations were carried out mainly with national-level stakeholders.
- Emphasis was not given on capacity building. Employers and workers' organisations in some of the countries have weak capacity and knowledge about skills development policies and strategies.
- There was insufficient representation of training providers, particularly private training ones.
- There was insufficient involvement of stakeholders belonging to informal and rural economy even though a majority of the workforce in many countries is in these sectors.
- There was lack of participation of some of the key stakeholders in the workshops/ meetings or, alternatively, representation of these stakeholders by junior employees.
- Ministry of Finance's engagement came at a very late stage while seeking approval from the Cabinet or Council of Ministers.
- The consultation process was either too fast in some cases or very slow pace in some other cases.
- There was low awareness among international experts about the country's skills development system and among national experts about the IPBs and developments in other countries.
- The budget for the consultation process was insufficient.
- There was influence of the ideology of development agency supporting the policy development, especially if it provided financial support also.
- There was policy borrowing from other countries.
- There was lack of political commitment at an early stage.
- Government overruled some of the recommendations of stakeholders, particularly in the area of autonomy of apex body for skills development and other institutions.

Suggestions for an effective policy development process

In this section, the key success factors and a schematic diagram depicting an effective policy development process, based on the experience gained from technical assistance provided to various developing countries, as well as discussions with policy makers, are mentioned.

Figure 3: Policy development process



* ***In some countries, implementation plan is developed after approval of the policy by government.***

Key success factors, which policy makers may consider while formulating policies are given below:

I. Establish a clear need for formulating the policy (i.e. why the policy is needed).

II. Secure commitment of key stakeholders (e.g. government, employers and workers organisations) for formulating the policy through a consultative process.

III. Establish a tripartite committee of responsible government agencies, workers' and employers' organisations and of other stakeholders – training providers, civil society organisations (CSOs), development agencies, women, youth and disadvantaged

groups. However, the ministry responsible for skills development should lead and coordinate the process.

IV. Identify a core group (2-3 persons) for preparing drafts of the policy based on the deliberations during the consultative process; only in extreme circumstances, engage a consultant to do the job.

V. Identify a technical cooperation partner, preferably an international development organisation, for building capacity of national stakeholders on the international policy benchmarks and good practices.

VI. Carry out a situation analysis that includes analysis of stakeholders, target groups, problem and institutional framework, which should become the basis for the policy formulation. The problem analysis should establish a cause-effect relationship to the core problem. The situation analysis also provides information about socio- economic context, linkages with national development framework and other key social and economic policies, and the rationale for the policy.

VII. Specify vision, mission, objectives, target groups and scope (e.g. coverage of programmes, qualifications, etc.) of the policy in a particular country.

VIII. Formulate thematic policy areas and the specific policies (policy principles) for each selected area; e.g., if workplace learning is a policy area, then possible policies could be "to increase provision of workplace learning", "to ensure equal access to workplace learning for employees with low-level qualifications and literacy, as well as for women and men", etc.

IX. Explore policy options for various policy principles, considering past experiences and good practices (national and international). Policy options are similar to strategies, as they determine how the specific policies will be achieved. Policy benchmarking is generally helpful during the policy formulation stage.

X. Do a feasibility analysis of the policy options and choose the appropriate policy principles. Policy options should be justifiable in the specific context of a country.

XI. Develop an implementation plan, specifying responsible institutions and the requirements for resources and capacity building.

XII. Recommend key performance indicators, mechanism and timeframe for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the policy.

Note: It is important to reach out to wider stakeholders at the national and regional/ local levels regularly at various stages of policy formulation and to have consultations with them using appropriate means (e.g. workshops, internet and media).

Policy formulation is a dynamic and continuous process and does not end with formulation of a policy; feedback from the monitoring and evaluation of the policy implementation and research helps in informing and improving situation analysis and reviewing policy. Issues concerning policy implementation are discussed in next section.

4.2 Policy implementation mechanisms

One-thirds of the NSDPs[2] do not have information on how the policy will be implemented and even the remaining ones have not elaborated it properly in most cases.

The national policies of Malawi, New Zealand and Swaziland have better examples of reflecting implementation mechanism. In Malawi, a strategic paper was developed to guide the TEVET [training] Authority and other stakeholders in implementing the policy by outlining priority actions and short-, medium- and long-term interventions. The strategic paper contains an action plan with information about policy area, main activities, responsible actors, time frame and expected outputs. Malawi is the only country whose National Policy has an action plan, which is mandatory as per the guidelines of the Government of Malawi. In New Zealand, the Ministry of Education has the responsibility of monitoring and evaluating the strategy and it focuses on measuring the outcomes and producing annual reports. The policy of Swaziland identifies institutions and structures that are potential collaborators and partners and clearly defines their roles in the implementation of the policy. It also assigns the overall responsibility of monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the policy to the Ministry for Education and Training and specifies indicators for evaluation. The NSDP of Bangladesh specifies the agencies that will be responsible for key tasks and mentions that Bangladesh will move to evidence and needs-based approach to policy and planning to improve future management of skills development.

A number of national policies, including those of India and Bangladesh, recommend a review after a period of five years.

4.3 Good policy but poor implementation!

Stakeholders from several countries lament that their countries are good in developing policies but poor in implementing them. They, especially government representatives, are concerned about 'policy failure' or 'implementation gap' but believe that the policies are very good. This raises a key question – if the policies are not properly implemented or the outcome of the implementation does not produce desired change, is it due to:

- implementation deficiencies;
- 'ideal' design of the policy and strategies; or
- changes in the operating environment?

Let us consider an often-expressed view that 'policy failure' takes place due to poor implementation and that policies are good. But, how to decide what is a good policy for a

[2] The term NSDP used in this report includes TVET, TEVET and tertiary education.

country? Is ‘good policy’ one, which is developed based on idealism (could be a result of policy borrowing) or one developed based on realism (i.e. based on country’s context, resources and capacity) or one developed with a balance between the two? In the event of ‘policy failure’, the following issues also need to be deliberated before coming to a conclusion about the cause of it:

- Was the policy aligned to the country’s development and economic policies?
- Whether policy borrowing has led to development of an ‘ideal’ policy and strategy, which may not be ideal for their country’s context?
- Whether a situation analysis was carried out to assess the problems and their causes and whether adequate data was available to inform the analysis?
- Whether an assessment of the implementation capacity, commitment of stakeholders, constraints and resources available in the country was carried out, while designing the policy and strategy?
- Were any pilot programmes or assessments carried out to test feasibility of the strategy?
- Whether a strategy for institution building and capacity building of stakeholders was designed?
- Was an inclusive and collaborative process for policy development adopted or a wide ownership of the policy ensured, especially identifying those who will be responsible for the implementation of the policy?
- Was the policy making based on ‘top-down’ or ‘bottom-up’ approach?
- Whether an implementation plan and performance indicators were developed?
- Were the targets overambitious or the political considerations impacted the policies?
- Whether institutional framework for implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policy was prescribed?

A discussion on the above issues may inform the reader that the problem also lies with the ‘ideal’ policy, which might not be appropriate in the context of the country. This is corroborated by the view of Hunter & Marks (2002), who says that governments consider ‘policy failure’ as mainly being due to ineffective implementation and not due to the lack of sound policy; rather they consider the failure as a result of bad execution, bad policy or bad luck or a combination of them. They attribute ‘bad luck’ to failure due to adverse external circumstances. Often it happens that when an issue (for example skills development) catches the attention of political leadership as a likely solution to problems (say youth unemployment), then a number of policy initiatives start rolling out simultaneously, without realising the limited implementation capacity and putting implementing agencies under severe pressure. The implementing agencies also compete with each other to get adequate financial and human resources. This is also an important factor for ineffective implementation of policies.

Unfortunately, policy borrowing continues to be a challenge. For example, one of the countries has borrowed a policy statement, which recommends devolving substantial autonomy to public training institutes, from another country's policy document without learning that the implementation experience of that country was not good.

Box 17: Elements of effective policy implementation, M&E

- Setting achievement targets and milestones within a fixed timeframe
- Identification of a lead agency or ministry for implementation, with clearly defined responsibilities
- Clear implementation plans at multiple levels (e.g. national, state/ province and institutional)
- Assessment and, if necessary, improvement of the fit between existing institutions and mandates and the policy, and, if applicable, their capacity building in implementing the policy
- Identification of a key institution for monitoring progress
- Allocation of adequate budgetary and other resources, and a plan for resource mobilization
- Institutionalization of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms
- Sustained political commitment and leadership
- Both quantitative and qualitative assessments against agreed achievement indicators

Source: ILO, 2011

Finally, it is re-emphasised that **policy design process cannot be isolated from implementation process and an integrated approach for policy design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and feedback should be adopted.** Therefore, stakeholders and institutions responsible for even a specific part of the process should be involved in the whole process.

5 Conclusions

This study has the potential to expose policymakers to the policies and experiences of other countries, as well as strengthen their knowledge of the ILO standards on skills development. It can also be used by a country to benchmark its policy against international standards and other countries, as well as to decide if its policy is due for review. The study is also likely to be useful for international organisations and development agencies, as it provides feedback about the extent of use of the international standards in the national policies and also what contemporary and innovative policies are being advocated by different countries. So, they can also decide if their standards are due for review.

The study used international labour standards (Conventions and Recommendations), the ILC Conclusions and the ILO/ G20 training strategy of the ILO, to analyse and categorise the policy principles concerning skills development stated in these documents under 15 policy thematic areas, with the support of policy makers from South Africa, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Tanzania, Malawi, India, Swaziland and Mauritius. The study also used joint publication of the ILO and UNESCO *Technical and Vocational Education and Training for the Twenty-first Century*, which contains revised Recommendations concerning Technical and Vocational Education of UNESCO and the Conclusions concerning human resources training and development of the ILO. Finally, these 15 policy areas drawn from the ILO standards and international policy principles were used as the standards or benchmarks for analysing the NSDPs of 12 countries from Africa, Asia and the Pacific. Wherever relevant, good policy principles from policy of the EU and skills strategy of England have been quoted.

A comparative analysis of national policies is a challenging area not only due to lack of uniform standards, definition and scope of SDP, but also because of the use of different policy formats and the contextual differences among the countries. Some countries develop a policy, while few others develop a strategy paper, but none of the 12 policy documents covered in this study is a pure policy or a pure strategy document.

The structure of the NSDP documents reviewed in this study can be broadly grouped into four major categories:

1. Introduction and situation analysis;
2. Preamble – vision, mission, objectives, guiding principles, scope & target groups;
3. Policy statements as per thematic areas; and
4. Implementation – implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanism and institutional framework.

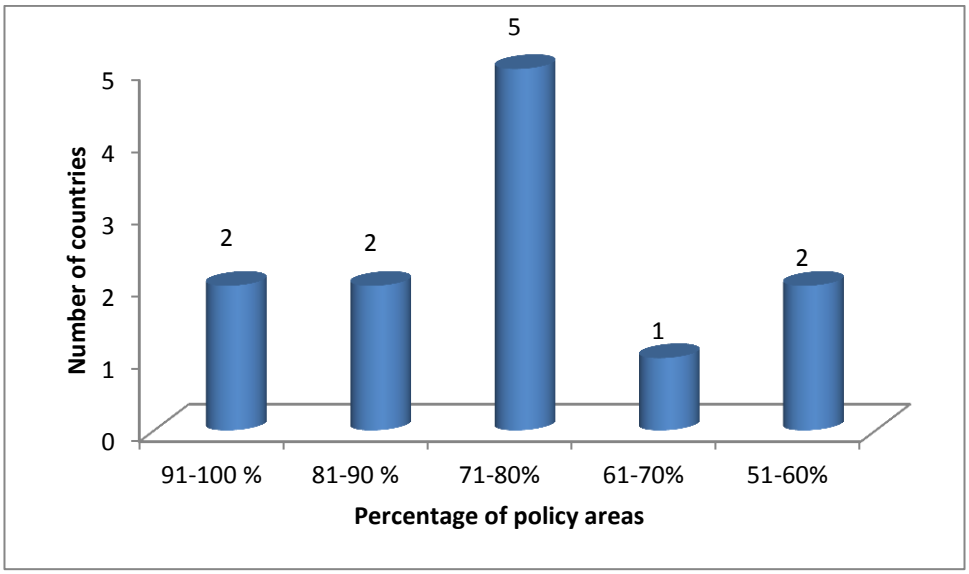
The study found that 83 per cent of the NSDPs include a section on situation analysis; 67 per cent have a vision statement; and 83 per cent have a mission statement and policy objectives. All of the NSDPs have organized policy statements as per thematic areas though they do not

cover all policy areas as per the ILO standards. Two out of every three NSDPs have some information about how these will be implemented but only one out of four have indicators for evaluating the policy implementation.

Policy thematic areas covered in NSDPs

The analysis of the NSDPs provides evidence that some policy thematic areas (ILO standards) are missing in the NSDPs. It means that the scope of the ILO standards is broader than that used in the NSDPs. The maximum per cent of policy areas covered in a NSDP is 93 per cent, with the minimum being 53 per cent. Out of the total 12 national policies analysed two NSDPs cover 91 to 100 per cent of the policy areas; two each cover 81 to 90 per cent; five cover 71 to 80 per cent of the policy areas; one covers 61 to 70 per cent; and remaining two NSDPs cover 51 to 60 per cent of the policy areas (refer to Figure 4). On an average, a country's policy addresses 75 per cent of the 15 policy thematic areas under the ILO standards.

Figure 4: Percentage of policy areas covered in the NSDPs

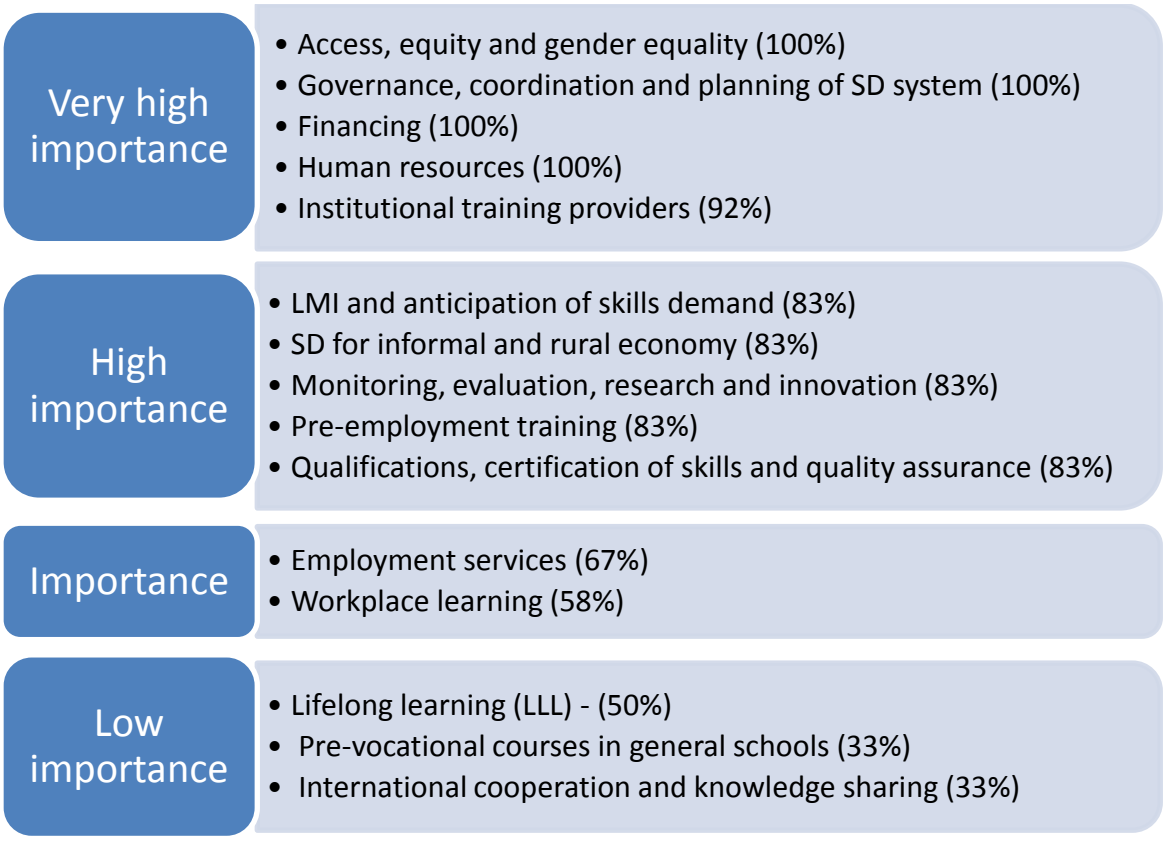


Ideally, a country's national policy should cover all the policy areas mentioned under the international policy principles. However, a country's context can impact the choice of policy principles by local stakeholders and these locally-decided principles can differ from international policy principles. But it was beyond the scope of this study to further explore the reasons why a country's national policy did not cover most, if not all, policy areas under the ILO standards. It would be interesting to investigate this aspect through a well-designed in-depth study. Nevertheless, the NSDPs of the three countries, which cover the least percentage

of policy area are the ones developed during the Nineties and are the oldest NSDPs among the sample. These NSDPs needs review and revision. Therefore, this analysis shows that the countries can use this tool to analyse appropriateness of their national policies.

The analysis also reveals some policy areas are more commonly addressed than others in the country policies. Four of the policy areas are covered by all the countries; one policy area is covered by 92 per cent of countries; five policy areas are covered by 83 per cent of countries; one policy area is covered by 67 per cent of countries; another policy area is covered by 58 per cent of countries; and rest three policy areas are covered by only 33-50 per cent of countries. A list of commonly- and rarely-used policy areas is given in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Commonly- and rarely-used policy thematic areas



Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentage of the countries, which addressed the policy thematic areas.

'International cooperation and knowledge sharing' and 'pre-vocational courses in general schools' are the least popular policy area, which are covered only in 33 per cent of NSDPs. It is also a matter of concern that important policy areas, such as 'lifelong learning (LLL)' are not covered in a majority of NSDPs, while 'workplace learning' is only addressed by 58 per cent of NSDPs. Though one may argue that the development of a policy depends on a country's context, the absence of these important policy areas is difficult to attribute to the contextual reasons.

The study also analysed the adequacy and extent of similarity between policy principles stated in the national policies and the international policy principles under each policy area. The analysis reveals that many policy areas in the NSDPs do not sufficiently address the international policy principles. For example, policy principles of only 50 per cent of the countries sufficient address the international policy principles, even in case of the most popular policy areas such as 'access, equity and gender equality' and 'governance, coordination and planning of SD system'. Most NSDPs have addressed the issue of coordination between training providers and employers but only a few countries have addressed the important issue of coherence between SDP and economic policies, as well as strengthening tripartism in general and link with trade unions in particular. The best developed policy principles are found in the policy areas of 'financing' and 'qualifications, certification of skills and quality assurance'. It is also observed that countries, which have developed the policies recently, have greater conformity with the international policy principles. A detailed analysis of each policy thematic area is given in the Chapter 3.

Implementation challenges

The policy makers opine that they develop good policies but the implementation is generally poor. Therefore, the study discusses the issues concerning 'good' policy and 'poor' implementation. It raises the issue as to 'what is a good policy' and argues that a good policy is not one which is based on idealism and policy borrowing, which unfortunately continues to be a challenge. The study emphasises that 'poor implementation' is not the only factor responsible for policy failure; 'unsound policy' (even an 'ideal' policy can be a bad policy), 'changes in environment' or a combination of the three factors can also cause policy failure. The study lists the key challenges faced in policy implementation as well as in the consultation process for designing a policy.

The study analysed that policy makers in many countries have not given sufficient attention to implementation issues and risk factors. For example, 33 per cent NSDPs do not even have information about how the policy will be implemented.

6 Annexes

Annex I: National policy or strategy documents covered in the study

S. No.	Policy Document	Country	Year
1.	National Policy on Vocational Education and Training	Republic of Botswana	1997
2.	National Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Strategy	Ethiopia	2008
3.	Draft TVET Policy	Ghana	2004
4.	National Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Skills Development (TVETSD) Policy and Strategy	The Kingdom of Swaziland	2010
5.	Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education and Training (TEVET) Policy	Malawi	1998
6.	National Skills Development Strategy III	Republic of South Africa	2011
7.	Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TEVET)	Republic of Zambia	1996
8.	National Skills Development Policy (final draft)	Zimbabwe	2010
9.	Skills Development Policy	Bangladesh	2011
10.	National Skills Development Policy	India	2009
11.	Tertiary Education Strategy 2007 – 2012	New Zealand	
12.	National Policy Framework on Higher Education and Technical and Vocational Education	Sri Lanka	2009

Annex II: Comparison of contents of policy documents

Table I – Botswana, Zambia, Malawi and Swaziland

S.N.	Contents	Botswana	Zambia	Malawi	Swaziland
1	**Introduction and situation analysis** • **Socio -economic context** • **Linkages with other social, economic, education policies** • **Rationale for the policy**	1. Introduction • Scope of the National Policy on Vocational Education & Training • Socio-economic context • Overview of the current situation on training • Need for a National Policy on Vocational Education & Training	1. Introduction 2. Policy environment 3. Entrepreneurship development, self – employment and the informal sector	1. Introduction • Background • Rationale • Linkage with other relevant policies • Key challenges and barriers	1. Introduction • TVETSD vision • Process followed • Principles and values underpinning this policy 2. Problem statement and situational analysis • External efficiency and relevance of TVETSD provision • Access – equity and participation • Effectiveness of organisational and institutional arrangements • Quality of training • Financial sustainability and internal efficiency
2	**Vision, mission, Policy objectives, guiding principles, scope of the policy**	2. Vision statement, objectives and principles of the national policy on vocational education & training • Vision statement • Specific objectives • Main issues	4. TEVET philosophy and objective • Philosophy • Objectives of training	2. Broad policy directions • Vision • Mission • Principles • Overall goal • Objectives	3. Vision, principles and values underpinning the policy are part of Introduction section and mentioned above. 4. Rationale, overall policy goal and objectives • Rationale • Overall objective • Specific objectives/outcomes
3	**Policy areas**	3. The integrated national vocational education & training system • Framework of the integrated national vocational education & training system • Access & equity in vocational education & training • Links with formal education • Links with non-formal education • Curriculum design • Mode of delivery • Assessment methods • NVQF • Certification	5. Levels and objectives of training 6. Organisation and management 7. Inputs to the system • Technical management and training staff • Infrastructure, equipment and other requisites • Curriculum development • Monitoring and follow	3. Policy thematic areas	5. Key issues and policy statement • Limited external efficiency and relevance of TVETSD • Poor coordination, governance, organisational • Constrained access to TVETSD in terms of equity • Constrained access to TVETSD in terms of participation • Unsustainable financing of TVETSD • Lack of quality assurance • Lack of clear direction on the future of

		• Accreditation/validation 4. Teacher training & career development • Levels, types of training, and career paths 5. Financing • Current financing • Guiding principles for financing 6. Management and implementation • Coordination & management • Policy & planning • Coordination & implementation • Quality management / quality assurance • Enabling instruments • National Vocational Education & Training Act • National Vocational Education & Training regulations	up services 8. Financing		the pre-vocational programme • Lack of a technical and vocational education and training (TVET) institution in the country that offers degree programmes
4	**Implementation and evaluation mechanism for the policy**		9. Conclusion	4. Implementation arrangements • Institutional arrangements • Implementation plan • Risk identification 5. Monitoring and evaluation **6.** Review of policy	6. Guidelines for implementation • Institutional arrangements and collaboration • Monitoring and evaluating the TVETSD Policy • Indicators of the TVETSD Policy performance

Table II – Zimbabwe, Ethiopia, Ghana and South Africa

S.N.	Contents	Zimbabwe	Ethiopia	Ghana	S. Africa
1	**Introduction and situation analysis** • **Socio -economic context** • **Linkages with other social, economic, education policies** • **Rationale for the policy**	1. Introduction • Background • Need for NSDP • Inclusive consultation processes adopted in the development of NSDP 2. Historical overview and vocational education and training in Zimbabwe • Pre-colonial era TVET system • Colonial era TVET system • Post-colonial era TVET system o TVET curricula o Access to TVET o Funding and infrastructure o Staff and management of TVET o Monitoring and evaluation	1. Vision / Introduction • Context • Policy framework • Current state of TVET development	1. Context and need for TVET Policy • Socio-economic context • Education sector • TVET sub-sector • Weaknesses of TVET system • Strengths of TVET system • Imperatives	

		○ Guidance and counselling ○ Gender and marginalized groups ○ Conclusion 3. Challenges and priorities • Governance and management: The Legal framework • Financing National Skill Development • Curriculum development and assessment system • Institutional skill development ○ Access ○ Brain drain ○ Staffing ○ Student welfare ○ HIV/AIDS ○ Information systems ○ Infrastructure ○ Gender equity and marginalization • Priorities to be address			
2	**Vision, mission, policy objectives, guiding principles, scope of the policy**	• Vision • Mission • Overall goal • Policy objectives ○ Governance ○ Financing ○ Access / equity ○ Relevance ○ Development of the individual ○ Lifelong learning ○ Labour market information system • Scope of the policy	2. Objectives of the National TVET strategy 3. Guiding principles of the National TVET system • Demand-orientation • Quality and relevance • Equal access and equal opportunity • Pathways • Flexibility • Lifelong learning • Gender sensitivity • Contributing to the fight against HIV/AIDS • Contributing to environmental protection	2. Mission, principles, goals • Mission • Principles • Goals • Strategies and evaluative criteria	1. Vision 2. Mission 3. Purpose 4. Goals
3	**Policy areas**	4. Policies to be adopted • Governance and management structures ○ Policy making responsibility ○ Coordination and implementation function • Financing ○ Sources of financing ○ Incentives ○ Government financing ○ Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund (ZIMDEF) ○ Private sector financing ○ Social partners ○ Cost sharing	4. Conceptual principles of the TVET system • Making TVET institutions centres of technology capability accumulation & transfer • Aiming at a comprehensive and integrated TVET system • Stakeholders involvement • PPP • Outcome-based approach • Decentralization • Efficiency in the TVET system 5. Institution building for outcome-based TVET • Preparation of occupational standards	3. Improving efficiency and management of TVET system 4. Improving the trainability of workforce 5. Improving the training quality and relevance 6. Promoting productivity in agriculture through TVET 7. Building human resource for increased	• Establishing a creditable institutional mechanism for skill planning • Increasing access to occupationally-directed programmes • Promoting the growth of public FET college system that is responsive to sector, local, regional, and national skills needs and priorities • Addressing the low level of youth and adult language and numeracy skills to

		○ Student support ○ Revenue generation at institute level ○ Development partner financing ○ Resource allocation criteria • Curriculum development and assessment ○ Relevance ○ Stakeholder participation in curriculum development ○ Entrepreneurship ○ Qualifications framework ○ Assessment and certification ○ Courses and training arrangement ○ Research & development ○ ICT technologies ○ Linkage between general education and vocational and technical education • Institutional skill development ○ Access ○ Infrastructure ○ Equipment ○ Learning and teaching resources ○ Staffing ○ Staff development ○ Student health and welfare ○ Safety ○ HIV / AIDS ○ Management ○ Informal sector • Gender equity and marginalization ○ Persons with disability ○ Gender equity • Labour market (formal / informal) ○ Labour market information system ○ Apprenticeship (formal and informal) ○ Enterprise based training	• Occupational assessment and certification • TVET qualification framework 6. Developing flexible TVET delivery • Modularization as a principle of TVET delivery • Cooperative TVET delivery and apprenticeship training • TVET for self- employment • Introducing ICT in the TVET system • Vocational guidance and counselling 7. Building capacities in TVET institutions • Strengthening public TVET institutions • Strengthening private TVET institutions • Curriculum development and preparation of training, teaching and learning materials 8. Accreditation of TVET institutions 9. Human resource development for TVET staff • Initial and further training of TVET teachers and instructors • HRD for TVET management • Creating conducive work environment for TVET staff 10. Financing of TVET 11. TVET research, monitoring and evaluation • Building research capacities • Labour market monitoring and forecasting • MIS 12. Governance and management of the TVET system 13. Awareness creation about TVET 14. Managing International Cooperation	manufacturing and industrialization 8. Developing a world class workforce for the tourism and hospitality sector 9. Promoting productivity in the informal sector through TVET 10. Building capacity in ICT for global competitiveness 11. Promoting environmental sustainability concepts and practices in TVET 12. Establishing sustainable sources of funding for TVET	enable additional training • Encouraging better use of workplace-based skills development • Encouraging and sporting cooperatives, small enterprises, worker-initiated, NGO and community training initiatives • Increasing public sector capacity for improved service delivery and supporting the building of a developmental state • Building career and vocational guidance 5. The skills-levy institutions • SETAs • The National Skills Fund 6. Building partnership for a skills revolution
4	**Implementation and evaluation mechanism for the policy**		Monitoring and evaluation of TVET	**7.** Evaluation and conclusion	7. Implementation of NSDS III 8. Monitoring and evaluation

Table III – India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, New Zealand

S.N.	Contents	India	Bangladesh	Sri Lanka	New Zealand
1	**Introduction and situation analysis** • **Socio -economic context** • **Linkages with other social, economic, education policies** • **Rationale for the policy**	Preamble	• Introduction • Defining skills development		1. Introduction and context to the strategy
2	**Vision, mission, policy objectives, guiding principles, scope of the policy**	• Vision of the National Skill Development Initiative in India • The mission statement, aims and objectives	• Vision, mission & objectives • Demand-driven, flexible & responsive		
3	**Policy areas**	• Governance of skill development initiative • Expansion of outreach, equity and access • Quality and relevance • Skill development for the unorganized sector • Benchmarking of skill deficit and plan to achieve target by 2022 • Financing skill development • Responding to the future	• Nationally recognized qualification • Competency-based training & assessment • Programme providers quality assured • Strengthened role for industry sector in SD • Accurate skill and labour market data for planning & monitoring • Competent and certified instructors and trainers • Effective and flexible institutional management • Strengthened apprenticeships • Recognition of prior learning • Improved access for under-represented groups • Private training provision • Enhanced social status of TVET • Industry training & workforce development • Skill development for overseas employment • Financing • Implementation • Future Growth of the Sector	**Part one – Higher education** **Part two – Technical and vocational education** 1. Background 2. TVET sector: Economic and financial aspects 3. Image, effectiveness and employability 4. Human resource management 5. Linking different educational and vocational qualifications **Part three – Quality assurance, assessment and accreditation; career guidance and counselling** 1. Quality assurance and accreditation in higher education 2. Career guidance and counselling	2. The new tertiary education system 3. Expected contributions of the tertiary education • Success for all New Zealanders through lifelong learning • Creating and applying knowledge to drive innovation • Strong connections between tertiary education organisations and the communities they serve 4. Tertiary education: priority outcomes • Increasing educational success by young New Zealanders – more achieving qualifications at level four and above by age 25 • Increasing literacy, numeracy and language levels for the workforce • Increasing the achievement of advanced trade, technical and professional qualifications to meet regional and national industry needs • Improving research connections and linkages to create economic opportunities
4	**Implementation and evaluation mechanism for the policy**		• Monitoring & evaluation		• Monitoring and evaluation

Annex- III: Vision and mission statements

Country	Vision	Mission
Botswana	The realization of the full potential of Botswana's human resource and to meet the current and future needs of the individual, the economy and society through the provision of a national vocational education and training system.	
Ethiopia	Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in Ethiopia seeks to create competent and self-reliant citizens to contribute to the economic and social development of the country, thus improving the livelihoods of all Ethiopians and sustainably reducing poverty.	
Ghana		The mission of Ghana's TVET system is to improve the productivity and competitiveness of the skilled workforce and raise the income-earning capacities of the people, especially women and low-income groups, through the provision of quality-oriented industry-focused and competency-based training programmes and complementary services.
Swaziland	To develop a quality, relevant and sustainable TVETSD system as an integral part of the social and economic strategy for the Kingdom of Swaziland.	The provision of a market-driven quality technical and vocational education and training system in the context of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) through competency-based education and training, cognizant of prior learning for all, inclusive of the socio-economically disadvantaged, unemployed, special target groups, and incorporating gender sensitivity.
Malawi	A competitive skilled and productive workforce.	To contribute to personal development and respond to labour market demands by providing technical, entrepreneurial and vocational education and training for both wage and self-employment.
South Africa	A skilled and capable workforce that shares in, and contributes to, the benefits and opportunities of economic expansion and an inclusive growth path.	To increase access to high-quality and relevant education and training and skill development opportunities, including workplace learning and experience, to enable effective participation in the economy and society by all South Africans and reduce inequalities.

Country	Vision	Mission
Zambia		TEVET system will aim: • To balance the supply of skilled labour at all levels with the demands of the economy • To act as a vehicle for improved productivity and income generation; and • To be an instrument for the minimization of inequalities among the people.
Zimbabwe	Realization of the full potential of Zimbabwe's human resources, with world-class skills for increased productivity, individual empowerment and economic competitiveness on the global market.	To provide relevant skills to individuals for sustainable economic development and self-fulfilment through a system which is accessible, equitable, inclusive, financially sustainable, responsive to technological developments, includes entrepreneurship and involves all stakeholders.
Bangladesh	Skills development in Bangladesh will be recognised and supported by the Government and industry as a coordinated and well-planned strategy for national and enterprise development. The reformed skills development system will empower all individuals to access decent employment and ensure Bangladesh's competitiveness in the global market through improved skills, knowledge and qualifications that are recognised for quality across the globe.	The mission of the skills development system in Bangladesh is to support rapid and inclusive economic growth through: • Enhancing individuals' employability (in wage/self-employment) and ability to adapt to changing technologies and labour markets; • Improving the productivity and profitability of enterprises; and • Strengthening national competitiveness and reducing poverty.
India	**Scale of ambition –** At present the capacity of skill development in India is around 3.1 million persons per year. The Eleventh Five Year Plan envisions an increase in that capacity to 15 million annually. Thus, there is a need for increasing capacity and capability of skill development programmes. **High inclusivity –** The skill development initiatives will harness inclusivity and reduce divisions such as male/female, urban/rural, organized/unorganized employment and traditional/contemporary workplace. **Dynamic and demand-based system planning –** The skill development initiative supports the supply of trained workers, who are adjustable dynamically to the changing demands of employment and technologies. This policy will promote excellence and will meet the requirements of knowledge economy. **Choice, competition and accountability –** The skill	The National Skill Development Initiative will empower all individuals through improved skills, knowledge, nationally and internationally recognized qualifications to gain access to decent employment and ensure India's competitiveness in the global market.

Country	Vision	Mission
	development initiative does not discriminate between private and public delivery and places importance on outcomes, users' choice and competition among training providers and their accountability. **Policy coordination and coherence –** The skill development initiative supports employment generation, economic growth and social development processes. The SDP will be an integral part of comprehensive economic, labour and social policies and programmes. A framework for better coordination among various ministries, states, industry and other stakeholders will be established.	
New Zealand		• Success for all New Zealanders through life-long learning • Creating and applying knowledge to drive innovation • Strong connections between tertiary education organisations and the communities they serve
Sri Lanka		• Improving the quality and relevance of programmes • Increasing enrolment at TVET institutions • Improving operational and managerial efficiency at TVET institutions

Annex-IV: Consultative process followed by Zimbabwe and Swaziland

Zimbabwe:
The policy was developed through a highly consultative process involving all stakeholders. A technical committee, comprising senior representatives of concerned ministries, employers' and workers' organisations, international development organisations, training providers, experts, student/youth organisations, women organisations, SME/informal sector organisations and handicapped persons organisations, was constituted, with the responsibility for situation analysis, drafting and validating policy documents from all stakeholders and submitting to the Government for approval.

First of all, a detailed situational analysis of the skills development system was done to find its relevance to labour market demands and identify challenges. The report was validated through a stakeholders' workshop. The findings of the situation analysis were used to inform and influence key players at all levels in the development of the policy.

A stakeholders' workshop was held to discuss vision, mission, objectives and policy areas, principles based on the outline for the policy framework provided by the Technical Committee. A task force then drafted the NSDP, which was discussed in a number of meetings of the technical committee. The draft NSDP was validated in a stakeholders' workshop and then submitted for consideration and approval of the Government.

Swaziland:
The policy development was a consultative process and a joint effort of key stakeholders nationally and in the Southern African sub-region. National consultations involved a wide range of representatives from the Government and other key stakeholders. Government representatives came from three key ministries, namely: Ministry of Education and Training, Ministry of Labour and Social Security, and Ministry of Public Service. There have been representatives from employers, employees, post-primary schools, training institutions (formal and non-formal), non-governmental organisations, as well as from international organisations, including UNESCO – UNEVOC, the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the African Union (AU), and the ILO. The consultations have taken diverse forms, including: benchmarking in the sub-region, a comprehensive sub-sector analysis for providing baseline data, workshops and meetings; all aimed at soliciting for ideas and as well as getting feedback to inform the policy development.

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