



ADULT EDUCATION IN SOUTHEAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT AND SUPPORT MODELS TOWARDS LIFELONG LEARNING

EDITED BY HERIBERT HINZEN & JOACHIM H. KNOLL



Sponsored by



Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development



This book is adapted from the English translation of texts that appeared in “Bildung und Erziehung”, 4 / 2011.

“Bildung und Erziehung” is a major German journal on educational sciences, being established already 65 years ago. It has a strong bearing on the wide sector of education, learning, and training, with an emphasis on comparative and international aspects.

The journal is published by a board of academics and professors of a diverse range of subjects, and several universities.

Boehlau Verlag GmbH & Cie, Koeln, Weimar, Wien is the publishing house. Further information www.boehlau-verlag.com

This English version is published by *dvv international* through its Regional Office for South and South East Asia.

dvv international is the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (DVV). Education is a universal human right. The promotion of the development through cooperation in youth and adult education is the aim of *dvv international*. To support women and gender equality in literacy and vocational training are priorities of non-formal education in the Lao PDR. The Regional Office of *dvv international* for South and South East Asia is based in the Lao German Development Cooperation framework, and operates from Vientiane.

The English version has been organized by Laura Salomons while being an intern in *dvv international* office in Vientiane. She has prepared the layout, designed the cover, and included the texts and abstracts which were translated for Lao language by Khanthong Inthachack, for Khmer by Lay Vutha, and for English by Mathias Pfeifer and Laura Salomons.

Earlier English editions of German versions of *Bildung und Erziehung* were published by *dvv international* in its series INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN ADULT EDUCATION as

- Migration and Integration as a Topic of Adult and Continuing Education and
- Adult Education and Continuing Education Policy: Science in between Society and Politics

both edited by Heribert Hinzen and Joachim H. Knoll

For more information: www.dvv-international.la

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The contents are the sole responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of *dvv international*.

This publication has been financed by *dvv international*.

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Heribert Hinzen/Joachim H. Knoll

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ADULT EDUCATION IN SOUTHEAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Introduction to the issue

The results of a survey commissioned by the Körber Foundation have been recently published under the title “Perceptions of Asia by the German elite”. The survey, conducted in April and May 2011 by Emind, covered 405 “leading media, academia, politics (among them 62 Members of the Bundestag) and business representatives”.¹ Some of the results are taken up here in order to underline the relevance and dimensions of our special issue.

The survey reveals:

- “...German elites feel comparatively well-informed about developments in the Far East, even better than the situation in Eastern Europe.
- The rise of Asia is considered a chance for Germany. Asia’s export markets, trade partners and financially powerful investors as well as purchasers of corporate and government bonds are of great importance. However, Asia is also considered a key greenhouse-gas emitter and a competitor in the exploitation of dwindling resources.
- In future, China will play by far the most important role for Germany and Europe, economically and politically. India and Japan, by contrast, are only of secondary importance, while Indonesia is hardly perceived as a significant factor.
- ...With increasing wealth Asia becomes more democratic.
- Partnership-based cooperation with Asia is considered necessary in order to tackle global challenges, such as climate change

and financial market stability...

- Europe should respond to the rise of Asia, i.e. pursue closer cooperation with Asian countries as well as stronger diplomatic commitment...
- Germany should rely on a common European Union policy towards Asia..."

In the following, the focus will not rest on impressions and realities of high-level politics. Rather, it is attempted to give a clearer picture of development cooperation in the area, and how to access information about regions and countries which have received little attention so far, thus raising our awareness of the situation there, in terms of economic development and education policies. It is shown how educational science and education policy in the framework of the 'Millennium Development Goals' (United Nations summit 2000) and the 'Education for All' goals (World Education Forum, Dakar, 2000) can contribute to reducing global poverty.²

The position of education within development cooperation remains disputed, both on the side of donor institutions and donor countries. At least rhetorically education has been considered important and even a key to development, as it renders possible the full realisation of other development sectors. The *de facto* low priority given to education, on the other hand, is apparent when taking its low shares of respective budget allocations into account.

Youth and adult education has been particularly low on the priority setting due to the strong competition with other development sectors. It is important to note, however, that the UNESCO International Conferences on Adult Education (CONFINTEA) brought forward certain arguments for national discussions. The 'Agenda for the Future', for instance, adopted in 1997 at the CONFITEA V in Hamburg, reflects how wide and deep the understanding of adult

education within the lifelong learning framework has already developed.³

In the field of adult education, in the context of scientific debates, and through lobby associations – in Germany first and foremost the German Adult Education Association (DVV) –, there has been no shortage of attempts to present to the public how adult education as a discipline as well as in practice has already penetrated the realms of social inclusion, environmental and health education, language training, literacy and basic education, migration and integration, and conflict prevention. Information about these new terrains of adult education was further disseminated to the public in the context of the 13th German Adult Education Conference in 2011.⁴

Currently, a revision of tasks within the development cooperation sector is discernible. Strategies are being discussed that point towards greater consideration of education, especially through the lifelong learning model. When lifelong learning is understood as an “educational chain”, as outlined in an early ‘Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education’ by the UNESCO, where every link of the chain is connected, and at the same time, is an entity in itself, then the education sectors (chain links) primary education, secondary education, the tertiary education sector (higher education) and quaternary education sector (adult education), have to be considered as a whole. This in turn has to be reflected in the respective funding policies. Inasmuch as we correctly grasp the new strategies for the development cooperation, this is precisely the course embarked upon. Some reservations and critical views in this respect are presented in this issue by Joachim H. Knoll.

The German parliament has adopted a pioneering role in this process. In the resolution of the German Bundestag “Strengthening Education in Developing and Countries in Transition – Adjusting

and Increasing Effectiveness of Education Measures”, from 15 June 2010, it is argued at the outset that “Germany is reliant to consider education as a central aspect of its foreign and development policy and to shape it in future”. It follows a detailed review of the various programmes, which have been launched during the last decade but failed to lead to the anticipated success and outcomes. The full range of education sectors and tasks are mentioned that are to make contributions to development cooperation, spanning from primary and secondary education, vocational training, higher education and research, teacher training and literacy. In the final chapter, 44 requirements are listed, which are deemed necessary to ensure improved education cooperation.⁵

The Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) has started to integrate the parliamentary resolution into the strategy paper “Ten Goals for Education. BMZ Education Strategy 2010-2013.” A draft is prepared and expected to be adopted in autumn 2011. The two opening chapters, “Key to Development: Education” and “Our Guiding Principle: Lifelong Learning” indicate clearly the priorities to be set.⁶ It is to be hoped that the education experts can also exert their influence when it comes to budget allocations.

On the international level, it is again the World Bank that takes the lead. The documents “Educational Strategy 2020” and “Learning for All” stress the importance of education and lifelong learning, and somewhat more hesitantly, youth and adult education as important means to poverty reduction. These areas have to receive more attention in development policy in order to interlock socio-structural reform and educational aid. Recently, on 24 August 2011, the “Education For All – Fast Track Initiative”, under the umbrella of the World Bank, has been changed into the “Global Partnership for Education”, which is likely to have consequences, in terms of its strategy and content.⁷

To sum up, a high degree of current relevance of the topic is discernible at two levels: a) the importance of Asia in the eyes of the German elites, and b) as an outlook on all forms of lifelong learning in the development cooperation.

Closer examination of the topic:

Only in the 1980s did adult education in Southeast Asia and the Pacific become a subject of discussion in the German (adult) educational science and comparative education. The research by Peter Failer on Malaysia (Cologne 1981) marks the starting point, and, at the same time, reminds us to avoid sweeping generalisations of the region. Differences in terms of social structure, forms of government, language, and religion between countries like India and Laos, Cambodia and the Philippines, or the Solomon Islands and New Zealand, are profound and often unbridgeable. Meanwhile, recognised adult education policies and practice has developed in the Asian region – not least because of the longstanding cooperation and the many joint initiatives of the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (*dvv international*) and the Asian South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE). Asia is thus on its way to play an important role in the international adult education arena. ASPBAE may be considered as the brother or sister of the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA). Founded in 1964 and 1953, respectively, both associations made decisive contributions to the establishment of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) in 1973.⁸ The subtitle of this issue – *System Development and Support Models Towards Lifelong* – as well as the emphasis on youth and adult education in the context of international education and development goals, symbolised by MDG, CONFINTEA and EFA, are hence justified.

Returning to the start of this discussion, it is worthwhile to closer examine one important process that has already captured the elites, but which needs to place more attention on some sectors of the education and development cooperation fields: the ASEM process, acronym for the Asia-Europe Meeting. In the beginning, ASEM exclusively covered member states of the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the EU. Although the comparison should not be taken too far, certain similarities to the European Economic Community, the predecessor of the EU, are evident, such as the common initial focus on economic issues. However, just as with the European Economic Community, this has changed rapidly. Structural tasks and the goals of common foreign and education policies are at the centre of debates. It is therefore not surprising that the ASEM process deepens and widens, and non-EU states such as Russia, or non-ASEAN states like China and India, as well as countries in the Pacific like Australia and New Zealand, have already joined ASEM. The Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) finances the ASEM Education Secretariat and has placed it in the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD).⁹ It is essential that youth and adult education gains recognition in the ASEM process, while vocational education, qualification frameworks, and lifelong learning are already being considered and are not in need of more advocacy and lobbying efforts.

This issue is organised in the following manner: First, Joachim H. Knoll discusses adult education and lifelong learning in the context of global debates on education, development, and the various international policy agendas, from UNESCO and CONFINTEA to EFA and MDGs. Special attention is given to the situation in Germany, where education and social structure as well as government, church and civil society initiatives are important aspects of development policy.

A content analysis of *Bildung und Erziehung* would bring to light to what extent the Asia Pacific region has been covered so far. In this issue, two articles alone focus on this region, partly due to ASPBAE's interest and engagement there.¹⁰ Sandy Morrison and Timote Violeti, both from the University of New Zealand, show that education processes closely related to concepts of lifelong learning exist in traditional cultures. Both authors have a special interest in the topic due to their indigenous backgrounds. The article on the Solomon Islands from Louise Ellerton, Bernie Lovegrove and Joanna Lindner is highly interesting as it introduces the results of a comprehensive empirical survey that reveals important insights. The findings indicate a failure in achieving expected high literacy rates despite all the progress made during the past decades.

Thus, adult literacy is going to remain a global challenge. The circulating figure of 750 million to 1 billion illiterates or semi-literates seems incredibly high. Most of these people live in South Asia, which is why it is interesting to cast a glance at new approaches in adult literacy research and practice in selected countries of this region, presented by Mathias Pfeifer.

Thomas Bohlmann examines vocational teacher training in Laos, and puts it into context of vocational training in general as well as labour market developments. Surrounded by China, Vietnam, Cambodia, Thailand, and Myanmar, Laos faces immense influences, emanating for instance from the labour markets of its neighbours or vocational training programmes of international development agencies. The article discusses empirical data, collected in the framework of a tracer study, indicating the career paths and attitudes of those trained to become vocational training teachers.

In the final chapter, Heribert Hinzen takes up some issues from Joachim H. Knoll's article. Through his dissertation on 'Adult Education and Development in Tanzania' he has made contributions to the discussion on education and development since the 1970s. And

since 1977 he works for the German Adult Education Associations in the field of international cooperation. His article illuminates the historical background of *dvv international* and the origins of its engagement in Asia. Furthermore, he focuses on the establishment of the *dvv international* Regional Office in Vientiane, Laos, and its work there, as well as the new start in Cambodia, and the exchange with countries in the region. It is outlined that the process of regional integration taking place is a key force in setting topics and standards. *dvv international*, embedded in the German and international education and development cooperation, plays a role in shaping this process.

Notes

- 1 Das Asienbild deutscher Eliten, Körber-Stiftung, Hamburg 2011, 4 f; data set available in German language on www.koerber-stiftung.de/studie-asienbild.
- 2 See websites of MDGs: www.un.org/millenniumgoals and EFA: www.unesco.org/efareport.
- 3 See UNESCO, Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education, Nairobi 1975, Paris 1976, and www.unesco.org/en/confinteavi
- 4 See Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband (Hrsg.): Die Volkshochschule – Bildung in öffentlicher Verantwortung, Bonn 2011; and www.volkshochschultag.de.
- 5 See Deutscher Bundestag: Antrag der Abgeordneten Anette Hübinger etc.: Bildung in Entwicklungs- und Schwellenländern stärken – Bildungsmassnahmen anpassen und wirksamer gestalten. Drucksache 17/2134, 16.6.2010.
- 6 See BMZ: Zehn Ziele für Bildung. BMZ Bildungsstrategie 2010-2013. Bonn, 1.3.2011, (Draft).
- 7 The World Bank, Education Strategy 2020, 12., 4. 2011; www.the.worldbank.org-education.
- 8 See websites of ASPBAE: www.aspbae.org; EAEA: www.eaea.org; and ICAE: www.icae.org.uy and www.aworldworthlivingin.se.

- 9 See about ASEM the documents at: <http://aseminfoboard.org>; and for education: www.asem-education-secretariat.org.
- 10 See Maria Khan: Coping with Regional Challenges: The Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE). In: Lifelong Learning in Europe, 4, 2010, 207-214.

Joachim H. Knoll

THE CONTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION AND ADULT EDUCATION TO *SOCIAL IMPROVEMENT* AS PART OF DEVELOPMENT POLICY

Summary: The article examines whether and to what extent priority should be given in development policy to an up-to-date, applied understanding of “adult education” (or “adult and continuing education”, ACE). Many projects employing adult education skills are still being delivered under the title of “social improvement” or “social structural reform”. An up-to-date interpretation of adult education includes areas and subjects which have until very recently been regarded as belonging to other branches of education and the social sciences (such as environmental education, minority policy, intercultural dialogue, labour market policy and health education). Even in many international publications, “education” is restricted to formal basic education (EFA), vocational education and higher education, which does not accord with the concept of lifelong learning. The article argues that a broad perception of the term “adult education” should be used in development policy.

ສະຫຼຸບ: ບົດຄວາມບົດນີ້ໄດ້ວິເຄາະວ່ານະໂຍບາຍການພັດທະນາຄວນໄດ້ຮັບບຸລິມະສິດຫຼາຍໜ້ອຍປານໃດ ແລະ ນຳໃຊ້ຄວາມເຂົ້າໃຈທາງດ້ານການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ (ຫຼື ການສຶກສາຂອງຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ ແລະ ການສຶກສາແບບຕໍ່ເນື່ອງທີ່ມີຕົວຫຍໍ້ວ່າ ACE). ໂຄງການທີ່ນຳໃຊ້ທັກສະຈາກການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ຫຼາຍໆໂຄງການຍັງຄົງດຳເນີນໄປພາຍໃຕ້ຫົວຂໍ້ທີ່ວ່າ: “ການປັບປຸງສັງຄົມ” ຫຼື “ການປະຕິຮູບໂຄງສ້າງທາງສັງຄົມ”. ການອະທິ ບາຍທີ່ໄດ້ຮັບການປັບປຸງຕະຫຼອດໃນເລື່ອງການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ລວມມີ ບັນດາສາຂາແລະ ບັນດາລາຍວິຊາທີ່ນອນໃນສາຂາອື່ນໆໃນລະບົບການສຶກສາ ແລະ ສາຍວິທະຍາສາດ ສັງຄົມ (ເຊັ່ນວ່າ: ການສຶກສາເລື່ອງສິ່ງແວດລ້ອມ,

ນະໂຍບາຍຊົນເຜົ່າ, ການໂອ້ລົມ ສົນທະນາຂອງຊົນເຜົ່າຕ່າງໆ, ນະໂຍບາຍຕະຫຼາດແຮງງານ ແລະ ການສຶກສາທາງດ້ານສຸຂະພາບ). ແມ່ແຕ່ຢູ່ໃນການຕີພິມ ຂອງວາລະສານຕ່າງໆປະເທດຫຼາຍໆສຳນັກ, ຄຳວ່າ: “ການສຶກສາ” ແມ່ນຖືກກວດກາມົດ ໃຫ້ເປັນການສຶກສາໃນລະບົບໂຮງຮຽນ,ການສຶກສາແບບວິຊາຊີບ ແລະ ການສຶກສາຊັ້ນສູງທີ່ບໍ່ສອດຄ່ອງກັບແນວຄວາມຄິດຂອງການຮຽນຮູ້ຕະຫຼອດຊີວິດ. ບົດຄວາມ ນີ້ໄດ້ໃຫ້ຂໍ້ໂຕ້ຖຽງວ່າຄວນຈະມີການເຜີຍແຜ່ ຫຼື ນຳໃຊ້ຄວາມເຂົ້າໃຈໃຫ້ແກ່ຫຼາຍ ຄຳວ່າ “ການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່” ເຂົ້າໃສ່ນະໂຍບາຍທາງດ້ານການພັດທະນາ.

ສູ່ບ ະ ສຖຸບອນນີ້ ຄຳສັບທີ່ເຫັນເປັນໂຕຢ່າງທີ່ເປັນກຳລັງກຳລັງ ມີຄວາມສຳຄັນ ແລະ ມີຄວາມສຳຄັນ ໃນການສຶກສາ ທາງດ້ານສຸຂະພາບ ແລະ ການສຶກສາ ຊັ້ນສູງທີ່ບໍ່ສອດຄ່ອງກັບແນວຄວາມຄິດຂອງການຮຽນຮູ້ຕະຫຼອດຊີວິດ. ບົດຄວາມ ນີ້ໄດ້ໃຫ້ຂໍ້ໂຕ້ຖຽງວ່າຄວນຈະມີການເຜີຍແຜ່ ຫຼື ນຳໃຊ້ຄວາມເຂົ້າໃຈໃຫ້ແກ່ຫຼາຍ ຄຳວ່າ “ການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່” ເຂົ້າໃສ່ນະໂຍບາຍທາງດ້ານການພັດທະນາ.

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នៃពាក្យថា “ការអប់រំមនុស្សពេញវ័យ” គួរត្រូវបានយកមកប្រើប្រាស់ នៅក្នុងគោល
នយោបាយអភិវឌ្ឍន៍។

Definition and content of social improvement

It is apparent that there are problems with the funding guidelines for development cooperation (DC) in areas such as support for social improvement, particularly with regard to the role and share accorded to education, and specifically to *adult education*. The chief difficulty is that there is no one academic discipline that can claim to cover the entire field since social improvement embraces all circumstances and conditions of life, and all fields of human activity. This is further complicated by the fact that DC is expected to fulfil a number of tasks including, most importantly, helping to combat and reduce poverty, even though poverty is not defined solely in terms of absence of the material means of existence.

We shall not delve further here into the question of who is entitled to lay down a definitive interpretation, which means that we shall not ask in detail which discipline has the means best suited to delivering structural reform. It is generally accepted, in the funding guidelines issued by the Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) among others, that efforts to remodel the social structure involve a set of reforms that cut across a range of disciplines and include practical knowledge of everyday life; the social sciences, adult education, economics, cultural and social anthropology all play their part, and all adopt an approach to academic knowledge in which knowledge is invariably action-oriented. “Pure “ academic knowledge, as it is found in universities, cannot

be applied unchanged to DC; it needs to be adapted to the specific field of DC and to be used practically.

That said, the social sciences, including sociology, have made a major contribution to the discussion of social structure in recent years, about which something will be said here by way of introduction, although we shall not attempt a definitive overview.

It is easy to agree with Wolfgang ZAPF that: “By social structure we mean the basic demographic division of the population into categories, the distribution of central resources such as education, income and employment, social classes, social milieus and life styles, and the social determination of pathways through life from generation to generation” (1989).

However, a distinction should be made between a macrosociological interpretation relating to “organisations, groups and institutions” and a microsociological based on the “interwoven patterns of relationships between actors in terms of the roles that they play”.¹

An analysis of social structure which makes it possible to draw up plans and forecasts must therefore make use of indicators such as those listed in the same publication:

- Population,
- Families and households,
- Education and training,
- Income and gainful employment.

For the purposes of social improvement, the analysis also has to have particular regard to:

- Religious and denominational allegiance,
- Minorities and the indigenous population,
- Climatic conditions,
- Migration and remigration, etc.

An analysis that is capable of delivering improvement needs to be based on indicators such as these, drawn from different areas of research. In our context, I consider it useful also to look at more detailed social structure analysis², because DC often takes place in decentralised structures and contexts. However, the analysis must not degenerate into analysis for its own sake; instead, its findings must be used as the starting point for reform in clearly defined areas.

What is immediately apparent here and elsewhere is the complexity of the social structure and of the process of reforming it.³ It will involve education and adult education, although there are a wide variety of ways of setting about it. It is this breadth and variety which give rise to the constant assertions that DC partners need to *form consortia* and to *cooperate*, which ought to be prefaced by the admission that none of them can do everything. Confidence in one's own competence and willingness to welcome the contributions of others need to go hand in hand.

Funding guidelines and the aims of social improvement

In official statements published in various places⁴, the *Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development* (BMZ) describes the origins of its funding policy in the context of its international obligations and commitments, and sets out its guidelines and present emphases. In doing so, the BMZ relies particularly on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) agreed at a United Nations summit attended by 189 heads of state and government in 2000. The Declaration adopted at that meeting, which was intended to usher in a “global partnership for development”, sets out first of all four programmatic fields for international policy action:

- Peace, security and disarmament

- Development and poverty reduction
- Protection of the shared environment
- Human dignity, democracy and good governance.

At subsequent conferences (World Population Conference, World Conference on Women, World Summit on Sustainable Development), the task of poverty reduction was placed at the top of the agenda of international development as a cross-cutting priority. Eight Millennium Development Goals emerged from the Declaration issued in 2000, clarifying and operationalising it:

1. To halve the proportion of the world population living in extreme poverty and hunger
2. To provide primary education for all children
3. To promote gender equality and empower women
4. To reduce child mortality
5. To improve maternal health
6. To combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other contagious diseases
7. To ensure environmental sustainability
8. To develop a global partnership for development.

As is customary with the UN and its affiliated organisations such as UNESCO, these goals were given a date by which they were to be achieved, namely 2015. It is obvious that this target date is almost certainly unrealistic, given the broad range of goals set, and the severe economic and monetary crisis, and that the goals will have to be constantly rescheduled, or at least that they will not be achieved swiftly.

At the same time, we need to bear in mind that the goals cannot be altered now that they are laid down, and that there is no point in proposing or discussing priorities other than those relating to poverty reduction. The goals set out above plainly demonstrate that social improvement aimed primarily at poverty reduction calls for

problem-solving strategies from a variety of areas of life and academic research.

The BMZ talks of around 60 indicators that describe the “minimum requirements for a dignified human existence”. Hence funding is to be directed chiefly at projects and programmes

- “which directly and sustainably improve the economic, social and ecological situation of impoverished groups of the population in partner countries,
- effectively support the self-help efforts of such groups
- and involve them as partners in planning and execution”.⁵

Stress is laid repeatedly on the idea that combating poverty is to be seen as “a task that cuts across all areas of policy and [is] the overarching purpose of German development policy”, and that the MDGs are necessarily based on a “multidimensional understanding of poverty”.⁶

At first sight, the emphasis and the stages in this process appear to differ in some of the statements made by international organisations outside the United Nations itself, and in the academic discourse on development policy. However, they do not depart fundamentally from the mainstream MDGs.

Arguments for funding education and adult education

We observe, for example:

- that UNESCO in particular links poverty reduction with basic education and literacy, in a broader sense with the Education for All (EFA) programme, and ultimately with the development of a democratic civil society⁷,

- that the EU supports and consistently stresses projects that are connected with vocational education and training (VET)⁸, and
- that in Germany the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) did not place much emphasis on education at the World Conference on Sustainable Education (31 March to 2 April 2009 in Bonn), although phrases such as “education and research strengthen democracy”, “education is the crucial key to sustainable well-being” and “education must be given worldwide priority” stand out in the opening speech.⁹

However, there is no need to worry overmuch about this any more than about the literature produced on the topic, which acknowledges that education and *adult education* do contribute to socio-cultural reform. The only reason for concern is that the BMZ has not as yet named “*education*” and “*adult education*” specifically as grounds for providing support. Nonetheless, education and adult education do have a place as instruments of development policy in the measures actually funded.

There may be two reasons for the reluctance to use the terms education and adult education: first because the funding guidelines are underpinned by skills and language taken from the social sciences, and secondly because education and adult education have often been unconvincing in recent years in their social utility, as Plessner has called it. This is no doubt connected with the question of who is entitled to “lay down a definitive interpretation” and with the inward-looking thinking within academic disciplines. Even today, the traditions of the social sciences and of education are still remote from one another in many ways. And while this continuing argument should not be specifically called “German” (10), we are naturally particularly concerned with the German debate. In my own experience, the erstwhile Advisory Board of the “Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Associa-

tion” (IIZ/DVV) was disturbed to see that the topics and areas for action headed *Education* in funding policy and in lists of development activities no longer gave adult/continuing education the undisputed priority that it had long enjoyed.

There is an obvious link with the mistaken notion of education that derives from the neo-humanistic tradition of anti-utilitarianism.¹¹ This perception of the tasks and functions of education stresses the narrow pedagogical remit of activities in schools (pre-school, primary and secondary education) and out-of-school provision (youth work and adult/continuing education).

When seen in terms of practice as well as theory, adult education should rather be taken to mean:

1. applied activities and the application of academic knowledge¹²,
2. a broad interpretation of fields of educational activity, e.g. provision in service and media establishments and in development work concerned with the social structure,
3. interdisciplinarity in that there is now greater willingness in adult education, as its field of competence expands, to act as a mediator and to enter into dialogue with other subjects and functional areas.

The international debate on “education (or learning) throughout life” (or lifelong learning), which extends from E. Faure (1972) to J. Delors (1998) and still continues, resulted in ten broad functional areas being allocated to adult education at CONFINTEA V (Hamburg 1997). These include:

- *Environmental education,*
- *Migration and minority policies,*
- *Health education and population policy,*
- *Rehabilitation*
- *Labour market policy.*

This was a reflection not just of a desire to expand, but also of the reality of development work (as is evident in the journal “Adult Education and Development” published by IIZ/DVV).

The broad definition of the term poverty, and the applied orientation of the academic study of education pleaded for at the beginning of this paper and stressed thereafter, are confirmed by such statements. That is not to deny that the educational sciences, and especially the study of adult education, frequently push their applied orientation aside and neglect their duty to serve the needs of society. They should indeed adopt the view expressed in the official statement issued by the 33 countries of the pan-European UNESCO Region: “We reaffirm the importance of adult learning in enabling people to deal with economic and social change, to participate actively in civil society, to foster cultural action and to enrich their lives.”¹³

A number of non-governmental organisations working in development cooperation have come together to form the *Social Improvement Network* (Arbeitsgemeinschaft Sozialstruktur, AGS) and have agreed a cooperation model that recognises their different areas of competence.¹⁴ This commits them primarily to four goals of DC:

- To combat poverty worldwide
- To secure peace and democratisation
- To deliver globalisation with justice
- To protect the environment.

The International Institute of the DVV, which is a member of AGS, defines its understanding and practice of DC in the following *general principles*:

- It promotes the worldwide exchange of information and expertise on adult education and development,

- It provides support for the establishment and development of adult education institutions in developing countries and countries in transition,
- It provides in-service training, advice and media for global and intercultural education.

The actual work on the ground, which we cannot describe in detail here, is spelt out in more specific core thematic areas in a more recent summary¹⁵:

- Basic education and literacy: functional youth and adult literacy work; non-formal and out-of-school provision; teaching of personal and social skills – found in the majority of projects,
- Compensatory education for adults: later than usual acquisition of school-leaving qualifications, young people with no school education and drop-outs, second-chance provision to prepare for and support vocational training – usually found in urban educational provision,
- Environmental education and sustainable development: teaching of practical ecological knowledge; improvement of the living environment – including planting of trees and use of alternative technologies,
- Health education and AIDS: information and education about diet, hygiene and various diseases – recognised training of people to care for AIDS sufferers and information campaigns,
- Empowerment and gender mainstreaming: specific educational provision for women, from encouragement of participation and support for women’s groups to the cross-cutting task of greater gender justice,
- Human rights and democratisation: information on personal, social and political human rights; promotion of participation by disadvantaged groups – and hence strengthening of democratically based civil society,

- Conflict management and crisis prevention: clarification of economic and social causes and religious and ethnic background; support and advice for approved NGOs...
- Employment and career guidance: in many projects, employment and career guidance are of particular importance...

Scarcely any other international NGO sees social improvement as implying such a broad spectrum of educational activities within DC as IIZ/DVV. However, two factors should be borne in mind:

- First, money generates new areas of activity that may lie outside the area of competence and immediate interest – we know this from the funding provided by the BMBF within Germany,
- And secondly, the parameters of the Western perception of democracy based on political parties need to be examined carefully and possibly modified in political education (or better: civic education) where there are deep social divisions and non-plural traditions (as in Afghanistan). More certainly needs to be done in this field than merely reiterating one's own certainties. That applies to all partners within DC and elsewhere.

Suggestions for the formal improvement and expansion of DC activities

Social improvement has to start from the notion of *sustainability*, which means in this case that the reform process is ongoing and never ends – this means “rolling reform”, with no immediate end in sight to DC. Work must therefore be guided by the notion of *flexibility*, that is, it must be capable of reacting to changing demands, challenges and needs which cannot be captured in fixed curricula. And lastly, attention must be paid to the principle of *diversity by de-*

sign, as adopted in the most recent UNESCO programmes, using a term coined many years ago in a US paper on reform; this means that there can be no question of merely transferring or harmonising reform measures.

These three principles, *sustainability*, *flexibility* and *diversity*, will need to be constant elements of the following suggestions if they are to be practicable:

1. Greater *self-evaluation* and *documentation*. This implies the development of a *self-evaluation* model of the curriculum (learning units and modules) in every long-term programme. This does not apply of course to one-off events and projects. But these do require an *efficiency check* based on valid principles, the *documentation* of recurrent learning, including teaching and learning materials, the *exchange* of materials among those involved in DC once they have been devised, and enhancement of *continuing education statistics* in the relevant region.
2. This already lengthy list of core requirements probably needs to be expanded to include the following additional *thematic areas*:
 - *Practical issues relating to population policy* – including relevant demographic factors, structures of urbanisation and neighbourliness, and continuing education deficits in major urban ‘agglomerations’ (mega-cities in Asia, Latin America and Africa),
 - *Global and regional aspects of social and economic policy* – including general information about savings, households, overall functioning and crisis situations, micro funding for small enterprises, unemployment, the social state and social justice,
 - *Environmental education*, with increased attention to the natural resources available and the exploitation of resources (water, land and air).¹⁶ Greater environmental

awareness should be created in respect of tourism as a source of wealth creation.

- *Expansion of post-literacy systems to include appropriate advisory services*, preferably in cooperation with UIL (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning), whose very wide expertise is derived from educational projects in over 60 developing countries. Publishing activities (magazines for neoliterates) could be expanded, and the introduction of local “education passports” could be discussed.
- *Cultural identity-building reconciling tradition and modernisation* – including dialogue between religions.

These headings are expressed in language that is still too abstract and non-specific. They are intended solely to suggest thematic trends, the outlines of which will only become clear in the local context.¹⁷

Outlook

The apparent controversy over *adult education* and *socio-cultural reform* as part of DC has recently flared up again – at least in terms of international plausibility – in a number of initiatives, and there is clearly more at stake than mere linguistic or rhetorical hair-splitting. We have stated plainly that a broad interpretation of “education” and a modern view of “adult education” and action-oriented educational science go far beyond the present bean-counting perception of socio-cultural reform, that education in its widest sense “is the most powerful weapon which you can use in the world” (Nelson Mandela), and more specifically that rigid divisions cannot be tolerated between formal basic education, vocational education

and higher education if lifelong learning is to be seen as an “educational chain”.

The initiatives alluded to are, first, a *parliamentary bill* proposed by the parties forming the present Federal Government (CDU/CSU and FDP) and headed “Strengthening education in developing and threshold countries – adapting educational measures and making them more effective”¹⁸, secondly, what is currently an internal discussion paper from BMZ Department 311, which is responsible for “education”¹⁹, and thirdly, the associated draft BMZ *strategy paper* entitled “Ten goals for education”²⁰.

These initiatives all stress “education” as a principle of DC, but although the *parliamentary bill* also refers to adult education, the *strategy paper* starts from the distinctions previously drawn within education between basic education, vocational education and higher education, seeing adult education principally as part of the “integrated lifelong learning approach”. The *parliamentary bill* states, for example: “In a large proportion of developing countries, two thirds of school drop-outs end up in the informal economy. Only support for adult education and non-formal vocational provision will give them the opportunity to establish a secure livelihood of their own through sustained vocational training” (p. 2). Adult education is thus seen as an integral part of lifelong learning, so that it forms its own separate branch within the education system.

The BMZ *strategy paper* also suggests in line with international statements that priority should be given to education within DC (p. 1f); commitment to this strategy is inherent in the overarching image of “lifelong learning” as a “comprehensive approach to education” which includes the following branches: basic education, secondary education, vocational education, higher education and academic research. While “adult education” is mentioned first in the context of higher education (!) in the introductory outline, the listing of the branches of education set out above is then followed by

the somewhat laconic statement: “Besides formal education, we support non-formal and informal education. We give particular importance to out-of-school education, as in the programmes headed ‘Every project is a place for learning’, because we aim to strengthen education as an integral part of all activities” (p. 4).

It is to be hoped that the “high-ranking members to be appointed to the Educational Advisory Committee” will reword the strategy paper in more concise language and terminology and will involve everyone concerned in implementing the initiatives.

The *strategy paper* sets out a policy programme with a fixed time frame, at the end of which the promise is made that: “We shall be measured by whether we achieve our strategic ‘ten goals for education’” (p. 10). In 2013 we shall indeed see what was mere rhetoric and what gives reason to speak of a new kind of strategy.

Notes

- 1 For example in: University of Halle-Wittenberg, Institute of Sociology, <http://www.soziologie.unihalle.de/>
- 2 Michael Urban, Ulrich Weiser, *Kleinräumige Sozialraumanalyse, Theoretische Grundlagen und praktische Durchführung, Identifikation und Beschreibung von Sozialräumen mit quantitativen Daten*, Dresden 2006.
- 3 I refer specifically to the papers on the sociology of conflict by Gerd Nollmann, (Karlsruhe, Bern), e.g. in the collected edition (which perhaps pays too much attention to the concept of class): *Sozialstruktur und Gesellschaft*, Wiesbaden 2007: “In recent decades, social structure analysis has revolutionised and empirically defined more exactly our knowledge of the interplay of being and seeming.” See also the accompanying bibliographical notes.
- 4 BMZ (ed.) *Mehr Wirkung erzielen, Die Ausrichtung der deutschen Entwicklungszusammenarbeit auf die Millenniums-Entwicklungsziele, Die Umsetzung der Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness*, Ref.

- 220, MDG-Stabsstelle, Bonn, 2005. Together with Annexe 4, Förderrichtlinien des MBZ; BMZ (ed.), Grundsätze und Ziele, www.bmz.de/de/ziele/ziele/millenniumsziele.index.html
- 5 See Förderrichtlinien, Art 2. Gegenstand der Förderung, op. cit.; also BMZ, Sozialstrukturförderung, Titel 687 03 and 687 12, Bonn, 1.9.2004 with crucial references to Federal Government target groups, activities and commitment to DC, and micro and macro level goals.
 - 6 In: BMZ, Mehr Wirkung erzielen, op. cit., p. 8
 - 7 Looking back on CONFINTEA V, this has recently been emphasised yet again by: Rita Süßmuth, Adult Learning and Education for Equity and Inclusion within the Context of Participation, Mobility and Competition. A Contribution to moving from CONFINTEA V to VI, Budapest 2009, published as a MS.
 - 8 See Info letter, Information on Adult Education in Europe, No. 1, Feb. 2009.
 - 9 From press releases, esp.: BMBF 14.3.2009, BMBF, 31.3.2009, UNESCO aktuell, 31.3.2009.
 - 10 See also: Michelle Malese, The Necessity of Social Structural Change, University of Colorado (Boulder), 2003, which refers to the important basic literature. The author regards social structure reform principally as a programme concerned with political institutions, including the need for implementation and reform of democratisation, nation-building and civil society.
 - 11 The current woes of the German education system are considerable, as can be seen in two bright lights shone on the same day on the dissonance between the reality of schooling and reformism: Jürgen Overhoff says pointedly in his essay "Learning is fun", *Die Welt*, 11.3.2009, p. 7: "The concept of lifelong learning is currently being ruined"; and Josef Zeller ("Spitzenabiturienten" *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*, 11.3.2009, p. N 5) drowns in polemical argument: "Education policy does not know and does not want to know what is going on in schools."
 - 12 Besides many other examples, see the paper by Heribert Hinzen and Hans Pollinger (eds.), *Adult Education and Combating Poverty*, Bonn 2004, the very title of which suggests a compromise between practical accessibility and academic principles.
 - 13 Pan-European Statement on Adult Learning for Equity and Inclusion in a Context of Mobility and Competition, Budapest, 3.–5.12.2008: CONFINTEA VI, UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

- <http://uil.unesco.org/en/home/programme-areas/adult-education/confintea/>
- 14 See AGS (ed.), *Soziale Strukturen stärken – Armut bekämpfen – Zukunft sichern*. Bonn n.d., also: www.sozialstruktur.org/de/aboutmore.html
 - 15 DVV international, *Youth and Adult Education in Development Cooperation as a Contribution to Social Improvement: Strategic Aims and Performance Profile*. Bonn n.d. (2010), p. 6f.
 - 16 UNESCO aktuell press release 2.4.2009, *Klimawechsel stärker mit Bildungsmaßnahmen bekämpfen, UNESCO Weltkonferenz verabschiedet “Bonner Erklärung”*.
 - 17 To take one example among many: Vavrus, Frances: *Adjusting inequality: education and structural adjustment policies in Tanzania*. Cambridge, MA. in: *Harvard Educational Review*. vol. 75, 2005, No. 2. pp. 174–201.
 - 18 Antrag Deutscher Bundestag 17. Wahlperiode, Drucksache 17/2134 16.06.2021.
 - 19 Entwurf, *Zehn Ziele für Bildung, BMZ Bildungsstrategie 2010–2013*, Referat 311, 19.11.2010.
 - 20 BMZ, Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit und Entwicklung (ed.), *Zehn Ziele für Bildung, BMZ Bildungsstrategie 2010–2013*, published on 1.3.2011.

Biographical notes

Joachim H. Knoll, Dr. phil., Dr. phil. h.c.; Emeritus Professor of Education (Adult Education and Out-of-School Youth Education), Ruhr University Bochum. Main areas of interest: international and comparative adult education; institutions, legislation and Political adult education; youth media protection, new entertainment and educational technologies.

Email: Joko.Knoll@t-online.de.

AKO – A TRADITIONAL LEARNING CONCEPT FOR MAORI AND PACIFIC YOUTH, AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO LIFELONG LEARNING

Summary: Ako is a traditional Polynesian concept meaning both to learn and to teach. This paper examines this concept and its relationship to education for Maori and Pacific youth against the backdrop of lifelong learning. It argues that success for Maori and Pacific youth can only be successful if attention is paid to their cultural as well as their academic needs. It argues for the educational development of the whole person incorporating the intellectual, spiritual and physical components of the self and the community rather than the economic and labor imperatives that often drive educational systems.

ສະຫຼຸບ: Ako ເປັນແນວຄິດແບບດັ້ງເດີມ ທີ່ມີຄວາມໝາຍວ່າສອງຢ່າງຄື: ຮຽນຮູ້ ແລະ ສິດສອນ. ບົດຄວາມເລື່ອງນີ້ໄດ້ທຳການວິເຄາະແນວຄວາມຄິດໃນເລື່ອງນີ້ ແລະ ຄວາມສຳພັນຂອງມັນຕໍ່ການສຶກສາຂອງຊາວໜຸ່ມທີ່ຢູ່ເຂດເມົາລີ ແລະ ປາຊີຟິກທ່າມ ກາງສະພາບຂອງການຮຽນຮູ້ຕະຫຼອດຊີວິດ. ບົດຄວາມນີ້ໄດ້ໃຫ້ຂໍ້ໂຕ້ຖຽງ ວ່າຜົນສຳເລັດ ທີ່ຊາວໜຸ່ມເຂດເມົາລີ ແລະ ປາຊີຟິກໄດ້ຮັບນັ້ນຈະປະສົບຜົນສຳ ເລັດໄດ້ກໍຕໍ່ເມື່ອມີການເອົາໃຈໃສ່ຕໍ່ຄວາມຕ້ອງການທາງດ້ານວັດທະນະທຳ ກໍຄື ຄວາມຕ້ອງການທາງດ້ານວິຊາການຂອງພວກເຂົາ. ບົດຄວາມນີ້ຍັງໄດ້ໂຕ້ຖຽງ ໃນເລື່ອງຂອງການພັດທະນາການສຶກສາຂອງໝົດທຸກຄົນທີ່ລວມເອົາທັງດ້ານພູມ ບັນຍາ, ຈິດໃຈ ແລະ ຮ່າງກາຍຂອງຕົນເອງ ແລະ ຊຸມຊົນຫຼາຍກວ່າຄວາມຈຳ ເປັນທາງດ້ານເສດຖະກິດ ແລະ ແຮງງານ ທີ່ຍາມໃດກໍຊຸກຍູ້ ແລະ ສົ່ງເສີມລະ ບົບ ການສຶກສາ.

សង្ខេប ៖ Ako គឺជាទស្សនទានជាប្រពៃណីរបស់ជនជាតិប៉ូលីនេស៊ី ដែលមានន័យថា រៀនផង និងបង្រៀនផង។ ឯកសារនេះបរិយាយអំពីទស្សនទាននេះ និងទំនាក់ទំនងរវាងទស្សនទាននេះជាមួយនឹងការអប់រំរបស់យុវជនម៉ោរី (Maori) និងប៉ាស៊ីហ្វិក ដោយធៀបជាមួយនឹងការរៀនសូត្រពេញមួយជីវិត។ ឯកសារនេះលើកជាអំណះអំណាងថា ជោគជ័យសម្រាប់យុវជនម៉ោរី និងប៉ាស៊ីហ្វិក អាចសម្រេចទៅបាន ប្រសិនបើមានការយកចិត្តទុកដាក់ចំពោះតម្រូវការផ្នែកវប្បធម៌របស់ពួកគេផង និងតម្រូវការផ្នែកការសិក្សារបស់ពួកគេផង។ ឯកសារនេះលើកឡើងថា ដើម្បីឱ្យមានការអភិវឌ្ឍការអប់រំរបស់មនុស្សម្នាក់ជារួម ចាំបាច់ត្រូវមានការដាក់បញ្ចូល សមាសធាតុបញ្ញា ស្មារតី និងរាងកាយរបស់ខ្លួនឯងផង និងរបស់សហគមន៍ផង ពោលគឺមិនគ្រាន់ត្រឹមតែអ្វីដែល តម្រូវក្នុងសេដ្ឋកិច្ច និងការងារ ដែលជាងឿយៗ គឺជាកត្តាកំណត់ពីប្រព័ន្ធអប់រំប៉ុណ្ណោះទេ។

Context

Aotearoa New Zealand is a small South Pacific nation. With a population of 4.03 million the dominant group is European (also known as Pakeha) at 67.6%, followed by the indigenous Maori population at 14.6%; Asian at 9.2% and Pacific Peoples at 6.9% (Statistics New Zealand, 2006).

Like many other indigenous people, Maori have suffered severely from colonization and then rapid urbanization resulting in land alienation; population and health decline; socio economic disadvantage and political marginalization (Walker, 2004), despite a commitment to a partnership between the English colonizers and

Maori chiefs under the arrangement of the Treaty of Waitangi signed in 1840.

Pacific Peoples is a collective term given to migrants from the South Pacific nations. Many of these small nations have constitutional relationships with New Zealand and in some instances such as Niue, Cook Islands and Tokelau, the majority population resides in New Zealand rather than the home nation (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). The largest Pacific people's ethnic group is Samoan with 131,103 people. The next largest are listed as follows: Cook Islands Maori (58,011), Tongan (50,478), Niuean (22,476), Fijian (9,864), Tokelauan (6,822) and Tuvaluan (2,625) (Statistics New Zealand, 2006).

Many Pacific Peoples, particularly from Polynesia, have been a substantial part of new migrant groups who came to Aotearoa in search of a better life for themselves and for their families (Vaioloti, 2003; Wendt, 1985). They regarded an education in New Zealand as a means to advance their dreams of gaining a better life (Koloto, 1998). However, in reality, while most of these parents worked two shifts and even often-double shifts in unskilled laboring jobs to support their children's educational needs, their children still performed well below their expectation.

Today we find that Maori and Pacific occupy disproportionate and high numbers in the negative social indices (Ministry of Health, 2007). Given that they are a significantly youthful population, this has dire consequences for the whole country. The median age for Maori is 23 years, the median age for Pacific is 21 years and for the total New Zealand population, there is a median age of 36 years. Leading demographer Jackson (2011, 18) in a paper outlining the key demographic forces shaping New Zealand's future noted that "Clearly young Maori will play a significant role in New Zealand's future labour force and attention to their specific educational, training, and social needs must be paramount consideration".

What must be of concern to the New Zealand Government, is the increasing marginalisation of Maori and Pacific in political, social and cultural spheres leading to inequity of access to the provision of services and to economic opportunities as well as cultural differences in values and aspirations and educational programme design (Durie, 2005, 42). An investment into lifelong learning for Maori and Pacific youth therefore requires urgent and speedy attention (Vaioleti, 2011).

Ako - the concept

Learning for Maori is best encapsulated by the Polynesian word 'ako' (to learn and to teach). Vaioleti and Vaioleti (2003) explain 'ako' as both a process and a vision and as a concept which underpins the learning experience. Ako is an overriding principle encompassing early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary and adult education. Ako for both Maori and Pacific cuts across the sectorial approach favoured by Governments. It is driven by cultural, spiritual as well as collective concepts, motivations and aspirations with ako starting well before a child is born and continues until s/he dies. Ako involves training, learning, doing, observing, practicing, reflecting, consulting and visioning and hope. Tiatia (1998) talks about Pacific societies expecting everyone to know and perform his or her role. What Tiatia needed to continue to say is for these people to be able to carry out their roles in a comprehensive education that teaches 21st century skills to secure employment is required, as well as learning to live comfortably in their own ethnic social units.

Ako then as non-formal, informal and lifelong learning processes has a vital role to assist Maori and Pacific youth to advance their

learning opportunities in conjunction with instilling cultural values. It affirms the individual roles as a member of a community, reinforces the value of learning as a contribution to the wellbeing of the collective and acknowledges that modelling and the practice of a learning experience may occur incidentally as well as in planned ways. Ako is only one component of a Maori and Pacific world view, interrelating to other concepts which contribute to an expansive Polynesian knowledge base.

Success in terms of education is reliant upon these concepts interrelating and informing the other within the holistic framework which is grounded in Polynesian epistemological frameworks. Related to ako are the principles of 'ilo and poto. Vaiioleti and Vaiioleti (2003) and Vaiioleti (2011) suggest that Pacific terms ako, 'ilo and poto can be used in multiple ways and therefore they can have many meanings. At one level 'ilo can mean ability to see, sense or an ability to look into the future. 'Ilo can mean the act of finding (something). 'Ilo may also mean an object that is found. Some refer to it as being intuitive, insightful or a type of morality. Elders with whom we had conversations referred to it as Godly knowledge (Vaiioleti, 2011). Thaman, 1988 refers to 'ilo as knowing what to do or the right thing to do. For a collective society, it can be knowing what to do in order to provide beneficial service to others or as Dewey (1944) puts it, in order to make things better. 'Ilo as a verb may be defined as the knowledge that is gained from formal education (ako) therefore it can be theoretical knowledge or untried knowledge.

Poto on the other hand when it is used as a verb, is the act of using 'ilo (insightfulness, morality, godly knowledge) to guide service and work for the benefit of one's family and community using 'ilo (gained from ako, be it formal, informal, non-formal). As a noun, poto is the outcome of using intangible 'ilo (insightfulness) to guide the use of tangible 'ilo (knowledge from ako) for the benefit

the family and the community and environment, an act that will please God/s. One can say then that beneficial service to family and the community is the aim of ako. It is unlikely though that ako can be explained or understood in isolation from 'ilo and poto.

Some Maori commentators (Smith, 1992, 1997; Smith, 1999) and Pacific commentators (Koloto, 1998; Thaman, 1988; Vaioleti and Vaioleti, 2003, Vaioleti, 2011) are insisting that if cultural values are included in the learning of these learners they will find their learning experience relevant, worthwhile and engaging and this will benefit Aotearoa New Zealand generally. The formal sector is starting to understand this and are endeavouring to include Maori and later Pacific cultural values (seen in the Pacific Plan compass below) in their formal schooling.

Young Maori and Pacific peoples and formal education

International assessments, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), show achievement rates in Aotearoa are at a world class standard. However, such assessments continue to demonstrate a major gap between those who are doing well and those who are not (Ministry of Education, 2006). Alton-Lee (2003, 8) stated that in these tests “Maori and Pacific students feature prominently amongst the students that perform poorly”. A question for future research that was asked by Ferguson, Gorinski, Wendt-Samu & Mara (2008, 49) was: “...what are the schools’ responses to Pacific students and what are the processes that keep them underachieving?” This is a searching question given that underachievement and associated wastage of potential has persisted for many decades amongst Maori and Pacific students. These students are from the two ethnic groups who will represent 50 per-

cent of the working age population in 2040 (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). As McMahon (2002, 1) has observed “The expectation that schools will actively and deliberately seek to improve Maori and Pacific education outcomes is not a liberal nicety but an urgent necessity.” Similar thoughts exist beyond the formal learning sector in terms of assessing what educational and labor opportunities will be available to Maori and Pacific youth if formal education continues to be an unsuccessful experience for them.

One of the main reasons offered as justifications for these poor performance statistics for Maori and Pacific students is that the curricula, and the way it is taught (pedagogy), are derived from outside the cultural experiences of Maori and Pacific students (Bishop & Glynn, 1999; Thaman, 1988, Wendt, 1985). Koloto (1998,) Thaman, (1995, 1995) and Vaoleti, Morrison, & Rees (2003) recognised that Western scientific education is vital for 21st Century but not at the expense of Pacific and Maori values which is able to provide a firm sense of identity as well as a sense of confidence to take part in their communities’ cultural lives.

Wendt (1985) humanized the result of the school failure for Pacific students. It seems therefore that these problems have emotional, cultural and spiritual dimensions and, if they are not attended to with care, they can lead to mental and emotional issues that will impact on the individuals concerned as well as their families and their aspirations for the future. In the same document, Wendt (1985, 14) went on to suggest a possible source of the psychological stress for Pacific students when he said: “...groups in New Zealand society without political and economic power – Maori and those from the Pacific nations – are trapped in a reality that is dictated by the dominant group... the Papalangi majority dictate that ‘reality.’”

The fast growing population of Pacific and Maori youths is taking on a special significance especially when the Papalangi popula-

tion is showing signs that it will not be the dominant group it used to be. Only 50% of school students in the North Island of Aotearoa/New Zealand are Papalangi and 56% for the South Island (Vaioloti, 2011) and they continue to lag behind the natural growth of other Aotearoa ethnic populations. The majority of Maori and Pacific people are youthful and are in the child bearing age band.

A report *The Health and Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in New Zealand* by the Adolescent Health Research Group (AHRG), (2008) of the University of Auckland, found that “Most Tongans (89%) are very proud of being Tongan and almost 92% considered it is important to be recognised as a Tongan. For Samoan students, 93% indicated it was important to be recognised as a Samoan. For other Pacific students including Tokelaun, Fijian and others: “almost 88% indicated that it was important to be recognised as a person from their own culture” (AHRG, 2008, pp. 12-13). Integral to being Pacific are critical factors e.g. knowing family obligations, knowing ones genealogy which is often associated with spirituality; knowing when, why, how love is expressed; knowing the degree, time and appropriateness of service given to the church, one’s village etc. The time, degree and circumstance of each of these factors are guided by ‘ilo. The technical, emotional and spiritual knowledge used to perform these actions are gained through ako (formal, informal and non-formal). Fordham (1993) gives us some hope for teaching values when he argued that informal education (informal ako) is best for teaching values. The Ministry of Education (2009) went on further to indicate that Pacific people have multiple worldviews and diverse cultural identities and ensuring young people are present in their education, engaged and achieving its shared responsibility.

Worldviews

In 2011, there is still a very distinct practice of Maori values which gains its source from the early stories of creation, originating in Polynesia. Both the Maori world and the Pacific world are cyclic and holistic. It links each person to every living thing and embraces cultural concepts eg. whakapapa (genealogy) which forms the foundations of whanau/fanau (family) wellbeing (Ka'ai, Moorfield, Reilly, Mosely, 2004, 13). Whanau/fanau (family) forms the basic social unit with many whanau belonging to hapu (sub tribe) and many hapu constitute an iwi or tribe. Whakapapa or genealogical links extend beyond relationships to others to include relationships to ancestral domains and spiritual beings. This is also a feature of a Pacific view of relationships which has intergenerational accountability (Vaiotei, 2011). There is sense of spiritual interconnectedness with the land, rivers and seas ensuring a caretaker role (kaitiakitanga) which seeks to preserve and treat resources in a sustainable way. That spiritual interconnectedness acknowledges the importance of a spiritual world from which one seeks guidance and in some cases explanations to events.

Many other values underpin and are integral to Maori/Polynesian thinking. For example aroha/ofa which carries one meaning of unconditional generosity; tapu being the regulatory order of Maori society; rangatiratanga and mana or chieftainship which is an integral part of collective leadership responsibilities. Intrinsic to Maori and Pacific societies is its ritualistic nature, its accountability to the past as well as the future, its collective orientation and its emphasis on processes as much as outcomes. Cultural practises (tikanga) occurs more intensely in the traditional setting of the marae (meeting places, a cultural and spiritual focus of a

Maori iwi or hapu) but also permeate through many fora, and institutions throughout Aotearoa albeit with tribal variations.

In Maori education, a growing number of Maori educationalists, Smith (1999), Smith (1997), Bishop and Glynn (1999), Walker (2004) promote a “kaupapa Maori model’. Kaupapa Maori is that in which Maori thinking is central, validated and is not sector bound nor discipline bound. Kaupapa Maori may be transferred to a number of different contexts and still act as an important reference point. Kaupapa Maori has become an influential, coherent philosophy and practice for Maori conscientisation, resistance and transformative praxis, advancing Maori cultural and educational outcomes within education (Nepe, 1991, p.11). Graham Smith highlights six intervention elements as an essential component of Kaupapa Maori and these same six interventions are important when thinking about underlying philosophies in any education model for Maori. These are namely (Smith, G., 1997):

- *Tino rangatiratanga* – the self-determination principle
- *Taonga tuku iho* - the cultural aspirations principle
- *Ako Maori* - the ‘culturally preferred pedagogy’ principle
- *Kia piki ake i ngā raruraru o te kāinga* – the socio-economic mediation principle
- *Whānau* - the extended family structure principle
- *Kaupapa* – the collective philosophy principle

These concepts will be explained further in regards to a lifelong education model for Maori and Pacific but it highlights efforts and assertiveness to adapt an indigenous consciousness to contemporary educational settings without losing the authentic source of knowledge.

Maori and Pacific against a backdrop of lifelong learning

So what does this mean for lifelong education for Maori and Pacific youth? Lifelong learning is not a new concept or practice. It is part of a broader approach to education which is related to whanau/fanau (family), hapu (subtribe) /village and iwi (tribal) national education and development of which self-determination is critical (Ministry of Education, 2001). Lifelong learning for Maori and Pacific communities is political and questions must be asked as to whose education is under discussion and for what purposes and end. Perpetuation of culture is an integral part but equally as important is the fact that education must also meet cultural aspirations, be constantly evolving and respond to challenges in a highly technological and globalised world. Central to Maori and Pacific concerns however is control and accountability back to their communities; this being the proof ako has been achieved. It is in the realisation of the beneficial application of ako to service that benefits the community. In this case it is one's community that decides if a learner's education has been a success. Tiatia (1998) suggested that for Pacific peoples, communities are built on the basis that everyone is aware and undertakes their roles for community well-being.

The formal educational curriculum in New Zealand which traditionally followed the Western model of education rarely included cultural roles that provide moral code or insightfulness to living in Maori or Pacific community groups and therefore Maori and Pacific learners may leave the formal sector unprepared to live in their own communities. If they are not equipped with these learnings that should guide them to perform their roles beneficially for families and the community then harmony which is the ultimate result of potu will not be achieved. The ultimate goal of ako for Pacific

people is to live harmoniously in a sustainable relationship with others, the environment and their God/s (Vaiioleti, 2011). In Maori and Pacific communities, there is ongoing teaching by both groups, influential adults and family members of youth so that they will continue to practise and perpetuate cultural norms according to their own codes and expectations. Durie (2001), a well-known Maori academic challenges the educational system to meet both the cultural expectations as well as the expectations of a western system if our youth are going to maximise their learning potential. This is not the responsibility of the formal system alone. Non-formal education which can occur at the homes, the churches and other cultural centers must also be part of the solution.

Ako and Fordham's model of holistic education

One of the enduring themes in the literature of adult education, according to Fordham (1993), has been that the education provided should be in the interests of the learners and curriculum planning should preferably be undertaken by the learners themselves therefore advocating for a 'bottom up' approach. It is also often argued that this approach empowers learners to understand and if necessary change the social structure around them. Fordham (1993) continues: 'examples where there is a genuine sense of ownership are not easy to find; and almost all have an element of community outreach as part of the general organization. According to Fordham (1993), examples of top-down non-formal programmes are employer-led and State provided trainings. This view parallels the distinctions that Jeffs and Smith (1999) make between formal and informal education via curriculum. In this way formal education would broadly approximate to top-down curriculum

formation; non-formal to bottom-up or negotiated curriculum formation; and informal education would arguably be a non-curriculum or conversational form.

In the case of Maori and Pacific this may not be entirely true and this is a contention Maori and Pacific have with the idealized life-long principles. There is an assumption here that all adults or youths have similar educational needs notwithstanding its multi-ethnic population and the rights of its indigenous population. Attention has not been paid to the influence of colonization in the case of Maori or the philosophical motivation for ako of Pacific youths or that there is much injustice and uneven playing fields existing in many communities including New Zealand.

As mentioned in the discussions in this paper, youth are still accountable to elders and holders of traditional knowledge and like many professions a body of knowledge exists that has been developed over many centuries and needs to be passed down. There is also a spiritual relationship between a facilitator of learning and the youth learner which must be respected and the elder or a *faiako/kaiako* (teacher, facilitator of learning, educator) is also regarded as a learner (*akonga*). The type of *ako* that is associated with this type of semi-structure learning is non-formal education. These were the basis of *Wananga* for Maori, semi-organized education and training for certain classes in ancient times and social group teaching in the Pacific..

For us, this exposes the liberal base of Fordham's (1993) argument which we will ultimately lead to what Thaman (1988) and Goldsmith (1992) alluded to as systematic selfishness that our competitive liberal market has reached. There is hope still. Our position then is more a non-formal approach to adult education rather than allow the economic imperatives of Government to dominate but one that allows the Maori and Pacific communities and their youths to negotiate. To use Fordham's (1993) model, the formal

sector will continue with its economic and science based education. The non-formal sector which will inherit many Maori and Pacific youth can negotiate their curriculum taking into account the economic need of the nation as well as the cultural, spiritual and social needs of the learners and their communities.

For Maori, in addressing the issues of Maori underachievement in the formal sector, to tarnish one's confidence must not be allowed. This will be an incomplete view of education. Formal education with a liberal market framework and set curriculum is harmful to indigenous cultures and knowledge (Goldsmith, 1992; Smith, 1997; Vaioleti, 2011) as it can disempower the learners. Lifelong education for Maori can play a prime role, in offering learning opportunities for their engagement, negotiate the curriculum in a way that acknowledges their values discussed in this paper; succeed in and make a contribution to ongoing tribal development as well as citizenship generally.

Lifelong learning discourse

Lifelong learning can be broadly defined as learning that is pursued throughout life: learning that is flexible, diverse and available and may happen spontaneously as well as being planned. The popular Delors framework of learning namely: "learning to be, learning to know, learning to do and learning to live together" was posited and accepted as a framework to think about the outcomes of the lifelong learning process. It advocates for an agenda for lifelong learning that is not driven by economic and labor imperatives but to have as its aim the full development of the individual. In this way, it resonates with the thinking of Maori and Pacific thinking and ako the central thesis of this paper. Indigenous people gather-

ing in readiness for CONFINTEA V, World Adult Education Conference in 1997, made the Delors statement relevant to them by stating:

- Learning to be = for indigenous people, this is the right of self-identification and self-definition
- Learning to know= the right to self-knowledge.
- Learning to do= the right to self-development
- Learning to live together- the right to self determination

In preparation for the 1997 Conference, indigenous people met in Oaxaca, Mexico and agreed on a Declaration for Adult Education for Indigenous Populations (1997). It contains twenty eight articles which include:

- Article Five- Adult education for indigenous peoples must be linked to their destinies as individuals and as communities.
- Article Eight- Adult education must be an on-going process that opens up the broadest array of options, opportunities and possibilities to every indigenous people.
- Article Twenty two- Adult education initiatives must respect indigenous communities as knowledgeable partners and embrace them as equal participants in participatory planning, implementation and evaluation.

More recently the Declaration of Rights for Indigenous People was accepted by nearly all United Nation countries and Article 14 in relation to education states that:

- Indigenous peoples have the right to establish and control their educational systems and institutions providing education in their own languages, in a manner appropriate to their cultural methods of teaching and learning.

- Indigenous individuals, particularly children, have the right to all levels and forms of education of the State without discrimination.
- States shall, in conjunction with indigenous peoples, take effective measures, in order for indigenous individuals, particularly children, including those living outside their communities, to have access, when possible, to an education in their own culture and provided in their own language.

(Source: Article 14, Declaration for Rights of Indigenous People)

Certainly there is much activity already occurring in New Zealand with a number of Maori and Pacific centred educational initiatives from childhood to university already State funded and resourced. In many informal settings, Maori and Pacific themselves do not rely on State funding to activate their learning, they simply happen, spontaneously, responsive and to meet a need as defined by their communities.

Looking towards a Maori and Pacific lifelong education framework, it is obvious that mainstream education models are not serving Maori and Pacific well. Not only does policy need to improve but so do the way the schools and universities and learning institutions respond to students and pedagogical practises also need to incorporate Maori and Pacific thinking. We have taken the liberty of extending on Graham Smith's work in articulating important and vital characteristics which should underpin any life-long education model and assist Maori and Pacific to achieve:

- *Tino rangatiratanga* – the self-determination principle. This encompasses need for control over education and cultural well-being. It encompasses Delors statement of learning to live together which in this climate changing world should now be extended to learning to live sustainably and harmoniously to-

gether while maintaining self-determination. This shows Maori and Pacific ability to respond to global contexts while securing and reaffirming their own cultural practices of which they maintain control.

- *Taonga tuku iho – the cultural aspirations principle.* This encompasses the Delors “learning to be” principle, Maori and Pacific knowledge and traditional systems are legitimated. The learner is engaged in a learning relation through the process of “ako” where their role in the community is affirmed contributing to the overall wellbeing of the collective unit. Educational aspirations are determined by Maori. Language and culture form the educational base yet not without critique of their own cultural norms which allows for a cultural responsiveness to issues.
- *Ako Maori – the ‘culturally preferred pedagogy’ principle.* Teaching and learning connects with Maori and Pacific culture and backgrounds improving chances of success. Many styles/tools of learning are incorporated with an emphasis on indigenous teaching techniques. The curriculum is also relevant acknowledging the incidental and spontaneous learning spaces within communities including learning spaces in the natural environment. There is also participation and inclusion of Maori and Pacific in planning and curriculum development
- *Kia piki ake i ngā raruraru o te kāinga – the socio-economic mediation principle.* This principle encourages Maori and Pacific to see the potentiality that education can bring, especially for those whose previous schooling experience was negative. Role modelling positive experiences is important and allows a space for “buy in” from the community. There is also attention given to the economic benefits that a good education brings.
- *Whanau – the extended family structure principle.* This calls on the entire extended family to commit to investing in education and to involve themselves at all levels. The power of intergen-

erational learning and transmission is important so that learning benefits the individual and the community leading to increased wellbeing.

- *Kaupapa – the collective philosophy principle.* This focuses on Maori and Pacific achieving in their own education as well as mainstream education. It allows for creating a space where intercultural learning may also occur acknowledging that Maori and Pacific need to both live as cultural beings and also be a citizen of the world. Under this principle, the diversity within the Maori and Pacific population is also recognised thereby requiring a Maori/Pacific centred approach, a Maori/Pacific added approach and a collaborative approach if all Maori/Pacific learners are to have access to quality education. Diverse knowledge systems are acknowledged. As stated earlier, the Maori/Pacific population is youthful and many youth do not participate in tribal activities but do prioritise cultural activities to inform and enhance their identity.

Conclusion

Success in lifelong learning requires harnessing Maori and Pacific potential and diversity within an enabling education system that works for young people, their families and communities. This requires the education system, leadership, and curricula to start with the Maori and Pacific learner at the centre, drawing on strong cultures, identities and languages. The world is changing; the world of work is changing; we are bearing witness to environmental non-sustainability in a climate changing world. The 21st Century presents us with challenges of a changing labour market which transgresses national boundaries; a highly technological world which

reduces the needs for human inputs; and a demanding globalised society which if allowed, could run rampantly unchecked. It seems that we need to find alternatives to a largely westernised education system which has not served indigenous communities well and the wisdom that is sourced from ancient traditions is a good place to start.

To take Smith's aspiration model and to also draw from Fordham's thinking is to crystallise the narratives contained in this paper in order to create a lifelong learning model for Maori and Pacific peoples which has at its heart, the important cultural imperatives. These are service to the wellbeing of the community; learning for the wellbeing of the soul, the spirit and physical wellbeing; ensuring the strength of identity which is grounded in the whenua/fonua or land; the realisation of the potential force which is yet to be tapped but is focused and alert to future possibilities. Above all it is an aspiration while advocating for cultural perpetuation without forgetting about knowledge required for day to day living. These are central components of ako.

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Biographical notes

Sandra Lee Morrison is the Associate Dean and a senior lecturer at the School of Maori and Pacific Development, University of Waikato, New Zealand. From the tribal groupings of Te Arawa and Tainui, she has extensive experience in promoting adult education and lifelong learning for indigenous people at a community level, at a national and an international level. She held the post of President of ASPBAE, Asia South Pacific Associa-

tion for Basic and Adult Education from 2000 to 2008, and from 2008 to 2010 she has been the Immediate Past President.

Address: Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao, School of Maori and Pacific Development, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand

Email: samorr@waikato.ac.nz

Dr Timote Masima Vaioleti is a senior lecturer at the Faculty of Education, University of Waikato. Born in the Kingdom of Tonga, he has resided in New Zealand for many years and has headed many community-building projects, been appointed as an advisory council member to several Ministers of the Crown and has extensive vocational, technical and educational experience. He holds world patents for Scientific and Engineering inventions for the Forestry, Building and Manufacturing industries. He is the Chair of IMPAECT*, Indigenous Maori and Pacific Adult Education Charitable Trust* which undertakes work in Tonga and New Zealand. He is an Executive Council Member of ASPBAE.

Address: Professional Studies in Education, Faculty of Education, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand

Email: vaioleti@waikato.ac.nz

Louise Ellerton/Bernie Lovegrove/Joanna Lindner

EDUCATION EXPERIENCE SURVEY AND LITERACY ASSESSMENT ON SOLOMON ISLANDS

Summary: The Renbel and Isabel education experience survey and literacy assessment was conducted in 2010 and builds upon existing research in Solomon Islands undertaken by the Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE) and the Coalition for Education Solomon Islands (COESI). The research results provide accurate statistically significant information about education in Isabel and Renbel provinces, and enable evidence-based policy debate and action to take place between the Government, education partners, civil society and the community. The full report analyses in detail the results of the survey and literacy assessment and highlights correlations between an individual's education experience and their literacy, employment and wealth. It is worth noting that the trends in the most recent surveys in Renbel and Isabel mirror earlier surveys conducted in Malaita and Honiara in 2007, and thus education stakeholders are facing issues that go beyond provincial boundaries and require systematic national responses. Combined with earlier results, they highlight many serious concerns and point to the need for a re-think of education policies to ensure equitable and quality education opportunities for all Solomon Islanders. ASPBAE and COESI call upon all education stakeholders to urgently take up the issues highlighted in the report and to work together to ensure that within the Solomon Islands, Education For All by 2015 is more than just a rhetorical slogan.

ສະຫຼຸບ: ໃນປີ 2010 ໄດ້ມີການສຳຫຼວດທາງການສຶກສາ ແລະ ການປະເມີນການຮູ້ທັງສີ່ຂອງ Renbel ແລະ Isabel ໂດຍອີງໃສ່ບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້າຢູ່ເກາະໂຊໂລມອນ ເຊິ່ງບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້ານີ້ແມ່ນເປັນຂອງສະມາຄົມເອເຊຍໃຕ້ ແລະ ປາຊີຟິກສຳລັບການສຶກ

ສາຂັ້ນພື້ນຖານ ແລະ ການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ (ASPBAE) ແລະ ເປັນຂອງໂຄງການ ການຮ່ວມມືກັນທາງການສຶກສາຢູ່ເກາະໂຊໂລມອນ (COESI). ຜົນຂອງການ ຄົ້ນຄວ້າ ຂອງບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້າດັ່ງກ່າວນີ້ ໄດ້ກາຍເປັນຂໍ້ມູນທາງສະຖິຕິອັນສໍາຄັນໃນ ເລື່ອງການສຶກ ສາຢູ່ແຂວງ Renbel ແລະ Isabel, ນອກຈາກນັ້ນຍັງສາມາດເຮັດ ໃຫ້ມີການໂຕ້ຖຽງເລື່ອງນະໂຍບາຍທີ່ໃຊ້ຕົວຈິງເປັນຖານ ແລະ ການ ປະຕິບັດຕົວຈິງເກີດຂຶ້ນໄດ້ລະຫວ່າງລັດຖະບານ, ຄູ່ຮ່ວມມືທາງການສຶກສາ, ບັນດາ ອົງການທີ່ບໍ່ຂຶ້ນກັບລັດຖະບານ ແລະ ຊຸມຊົນ. ບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້າສະບັບເຕັມໄດ້ວິເຄາະໃຫ້ ເຫັນລາຍລະອຽດຜົນຂອງການສໍາຫຼວດ ແລະ ປະເມີນການຮູ້ທັງສີ ແລະ ຍັງໄດ້ຊີ້ ໃຫ້ເຫັນຄວາມສໍາພັນກັນລະຫວ່າງປະສົບການເລື່ອງການສຶກສາຂອງບຸກຄົນກັບການ ຮູ້ທັງສີ, ການມີວຽກເຮັດງານທຳ ແລະ ຄວາມຮັ່ງມີຂອງເຂົາເຈົ້າ. ບໍ່ສະເພາະແຕ່ ເທົ່ານັ້ນ, ບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້າດັ່ງກ່າວນີ້ຍັງເປັນຂໍ້ສັງເກດອັນສໍາຄັນວ່າແນວໂນ້ມທີ່ສັງເກດ ໄດ້ຈາກການສໍາຫຼວດລ່າສຸດຢູ່ແຂວງ Renbel ແລະ Isabel ມີໄດ້ກາຍເປັນ ແບບຢ່າງໃຫ້ແກ່ບົດສໍາຫຼວດໃໝ່ນີ້ທີ່ໄດ້ສໍາຫຼວດຢູ່ Malaita ແລະ Honiara ໃນ ປີ2007. ດັ່ງນັ້ນ, ຜູ້ທີ່ມີສ່ວນຮ່ວມທາງການສຶກສາແມ່ນກຳລັງປະເຊີນກັບບັນຫາທີ່ຢູ່ ເໜືອກວ່າຂັ້ນແຂວງ ແລະ ຮຽກຮ້ອງໃຫ້ມີຂໍ້ແກ້ໄຂລະດັບຊາດຢ່າງເປັນລະບົບ. ເມື່ອເອົາມາລວມກັບຜົນຂອງການວິເຄາະເບື້ອງຕົ້ນພົບວ່າ, ຜູ້ທີ່ມີສ່ວນຮ່ວມໃນການ ສຶກສາຍັງມີຄວາມເປັນຫ່ວງ ແລະ ຊີ້ໃຫ້ເຫັນຄວາມຈຳເປັນທີ່ຮຽກຮ້ອງໃຫ້ມີການທົບ ທວນຄືນເລື່ອງນະໂຍບາຍການສຶກສາເພື່ອຮັບປະກັນການໄດ້ຮັບໂອກາດທາງການ ສຶກສາທີ່ເປັນທຳ ແລະ ມີຄຸນນະພາບໃຫ້ແກ່ຊາວໂຊໂລມອນ, ການສຶກສາສໍາລັບ ທຸກຄົນພາຍໃນປີ2015 ຈະບໍ່ເປັນພຽງແຕ່ ຄໍາເວົ້າອີກຕໍ່ໄປ.

ສະຫຼຸບ : ກາມາຊີອາດເນີ້ຍຈຕິເສດຜູ້ກໍ່ສ້າງ ແລະ ການກຳນົດຄຳສັ່ງເລີຍເກີດຂຶ້ນກັບ (Renbel) ແລະ ສຶກສາເຜີຍ (Isabel) ຕັ້ງແຕ່ຮ່ວມມືກັນທາງການສຶກສາ ຢູ່ເກາະໂຊໂລມອນ ປີ 2010 ແລະ ຕັ້ງແຕ່ ຕັ້ງແຕ່ການສຶກສາສູງສຸດ ຢູ່ເກາະໂຊໂລມອນ ມາດສູງສຸດ ຢູ່ເກາະໂຊໂລມອນ ປີ 2015 ຈະບໍ່ເປັນພຽງແຕ່ ຄໍາເວົ້າອີກຕໍ່ໄປ.

អាស៊ីប៉ាស៊ីហ្វិកសម្រាប់ការអប់រំជាមូលដ្ឋាន និងការអប់រំមនុស្សពេញវ័យ (ASPBAE) និងសម្ព័ន្ធសម្រាប់ការអប់រំលើកោះសូឡូម៉ុង (COESI)។ លទ្ធផលនៃការស្រាវជ្រាវនេះ ផ្តល់នូវព័ត៌មានសំខាន់ៗ ដែលមានសុក្រិតភាពផ្នែកស្ថិតិ អំពីការអប់រំនៅក្នុងខេត្តជំនឿបេល និងអ៊ីសាបេល និង ផ្តល់លទ្ធភាពឱ្យមានការជជែកជែកញែក និងការអនុវត្តវិធានការផ្នែក តាមភស្តុតាងជាក់ស្តែង រវាងរដ្ឋាភិបាល ដៃគូអប់រំ សង្គមស៊ីវិល និងសហគមន៍។ របាយការណ៍ពេញលេញធ្វើការវិភាគលំអិតលើលទ្ធផលនៃការអង្កេត និងការវាយតម្លៃលើអក្ខរកម្មនេះ និងបានរំលេចឱ្យឃើញពីទំនាក់ទំនងរវាងបទពិសោធន៍នៃការអប់រំរបស់បុគ្គលម្នាក់ៗ ជាមួយនឹងអក្ខរកម្ម ការងារ និងទ្រព្យសម្បត្តិរបស់ពួកគេ។ គួរមានកត់សម្គាល់ថា និន្នាការនៅក្នុងការអង្កេតចុងក្រោយគេនៅក្នុងខេត្តជំនឿបេល និងអ៊ីសាបេលនេះ ឆ្លុះបញ្ចាំងផងដែរពីការអង្កេតមុនៗ ដែលធ្វើឡើងនៅម៉ាឡៃតា (Malaita) និងហុណៃរ៉ា (Honiara) នៅក្នុងឆ្នាំ ២០០៧ ដូច្នេះអ្នកពាក់ព័ន្ធនឹងការអប់រំ កំពុងប្រឈមនឹងបញ្ហា ដែលឆ្លងផុតពីព្រំប្រទល់ខេត្ត ហើយតម្រូវឱ្យមានការឆ្លើយតបនៅថ្នាក់ជាតិក្នុងលក្ខណៈជាប្រព័ន្ធ ។ រួមផ្សំជាមួយនឹងលទ្ធផលមុនៗ និន្នាការទាំងនេះរំលេចឱ្យឃើញពីបញ្ហាធ្ងន់ធ្ងរជាច្រើន និងបានគូសបញ្ជាក់ពីភាពចាំបាច់ ដើម្បីធ្វើការពិចារណាឡើងវិញលើគោលនយោបាយនៃការអប់រំដើម្បីធានាយ៉ាងណាឱ្យប្រជាជនដែលរស់នៅលើដែនកោះសូឡូម៉ុងទាំងអស់ អាចទទួលបានឱកាសអប់រំប្រកបដោយសមធម៌ និង គុណភាព។ ASPBAE និង COESI អំពាវនាវឱ្យអ្នកពាក់ព័ន្ធនឹងការអប់រំទាំងអស់ ដោះស្រាយបញ្ហាទាំងនេះជាបន្ទាន់ ដូចដែលត្រូវបានរំលេចនៅក្នុងរបាយការណ៍នេះ និងធ្វើការងាររួមគ្នា ដើម្បីធានាយ៉ាងណាឱ្យការអប់រំ

សម្រាប់ទាំងអស់គ្នានៅឆ្នាំ ២០១៥ មានអត្ថន័យលើក្រឹមតែជាពាក្យស្លោកនៅលើដៃនេះ
សូម្បីម៉ែងនេះ។

1. Introduction

The ASPBAE Education Experience Survey and Literacy Assessment was conducted in the provinces of Renbel and Isabel, Solomon Islands. The project, funded by the World Bank, was a collaboration between ASPBAE Australia and COESI. This report forms an integral part of ongoing research into adult and youth education in the Solomon Islands. ASPBAE and COESI have successfully completed surveys in the Honiara, Malaita and Central Islands Provinces. The findings of the surveys and literacy assessments are being used to inform ongoing education advocacy work with government and other education partners. The survey and literacy assessment instrument and methodology has been designed to collect accurate and statistically significant information about educational, language and literacy experience at the village and individual level. This report presents, in detail, the results of the surveys and literacy assessments conducted in Renbel and Isabel provinces in June 2010.

2. Survey Instrument

Since 2007, ASPBAE Australia has worked with education coalitions in Papua New Guinea (PNG) and Solomon Islands in developing and adapting ASPBAE's education experience survey and literacy assessment instruments. They were initially used in Honiara and Malaita Province in 2007 and then again in Central Islands Province in early 2010. The Renbel and Isabel survey instrument

included four sections common to earlier surveys and two new sections focusing on employment experience and standard of living. The survey instrument contained six sections as follows: Individual profile; education experience; language experience; literacy assessment; employment experience; and wealth standard.

The individual profile section of the survey was designed to capture information about the respondents' gender and age, to allow disaggregation analysis to take place. The first section of the survey also included questions relating to sources of information and the respondents' attitudes to literacy and education.

The second and third parts of the survey were designed to capture information about the respondents' educational and language experience. The questions in the second part of the survey, explored the education history of the individual, including the highest level of schooling and reasons behind non-completion where appropriate. The third part of the survey questionnaire explored respondents' language preferences and asked respondents to self-declare their literacy status.

The fourth part of the survey was the literacy assessment and as per the methodology in the three previous surveys, the literacy assessment was carried out for only those participants who self-declared an ability to read either English or Pijin. Within the Solomon Islands, English is the only official language, but Pijin is the lingua franca. Hence to enable a greater proportion of the population to demonstrate their literacy, both languages were assessed. Therefore, those respondents who indicated that they could read some, could mostly read or could read easily in either English or Pijin, participated in the literacy assessment. In contrast, those respondents who indicated that they could not read either English or Pijin did not undertake the literacy assessment and were classified as non-literate. A sample of the literacy assessment is contained within Appendix A at the end of this report.

As per the three previous surveys in Solomon Islands, the literacy assessment focussed on each component skill of literacy: reading, writing and numeracy, as well as the ability to apply these skills in familiar contexts in everyday life. The assessment tool contained a graduated series of questions in each skill area:

- Reading skills were tested by asking respondents to match three pictures with three corresponding names; to read two sentences aloud; and to read a simple story (of six sentences) and give oral answers to two written questions;
- Writing skills were tested by asking respondents to write the names corresponding to two pictures; and to write two short sentences about the pictures;
- Numeracy skills were tested by asking respondents to count the number of objects in a picture; to name the missing number in a sequence; and to make two simple calculations in everyday scenarios; and
- Application of skills were tested by asking respondents to read the time on a clock face; to interpret dates on a calendar; and to describe the message of a poster.

Each response was scored depending on the accuracy of the answer given. A composite score, based on the assessment results in each skill area, was calculated and used as the basis for classifying each survey respondent as either non-literate, semi-literate or literate. The definitions of literacy are further expanded in Appendix B and further explanation about the composite score appears in Appendix C.

The fifth part of the survey looked at the employment experience of respondents, with this new section piloted in the 2010 enumeration in the provinces of Renbel and Isabel. It was designed to extract information about individuals' participation in the formal

economy through cash-paying employment. Furthermore, questions also focused on employment outside of the formal sector and the main reasons individuals did or did not participate in the formal employment sector. Assessing the correlation between education outcomes, such as level of school completion and literacy level, and employment experience was the main purpose of adding this section to the survey tool. Likewise, a standard of living section was added during the 2010 enumeration of the survey. The combination of these two additional sections enabled the analysis of correlations between employment, education outcomes and levels of education attainment, and household wealth.

3. Survey Methodology and Analysis

The survey was conducted in households in randomly selected communities in both Renbel and Isabel provinces. All people who normally resided in a selected household, between the ages of 15 and 60 years (inclusive), were invited to participate in the survey. The standard of living questions were addressed solely to the household head and as noted above, the literacy assessment questions were addressed only to respondents who declared an ability to read either English or Pijin.

With regard to the sampling methodology, as per previous surveys, great care was taken to ensure that statistically significant results were obtained. The minimum required sample size was calculated from the National Population and Housing Census population projections for 2010 of 3,025 in Renbel and 26,310 in Isabel, with just fewer than 60% of the population being between the age of 15 and 60 years of age. Consequently, the minimum sample size based on a 95% confidence level and a 5% confidence interval was

317 in Renbel and 383 in Isabel. As per previous survey, the sample size is increased by a further 50% to 476 in Renbel and 575 in Isabel. These minimum sample sizes were then used to guide the number of households that needed to be surveyed. As per previous surveys it was assumed that a household would typically contain at least three eligible people (15-60 years) and further that a maximum of twenty households be surveyed in each community. Consequently the minimum number of communities to be surveyed was eight villages in Renbel and ten in Isabel. A cluster sampling process was used to ensure geographical representation; the wards were then randomly selected from these clusters and finally the village.

As per the previous three surveys conducted by ASPBAE and COESI, the results were encoded using the Census & Survey Processing System (CSPro) and the data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

4. Profile of Survey Respondents

The following section contains the results of the first part of the survey. It also provides a short analysis of key trends relating to how individuals accessed information and their attitudes to education and literacy skills.

4.1 Demographic Profile

Within the province of Renbel 566 interviews were conducted, which is above the minimum sample size of 476 people. The survey was undertaken in nine villages, above the minimum of eight vil-

ages anticipated to provide a valid sample. The villages surveyed were located on the two islands of Rennell and Bellona: Honguavea, Lavagu, Ghongou, Hutuna, Kagua, Kangatoa, Tingoa, Kanava and Tangakitonga. The survey sample comprised 284 males (50.2%) and 282 females (49.8%). All respondents were between the ages of 15 and 60 years, so as to encompass both the youth and adult demographic. The sample's age profile is similar to the national profile during the 1999 census as seen below in Table 1, however, a slightly higher proportion of 50 to 60 year olds were sampled.

Table 1: Survey Respondents by Province, Gender and Age

AGE COHORT	RENBEL				ISABEL				NATIONAL ¹
	Male	Female	Overall	%	Male	Female	Overall	%	%
15-19	58	66	124	21.9	65	94	159	13.1	21.0
20-24	46	39	85	15.0	70	116	186	15.3	18.4
25-29	29	33	62	11.0	75	96	171	14.1	16.1
30-39	62	62	124	21.9	134	176	310	25.5	21.8
40-49	44	51	95	16.8	91	102	193	15.9	13.6
50-60	45	31	76	13.4	106	89	195	16.1	9.2
Total	284	282	566	100.0	541	673	1214	100.0	100.1

1 The provincial age profile is not publically available, but national age profile can be found at <http://www.spc.int/prism/country/sb/stats/censuses%20and%20Surveys/Census99.htm>.

In Isabel province, the survey sample consisted of 1214 individuals, which is above the minimum sample size of 575. The survey was undertaken in 26 villages, well above the minimum of ten villages anticipated to provide a valid sample. The sample had slightly more female than male respondents with 673 and 541, respectively. Similarly with Renbel, all respondents were between 15 to 60 years old, and the sample's age profile is mostly similar to the census. Within Isabel province, however, the youth and 50 to 60 year old cohorts are respectively smaller and larger than expected as

compared to the national population age profile. Unfortunately, due to age profiles not being available by province, it is not possible to conclude whether this is reflective of the actual profile within Isabel province or due to the sample selection. Interviews were conducted in 26 randomly selected villages.

4.2 Sources of Information

There are different sources of information accessed by respondents in the month prior to being surveyed. It is important to note that respondents could identify multiple sources, and thus percentages refer to the proportion of the sample that used a particular source.

In both Renbel and Isabel provinces, the main sources of information were books and radio. The majority of respondents in Renbel also cited meetings and newspapers or magazines as sources of information. In both Renbel and Isabel provinces, only a limited proportion cited television as a source of information, with 11.4% and 15.4% respectively obtaining information from television in the last month.

It is worth noting the gender disparity evident in the results above for both provinces. For all five possible sources of information, a lower proportion of females than males cited using each source in the last month. This trend could indicate that women in Renbel and Isabel are less likely to seek information or that they are less able to access information sources. It is worth noting that literacy levels are likely to impact on ability to source information and this will be discussed further in the Literacy Assessment section.

4.3 Attitudes to Literacy

The overwhelming majority of respondents in both provinces believed reading, writing and counting to be very useful or sometimes useful skills in everyday life. In both provinces, reading and writing were considered very useful skills by about 60% of the respondents, and counting was considered a very useful skill by approximately 70% of the respondents.

When looking at the gender-disaggregated data, it is interesting to note that in both provinces there is a difference between the way men and women view literacy. A greater proportion of women than men believe that literacy skills are only sometimes useful or not useful in everyday life. Moreover, in both provinces women generally viewed reading, writing and counting skills as less useful to their everyday lives than their male counterparts. The impact of gender in the perceived usefulness of literacy skills, could be explained by the traditional gender roles that exist in Renbel and Isabel provinces where women take on domestic, household and childcare roles, while men spend more time outside of the home and are more likely to engage in more literacy-demanding tasks such as leadership roles and paid work. This will be discussed further in the Employment Experience section of this report, which will show that a greater proportion of men than women have held a job paying money and men are slightly more likely than women to participate in village level governance.

4.4 Attitudes to Education

The final part of the profile section of the survey looked at the respondents' attitudes towards education. In both Renbel and Isabel

provinces, there was near universal support for the proposition that it is very important for all children to go to school. Less than 1% of respondents in either province stated that it is not important for children to go to school.

In both Renbel and Isabel provinces, the overwhelming majority of respondents viewed schooling as important for learning to read, write and think. The second most common reason cited was that it is important to learn skills for work, with 82.0 and 77.2% of respondents in Renbel and Isabel citing this respectively. In Renbel province, just over 75% of respondents also said they believed children should go to school because it is important to learn traditional culture and values, and to learn about the world, while in contrast only 60% of respondents in Isabel cited these as important reasons.

The survey provides little evidence of successive generations placing differing importance on why children should go to school. Although respondents within Isabel province between 40 and 60 years of age do not cite each reason with the same frequency as younger generations, there is no clear trend indicating older generations place greater importance on traditional culture and values, over other reasons, as is often implied in discussions about Pacific and Melanesian education.

5. Key findings of the Renbel and Isabel survey

5.1 Individual Opinions on School and Literacy

- Amongst respondents in both Renbel and Isabel provinces there is almost universal support that school is important for all children.

- Reading, writing and numeracy skills are viewed by the vast majority as useful in everyday life.
- Radio and books are the most common sources of information in both provinces.

5.2 Education Experience (See tables 2 and 3)

- While over 90% have attended some formal schooling, 29% of adults have not completed primary school.
- Only 12% of adults in Renbel and 16% in Isabel completed secondary school. Less than 10% of the respondents had attended university.
- Disinterest in school, high fees, poor access and home duties are the main barriers to completing primary and secondary school.
- Primary and secondary school completion rates for adults across most age groups are higher for males than females in both provinces.
- Around half of the respondents in Renbel and a third in Isabel have participated in some form of community education.

Table 2: Currently Attending School for Youth, by Province and Gender

AGE COHORT	RENBEL			ISABEL		
	Male	Female	Overall	Male	Female	Overall
15-19	70.2%	77.3%	74.0%	64.1%	56.2%	59.5%
20-24	32.6%	23.1%	28.2%	14.7%	4.5%	8.3%

Table 3: Highest Level of Education Attainment for Adults, by Province and Gender

DECLARED LEVEL OF SCHOOLING	RENBEL			ISABEL		
	Male	Female	Overall	Male	Female	Overall
Never attended	2.9%	5.9%	4.4%	4.3%	9.7%	7.1%
Some primary	22.7%	25.6%	24.1%	21.6%	21.3%	21.5%
Completed primary	14.5%	14.4%	14.4%	13.7%	19.1%	16.5%
Some secondary	43.6%	46.4%	45.0%	39.5%	40.7%	38.9%
Completed secondary	4.7%	2.4%	3.5%	8.6%	2.7%	6.7%
University	11.6%	5.4%	8.5%	12.3%	6.5%	9.3%
Total	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.3 Language Experience and Literacy Self-declaration

- Local vernacular languages are the most common language spoken at home and Pijin is typically used when communicating with friends.
- English is rarely used to communicate at home and with friends, with less than 2% using it in the home and less than 6% using it with friends.
- 90.0% of respondents in Renbel and 80.9% in Isabel declare they can read and write a simple letter.

5.4 Literacy Assessment (See tables 4 and 5)

- The research reveals that only 17.5% and 33.9% of adults in Isabel and Renbel respectively are literate. This is substantially below the internationally reported literacy rate of 77% based

on self-declaration, and is of particular concern given the test for literacy was not difficult.

- The level of illiteracy across all age cohorts is a cause for concern in both provinces with 24% in Renbel and 37% in Isabel classified as illiterate.
- Primary school does not assure the attainment of literacy. Over 50% of adults who completed primary school were classified as semi-literate, with only 34.2% in Renbel and 24.4% in Isabel classified as literate.
- More respondents are classified as semi-literate than those who are literate. In Renbel province 42% of the respondents are semi-literate. In Isabel province 45.5% of the respondents are semi-literate, with gender bias in favour of males.
- Of those who completed primary school, in Renbel only 34.2% are literate, while in Isabel only 24.4% are literate.
- Schooling does have an important positive correlation with literacy; with each school level completed, the literacy rates increase.
- While younger cohorts are typically more literate, these figures nonetheless highlight the poor quality of primary and secondary education in Solomon Islands.
- Completion of secondary school does not assure literacy attainment. Of those who completed secondary school, in Renbel only 65.2% are literate, while in Isabel only 45.2% are literate.

Table 4: Literacy Classification, by Province and Gender

GENDER	RENBEL			ISABEL		
	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate
Male	23.6%	41.9%	34.5%	32.5%	48.1%	19.4%
Female	24.5%	42.2%	33.0%	40.6%	43.4%	16.0%
Overall	24.0%	42.0%	33.9%	37.0%	45.5%	17.5%

Table 5: Literacy Classification, by Province and Age

AGE COHORT	RENBEL			ISABEL		
	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate
15-19	13.7%	41.9%	44.4%	27.0%	56.6%	16.4%
20-24	11.8%	43.5%	44.7%	26.9%	51.1%	22.0%
25-29	22.6%	46.8%	30.6%	31.0%	48.5%	20.5%
30-39	22.6%	46.0%	31.5%	31.0%	50.0%	19.0%
40-49	30.5%	41.1%	28.4%	48.2%	38.3%	13.5%
50-60	50.0%	31.6%	18.4%	58.5%	28.2%	13.3%
Overall	24.0%	42.0%	33.9%	37.0%	45.5%	17.5%

5.5 Employment Experience (See table 6)

- Respondents with higher literacy levels are more likely to currently hold a job paid in money.
- Family connections, job skills, training and literacy level affect employability.
- Males and older respondents are more likely to have held a paid job.
- Lack of qualifications, poor paid job opportunities, home responsibilities and a preference to work at home or in the garden were the main reasons for not holding a job paid in money.

Table 6: Main Type of Work, by Province and Literacy Classification

DECLARED TYPE OF WORK	RENBEL			ISABEL		
	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate
Producing and selling own crafts	22.0%	12.8%	16.1%	21.6%	30.5%	48.1%
Farmer (selling most or all)	13.8%	8.1%	3.2%	61.9%	45.5%	29.3%

DECLARED TYPE OF WORK	RENBEL			ISABEL		
	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate	Non-literate	Semi-literate	Literate
Farmer (keeping most or all)	30.1%	24.4%	25.3%	2.2%	1.0%	1.1%
House work or raising children	5.7%	8.5%	3.8%	0.6%	0.8%	1.1%
Fisher (man or woman)	4.1%	0.4%	2.2%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%
Community or faith based org.	8.1%	9.4%	6.5%	1.0%	0.8%	0.0%
Business manager	1.6%	0.0%	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Domestic worker	1.6%	6.0%	9.7%	0.6%	1.2%	1.1%
Government official (local or national)	0.8%	3.0%	6.5%	0.0%	0.2%	0.6%
Professional (teacher, lawyer, etc.)	0.0%	5.6%	7.5%	2.9%	3.4%	7.2%
Trades (mechanic, builder, etc.)	4.9%	7.3%	5.9%	0.3%	0.8%	0.0%
Clerical/ Administration (business)	0.0%	0.4%	2.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%
Buying / selling other people's produce	0.0%	1.3%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Driver	0.8%	0.4%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Shop assistant	0.0%	1.3%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Other work	6.5%	11.1%	7.5%	8.3%	15.8%	11.1%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.2%

5.6 Wealth Standard

- There are many factors that can influence wealth accumulation, such as family connections and external remittances.
- As such, education experience and literacy are not consistent predictors of wealth.
- In Isabel province there is a clear correlation between literacy and wealth, with literates over-represented in higher wealth quintiles and non-literates overrepresented in lower wealth quintiles.

- However in Renbel province no correlation was found between wealth and literacy or wealth and employment.

6. The Challenges Ahead

The following section of the report will discuss briefly the implications of the survey results with reference to the Education For All (EFA) goals three to six. The survey findings highlight that if Renbel and Isabel provinces are indicative of the whole country, then the Solomon Islands is unlikely to achieve many of the EFA goals by 2015. The report shows that there are serious concerns regarding literacy for adults and out of school youth and further concerns about the quality of existing school education.

The third EFA goal focuses on youth and adults skills and requires that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programs. In both provinces, many respondents declared that primary and secondary education were not interesting and were irrelevant to finding paid employment. For those who did attend formal schooling literacy was not assured, and amongst those respondents who declared they were currently attending school, 38.9% in Renbel and 64.2% in Isabel were semi-literate. These along with many other findings within the report highlight that in both Renbel and Isabel provinces, the learning needs of youth and adults are not being met.

The fourth EFA goal focuses on adult literacy, urging a commitment to improve adult literacy by 50% by 2015. A key finding of the report is that self-declared literacy was an inappropriate measure of literacy and in fact exaggerated literacy levels amongst all age cohorts. In both provinces over 65% of respondents were clas-

sified as non-literate or semi-literate, with only 33.9% in Renbel and 17.5% in Isabel classified as literate. Further, for those who did not attend formal schooling it is almost certain they will remain illiterate. Moreover, the adult literacy challenge is significant, especially in Isabel, with little progress evident for the fourth EFA goal.

The fifth EFA goal focuses on ensuring gender parity across all aspects of education. As noted in multiple sections in the report there was a significant gender gap which negatively impacts on women in Renbel and Isabel provinces. This is notable in terms of primary school intake, transition, completion and literacy rates. Within Isabel province in particular, significant action needs to be taken to ensure females experience the same educational opportunities as males.


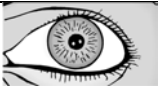

Finally in terms of the sixth EFA goal, the report raises significant concerns about the quality of education in both provinces. Although literacy rates improved with higher schooling, attending school was no guarantee of achieving literacy, as many respondents who attended secondary school were assessed to be semi or non-literate. Further, many respondents who declared they were currently attending school were unable to demonstrate sufficient skills to be classified as literate. Despite the links between literacy, wealth and employment, there is a significant issue around the quality of formal education in both provinces.

This report provides accurate information about the education of respondents in Isabel and Renbel, thus enabling informed policy debate and action to take place between Government, education partners, civil society and the community. ASPBAE and COESI therefore call upon all stakeholders to urgently take up the issues highlighted in the report and to work together to ensure within the Solomon Islands EFA by 2015 is more than a rhetorical slogan.

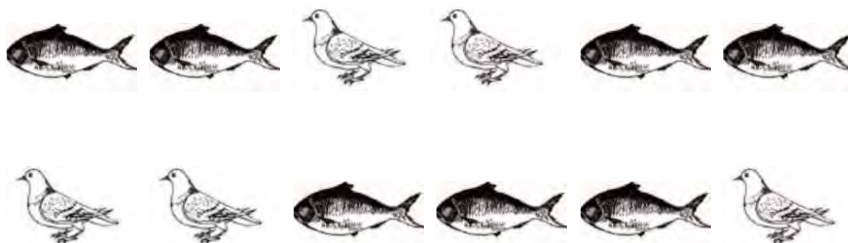
Appendix

Appendix A: Sample Questions from Survey Tool

The following two sample questions are from the survey tool used in Renbel and Isabel. The first question is from the reading skills' section of the assessment tool and the second question is from the numeracy skills' section. The scoring rubric used to calculate the composite literacy score appears at the bottom of the question.

Can you match the pictures and words? Iu save matsim olketa piksa ia wetem olketa wods ia? [show participant this page and ask him/her to draw a line matching the correct words and pictures]	
	Eye ae
	Bird bed
	Fish fis
[0 points for incorrect or no matches; 2 points for one correct match; 4 points for two correct; 6 points for three correct]	

How many fish and how many birds are there in the picture?
Haomas fis an haomas sfala bed naoo yu save lukim long dis fala piksa?
[show participant this page and ask for oral answers]



[0 points for incorrect or no answers; 4 points for one correct answer; 6 points for two correct answers]

Appendix B: Survey definitions

Literacy is understood as the possession of reading, writing and numeracy skills and the ability to use such skills in familiar contexts in everyday life

Non-literate is being unable to:

- read simple words;
- write simple words;
- count objects; and
- use these skills in everyday life.

Semi-literate is able to:

- read simple words or read some basic text;

- write simple words or write simple sentences;
- count objects or perform basic calculations, and
- use these skills in a limited way in everyday life.

Literate is able to:

- read and comprehend basic text with ease;
- write complete simple sentences with correct spelling;
- count objects & perform calculations; and
- use these skills in everyday life.

Adult is between the ages of 25 and 60 years

Youth is between the ages of 15 and 24 years

Appendix C: Additional Notes on Survey Methodology and Analysis

The methodology used to classify respondents as literate, semi-literate or non-literate is as per previous surveys. The literacy classification of respondents was based on a composite score for the eleven questions within the literacy assessment, with a maximum possible composite score of 66. Those respondents who answered all eleven questions correctly obtained a composite score of 66 and were classified as literate. To be classified a semi-literate, the respondent needed to demonstrate literacy skills in each of the reading, writing, numeracy and application skills questions by providing at least one partially correct answer for each literacy skill area. For example a respondent who achieved a composite score of 30, but a score of zero within the numeracy skills section would be classified as non-literate, even if they performed well on the reading, writing and application questions. In this report the results of

the survey are presented in percentage form to one decimal place, to enable comparison with nationally reported figures, between provinces and amongst disaggregated groups such as males and females. It is noteworthy that the style of question, impacts on the analysis and thus interpretation of the results.

Acknowledgements

A full report is available from ASPBAE via bernie@asphae.org. The research was conducted in collaboration with the Coalition for Education Solomon Islands (COESI) with much appreciated support from the World Bank.

The main contributors to the expansion and adaption of the survey and assessment tools were Bernie Lovegrove, Joanna Lindner, Santisouk Phongsavan from ASPBAE Australia, Paul Kakai and Mary Haridi from COESI, Solomon Islands, and Rene Raya and his team at Action for Economic Reform (AER) in the Philippines. Mr Raya and his team also contributed substantially to the development of the data encoding and cross-tabulation tools.

ASPBAE would like to acknowledge the excellent work of COESI in undertaking the survey and literacy assessment in Isabel and Renbel Provinces. Special thanks to Paul Kakai, Mary Haridi and Ali Tuhanuku for coordinating the survey and assessment on the ground and the subsequent data encoding process. Thank you also to the excellent team of COESI surveyors.

Finally we would like to acknowledge the people of Isabel and Renbel provinces, Solomon Islands, who readily participated in the survey and assessment process. ASPBAE and COESI will be sharing the findings with provincial leaders in the coming year. We hope this report proves to be a valuable resource to inform education policy development in Solomon Islands and especially that it acts as a catalyst to ensure increased access to better quality education for all in the Solomon Islands.

Biographical notes

Louise Ellerton works as Program Manager for ASPBAE Australia, providing capacity development support to national education coalitions especially in Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands. Louise led the development of the ASPBAE Education Experience Survey and Literacy Assessment: Renbel and Isabel Provinces, Solomon Islands and is currently completing a similar report on 5 provinces in Papua New Guinea. Louise previously worked as Education Officer for UNESCO's Pacific office in Apia, Samoa. She has degrees in Commerce and Engineering and training in education policy and planning.

Louise can be contacted on louise.aspbae@gmail.com

Bernie Lovegrove is Executive Director of ASPBAE Australia and is the Asia Pacific Regional Coordinator of the Civil Society Education Fund (CSEF), which provides capacity support to thirteen national education coalitions in the Asia Pacific region. Bernie co-developed the ASPBAE Educational Experience Survey and Adult Literacy Assessment Tool which is now used in PNG, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu. Bernie has worked with ASPBAE since 1995 and previously with Oxfam Australia and the Australian Council for International Development. He has a Masters in International and Community Development.

Bernie can be contacted on bernie.aspbae@gmail.com

Joanna Lindner was formerly a Program Officer with ASPBAE Australia, 2008-2010, focusing on capacity development support to national education coalitions in Melanesia. Joanna has Masters Degrees in International Affairs and in Diplomacy. Joanna now works with the Australian Council for International Development (ACFID) as Coordinator of Humanitarian Programs.

Joanna can be contacted on joannamaia@gmail.com

Mathias Pfeifer

DEVELOPMENTS IN LITERACY RESEARCH AND PRACTICE – PERSPECTIVES FROM SOUTH- AND SOUTHEAST ASIA

Summary: The concept of ‘literacy practices’ emanating from the *New Literacy Studies* considers literacy as deeply entangled with and grounded in social and cultural contexts – as opposed to an understanding of literacy as a neutral tool and context-independent variable. As such, the concept offers a useful approach to a critical interrogation of literacy as embedded within power relations. This is illustrated using examples from a number of recently conducted ethnographic studies in a number of Asian countries. The article also indicates how the ‘literacy practices’ concept can be utilized to inform the development of demand-oriented adult literacy programs.

ສະຫຼຸບ: ແນວຄິດທາງດ້ານການປະຕິບັດເລື່ອງການຮູ້ໜັງສື ທີ່ໄດ້ມາຈາກງານຄວ້າວິໄຈທີ່ຊື່ວ່າ: *New Literacy Studies* ແມ່ນຖືເອົາການຮູ້ໜັງສືນີ້ຕິດພັນກັບຂະໜາດຂອງສັງຄົມ ແລະ ວັດທະນະທຳ-ກົງກັນຂ້າມກັບຄວາມເຂົ້າໃຈຂອງຄຳວ່າການຮູ້ໜັງສືເປັນເຄື່ອງມືທີ່ຖືວ່າເປັນຕົວປ່ຽນອິດສະຫຼະ. ເມື່ອເປັນດັ່ງນັ້ນແລ້ວ, ແນວຄວາມຄິດນີ້ໄດ້ນຳໃຊ້ວິທີການທີ່ເຂົ້າໃນການສອບຖາມເລື່ອງການຮູ້ໜັງສືທີ່ຕິດພັນກັບຄວາມສຳພັນ ເລື່ອງອຳນາດ. ອັນນີ້ມັນໄດ້ສະແດງອອກມາໃຫ້ເຫັນໂດຍນຳໃຊ້ຕົວຢ່າງຈາກບົດຄົ້ນ ຄວ້າຫຼາຍໆບົດທີ່ຫາກໍ່ເຮັດສຳເລັດຢູ່ໃນຫຼາຍປະເທດໃນທະວີບອາຊີ. ບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້າບົດນີ້ຍັງໄດ້ຊີ້ໃຫ້ເຫັນເຖິງວິທີທີ່ຈະນຳໃຊ້ແນວຄວາມຄິດການປະຕິບັດເລື່ອງການຮູ້ໜັງສືເພື່ອລາຍງານຄວາມຄືບໜ້າຂອງວຽກງານການຮູ້ໜັງສືຂອງຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ຕາມຄວາມຕ້ອງການ.

សង្ខេប ៖ ទស្សនទាន “ ការអនុវត្តអក្ខរកម្ម ” ដែលមានប្រភពចេញពីការសិក្សាអក្ខរកម្ម ថ្មីៗ ចាត់ទុកអក្ខរកម្ម ថាមានទំនាក់ទំនង និងចាក់បូសគល់យ៉ាងជ្រៅនៅក្នុងបរិបទសង្គម និងវប្បធម៌ ផ្ទុយពីការយល់ថា អក្ខរកម្មគឺជាឧបករណ៍អព្យាក្រឹតភាពមួយ និងជាអថេរដែល មិនអាស្រ័យទៅតាមបរិបទ។ ដូច្នេះហើយ ទស្សនទាននេះផ្តល់នូវវិធីសាស្ត្រដ៏មាន ប្រយោជន៍មួយ សម្រាប់ធ្វើការស្រាវជ្រាវលើតួអង្គនៃអក្ខរកម្ម ដូចដែលត្រូវបានបង្កប់យ៉ាង ជ្រៅនៅក្នុងទំនាក់ទំនងអំណាច។ ចំណុចនេះត្រូវបានលើកយកមកបង្ហាញ ដោយប្រើប្រាស់ ឧទាហរណ៍ពីការសិក្សាបែបជាតិពន្ធុ-សាស្ត្រជាច្រើន ដែលត្រូវបានធ្វើឡើងកាលពីពេលថ្មីៗ នេះ នៅតាមប្រទេសនៅអាស៊ីជាច្រើន។ អត្ថបទនេះក៏បង្ហាញឱ្យឃើញផងដែរពីរបៀបដែល គេអាចប្រើប្រាស់ទស្សនទានអំពី “ ការអនុវត្តអក្ខរកម្ម ” ដើម្បីផ្តល់ព័ត៌មានដល់ការបង្កើតនូវ កម្មវិធីអក្ខរកម្មមនុស្សពេញវ័យ ដោយផ្ដោតលើតម្រូវការ។

1. Introduction

According to UNESCO statistics, the number of illiterate men and women in the world is approximately 760 million¹. This should be considered a conservative estimate as David Archer notes: “The real figure is probably is probably nearer to two billion and still more if numeracy and the actual use of these skills are taken into account.”²

Wherever the truth lies, one fact is for sure: in the foreseeable future adult illiteracy is going to remain a huge challenge (and especially in South Asia, in countries like India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, where roughly half of today’s non-literate adults live.)³This alone should remind us not to neglect adult literacy as a subject of research. And by no means is this solely the task of the so-called

development-oriented adult education research. Volker Lenhart argues that particularly “adult literacy deserves much more attention from [German] Critical Educational Theory” with an international focus, which could be accused of hardly “looking beyond the Brandenburger Gate”.⁴

2. From the great divide to literacy practices

In the early 1980s, the psychologists Scriber and Cole⁵ challenged the predominant notion that literacy automatically leads to higher-order thinking and cognitive skills. This assumption was related to the popular “great-divide” theory, which postulates a fundamental division between preliterate and literate cultures⁶. The notion that literacy, here often understood as an isolated cognitive entity independent of the social context, leads to profound cognitive restructuring, logical and abstract thinking, and as such should be considered as a *precondition* for development and progress, also served as an rationale for mass literacy campaigns. A UNESCO report from 1972 states: “The illiterate man’s thought...remains concrete. He thinks in images not in concepts. His thought is, in fact, a series of images, juxtaposed or in sequence, and it rarely proceeds by induction or deduction.”⁷ Scriber and Cole challenged this view by outlining an anthropological model for interpreting literacy as a social practice.

During the 1980s, the so-called New Literacy Studies (NLS) movement, with the anthropologist and linguist Brian Street at the forefront, systematically developed such a socio-cultural concept of literacy, which challenged the fundamental assumptions of literacy as a universal and ‘neutral’ technology of the mind independent of social contexts.⁸ Brian Street argues for social practice mode that

sees literacy as “encapsulated within cultural wholes and within power structures.”⁹ This, of course, also means to rethink assumptions in regard to literacy campaigns; following this model one cannot simply assume that, “Introducing literacy to the poor, ‘illiterate’ people, villages, urban youth etc. will have the effect of enhancing their cognitive skills, increasing their economic prospects, making them better citizens, regardless of the social and economic conditions that accounted for their ‘illiteracy’ in the first place.”¹⁰

Following the social practice model, literacy is not primarily located within individuals but in social interactions. Values, meanings and identities surrounding literacy have to be explored and unpacked in order to grasp literacy in social interactions adequately.¹¹ Methodologically, the proponents of the NLS usually resort to ethnographic approaches to social research to achieve this task, while attempting to link their concepts to different social theories.¹² Furthermore, the idea of a ‘unity of literacy’ as a universal concept is challenged. At different times, in different cultures and social settings literacy takes on specific forms and meanings, hence the concept of *multiple literacies* is introduced. In addition, literacy is always deeply enmeshed in power relations: “Literacy, in this sense, is always contested, both its meaning and in its practise, hence particular versions of it are always, ‘ideological’, they are always rooted in a particular in a particular world-view and in a desire for that view of literacy to dominate and to marginalise others...”¹³ And it is becoming more and more evident that power relations have profound impacts on numeracy practices as well.¹⁴

The concept of literacy as social practice has evolved in the past 15 years and has influenced discourses about literacy and development. The focus of this article will rest on studies from several Asian countries that help illustrate literacy as a social practice and may contribute to promote literacy programmes.

3. Literacy research in and from South-Southeast Asia

Research into literacy practices in South and Southeast Asia usually follow the methodological inventory – most and foremost ethnography – and theoretical concepts developed in the framework of the *New Literacy Studies*. One can, however, also find empirical research using quantitative methods that provide arguments in favour of a socio-cultural understanding of literacy. Allan Bernando, a cognitive psychologist from the Philippines, employed a quantitative research design to compare cognitive skills of literate and illiterate adults. His results point to a complex relationship between literacy (and schooling), literate practices, and cognition: “First, the factor that affects thought is not literacy acquisition in and of itself, but the degree to which literacy skills have been integrated into the community activities and practices. Second, the effects are specific to and localized in certain functions of thought. Finally, the effects are mediated effects, that is, they are achieved through the individual’s participation in the activities of a literate community. Hence, the effects touch even the illiterate community members.”¹⁵ Bernando hence argues that *community practices* rather than literacy acquisition are decisive in respect to possible cognitive effects of literacy, which brings him closer to some premises of the social practice model of literacy.

There are a number of interesting ethnographic studies that provide insights into literacy practices and literacy programmes in the region. Anna Robinson-Pant, for example, was awarded with an UNESCO literacy prize for her ethnographic approach comparing women’s literacy programmes in Nepal. She focused on the “link between *kind of literacy* and the *kind of development* in each programme”¹⁶, and found that the common distinction of function and

critical literacy, the latter based on Paulo Freire's theory of conscientization, made little sense on the ground in the context of the literacy programmes she studied in Nepal: "literacy approaches in practice look very different from theory", because rather than the theory underlying the programmes, "in practice, literacy teaching was more affected by social factors, such as relationships between facilitators and class or participants' view on education."¹⁷ Her nuanced discussion of the dynamics and discourses involved in the literacy programmes at different levels are an "important antidote to the dominant assumptions about literacy, women and development based on statistical accounts of literacy 'levels'; correlations of 'literacy' with 'indicators' of women's health, 'empowerment' etc.; and unrealistic ideas about the significance of literacy for rural women in development contexts."¹⁸

In recent years, the *Learning Empowerment Through Training in Ethnographic Research* (LETTER) programme led to a number of ethnographic studies in several countries in South Asia¹⁹ as well as in sub-Saharan Africa²⁰. So far, workshops have been conducted in India, Uganda and Ethiopia; some outcomes are presented below.

3.1. Literacy and numeracy in the context of power relations in India

Results from studies conducted in India, Nepal and Bangladesh can be found in *Exploring the Everyday: Ethnographic Approaches to Literacy and Numeracy*²¹. In rural areas of Uttar Pradesh, India, for example, researchers studying the literacy environment found there is not so much a scarcity of written materials but that power relations impede access to printed and written information for women and lower-caste villagers.²² Public spaces within the villages are dotted with wall writings and posters presenting health,

hygiene and other development messages as well as election slogans. Most of these wall writings and posters, however, are located where the wealthy, higher-castes villagers live. Poor villagers have limited access to these areas, and hence to the information. Furthermore, women across all castes find it difficult to engage with materials of the public literacy environment as public spaces are dominated by men, while many women are restricted in their mobility. Male family members also often control printed and written materials which can be found at home.

The India-based Non-Governmental Organisation NIRANTAR that fights for women's right concluded after conducting the research that attempts to improve women's literacy should address power relations: "Our programme could include reading wall-writing as part of the curriculum. But to make it effective, this would necessitate enabling women to deal with issues of mobility and accessing the public domain even before we can get to the actual act of coding and decoding what is written."²³ Apart from the literacy environment, NIRANTAR also became aware of the impact of power relations on numeracy practices in these villages.²⁴ They observed how women are put at a disadvantage on the local male-dominated market, where the women encounter the formal metric system of measurement, while they normally use an informal, traditional measurement system. In their villages the women measure grains with ease and confidence but they appear helpless and are prone to being cheated at the local market. The difference between traditional and metric systems of measurements was but one factor contributing to this. Status differences also play an important role when women deal with (male) vendors. Some women or their families are indebted to the vendors, which puts them in difficult situation when bargaining. Due to prevailing power inequalities rather than merely lack of skills or knowledge vendors are often in a position to get 'special prices' for the goods brought by

the women. The NIRANTAR researchers observed: "We looked at how literacy and numeracy are used or not used by women in the market – one aspect is not being able to calculate but the other is the power relationships involved in doing it."²⁵ Insights gained through the study have given the organisation new directions for future work with poor, disadvantaged women: "An important breakthrough for the research team was the realisation that social and gender issues could be interrogated through numeracy."²⁶

3.2 Hidden literacies in the lives of illiterates in Pakistan

In *Hidden Literacies: Ethnographic Studies of Literacy and Numeracy Practices* Rafat Nabi presents and analyses the engagement of illiterates in urban Pakistan with literacy and numeracy.²⁷ Nabi made the surprising finding that a number of people who have never attended school or adult literacy classes, including a domestic worker, a vegetable seller, and a plumber, are actually able to read and write words and even sentences, as well as to do written calculations. She observed and interviewed a vegetable seller who has taught himself necessary reading, writing and calculating skills in order to do his job efficiently. He even notes songs and poems with which he praises his goods. The plumber is able to write bills, including doing written calculations and writing words of the spare parts – in Urdu and English language. Most of the persons interviewed by Nabi developed literacy learning programmes for and by themselves, specifically tailored to their occupational literacy and numeracy needs.²⁸

Interestingly, all these persons insisted on being illiterates all the same. The plumber, for example, was asked: "Why do you say you are illiterate but you can write in two languages?" He said, with embarrassment, 'Because I have never been to school. I can only

write the names of those things which I buy and which are involved in my business.”²⁹ At one point he added: „I don’t not have a certificate or paper to show that I am literate, which means I am illiterate. Educated people’s decision about me is perhaps right, I am illiterate“³⁰. In the same manner, people who obtained such certificates would be considered literate, no matter what they are actually able to read and write. It should be kept in mind that it is not attempted to generalize findings of ethnographic studies due to the nature of the research; the aim is rather to *challenge generalizations* and preconceived notions, for instance about what illiterates are or can (as this case shows, some of those considered illiterates do engage effectively with texts and calculations).

Nabi also tried to learn more about the attitudes of these semi-literates towards non-formal education classes. The vegetable seller reported: “People like me need practical skills like selling, marketing and record keeping, profit and loss calculation. Tell me, which school is teaching us all this in a short time, that which is useful for our small business and to attract our customers?”³¹ And after reflecting on the subject, he added: “I wish I could attend a special school like adult schools which can teach us all these... Perhaps schools are not the solution of my problem because school teaching is far away from the practical world.”³² The formal literacies taught in formal and non-formal education classes on offer in this region indeed appear to be of little practical value in the daily lives of people like the vegetable seller or the plumber. On the other hand, Nabi discerned one highly valued element that is attached to formal literacies: recognition and increase of status.³³ It appears that stigmatization of illiterates – illiteracy is often considered synonymous with ignorance – causes a great deal of suffering. Overcoming this stigma by attending adult literacy courses seems to large extent account for the widely reported gains in confidence by participants.³⁴

4. Literacy as a social practice – influences on literacy programmes

In the context of a study conducted in Bangladesh³⁵, Alan Rogers and colleagues found similar cases of illiterates who have developed *proto-literacies* as described by Nabi. Rogers took such findings from Bangladesh and elsewhere to develop the *real literacies* approach, which suggests adult literacy programmes should focus on materials surrounding the learners (at home, the workplace etc.) rather than using primers and textbooks.³⁶ He coined the terms *embedded literacies and literacy second*, arguing for integrating literacy in non-formal vocational education and income-generating activities. The literacy/numeracy component here may be taken up *after* learning and improving the occupational skills, not necessarily at the beginning of the training. A survey of literacy programmes combined with vocational training/income-generating activities in sub-Saharan Africa revealed that programmes following a *literacy second* approach appear to be more effective than those that start with literacy.³⁷ Alan Rogers also tried to re-define the post-literacy programmes: „Instead of post-literacy being seen as a stage following on from adult literacy classes, a more appropriate definition might be the provision of support to all those who feel that they have difficulty in the practice of literacy in real situations. [...] Such support, to be most effective, will need to be provided more frequently at the point of use rather than in special classes and by other helpers as well as by literacy practitioners.“³⁸

The Community Literacy Project in Nepal (CLPN), piloted from 1998 to 2003, was an attempt to put the insights of Rogers and the NLS into practice.³⁹ Bryan Maddox, who supported the project as a

consultant, explains the rationale of CLPN: "Literacy is something that is used and learned in the community, rather than just being an activity of the literacy class, and that communication and access to information can be enhanced through oral, visual and literacy based practices."⁴⁰ The aim of the project was hence to improve the communicative repertoire (rather than only literacy) of the villagers to improve access to information. Opportunities to develop literacy skills were offered to all those interested, to all those who felt the need, not only to illiterates. Conventional literacy learning was however not the major component of the project. Speakers were installed to broadcast radio programmes in the target villages, allowing community members to get information on important topics in a language understood by all. Local literacy and numeracy practices and specific needs were explored through ethnographic studies and participatory research, forming the basis for tailor-made assistance in relevant areas. 'Learn what they needed' was the guiding principle, even if it meant that illiterates would be merely interested to learn signing their names and then focus on improving on other aspects of their communicative repertoire.⁴¹

Regarding the issue of signing one's name, it is interesting to note that a number of ethnography studies show how important this highly symbolic act can be in the lives of illiterates and semi-literates.⁴² Apart from learning to how sign one's name; participants appear to be often more interested to learn how to speak the dominant language, rather than becoming fully literate. In contrast to a blanket approach, where all or most illiterates are expected to acquire basic literacy skills, the Community Literacy Project in Nepal focused on improving specific literacy and numeracy skills of specific community members. Participants of the local saving and credit schemes, for example, learnt how to improve bookkeeping; so-called scribes were trained who offer their services in respect to reading, writing and translating letters, documents etc. to other

villagers. Apart from such attempts to improve skills of villagers, the Community Literacy Project in Nepal also focused at strengthening the local literacy environment by organising workshops for local publishers and newspaper as organisations active in the areas, encouraging the production of reader-friendly materials in the local language.⁴³ Unfortunately, the final assessment of the Community Literacy Project was hindered as the political situation in the target area deteriorated considerably towards the end of the project.

5. Conclusion

The conceptualisation of literacy as a social practice and the related ethnographic studies have enriched the debate about literacy and development, contributing to better grasp the complexity and plurality of literacy and numeracy practices, as well as the extent to which they are interwoven with power structures. This may allow us to further challenge the common fixation on improving literacy rates as part of the „development as a positivist politics of measurement“⁴⁴, including the rigid dichotomization between literacy and illiteracy (suggesting a magic line to be crossed), and the assumed simple causal link that is established between literacy, empowerment and economic and social development. The *New Literacy Studies*, however, do not provide simple solutions. Brian Street even warned that, “The more ethnographers demonstrate that literacy does not necessarily have the effects that the rhetoric has suggested – improved health, cognition, empowerment—the harder does it come for policymakers to persuade funders to support literacy programs.”⁴⁵ Nevertheless, one should not ignore such insights; it should rather motivate us to re-think national and international development goals in respect to literacy and education:

“The goal is not ‘eradicating illiteracy’ (teaching everyone to read and write) but to ensure universal access to the written culture (literacy plus effective access to, and use of, reading and writing in all its forms). Literacy is just a means to reach that objective”.⁴⁶

Strategies like ‘learn what they need’ and tailored attempts to strengthen literacy and numeracy practices and the entire communicative repertoire, as piloted in the Community Literacy Project in Nepal, are steps in the right direction, but the road is a long one. Rosa María Torres reminds us that it is only possible to realise literate families, literate communities and literate societies when “dealing with poverty in a structural manner, not only through adhoc focalized interventions but mainly through profound changes in the political, economic and social model that sustain poverty and inequality. There is no way to eliminate illiteracy without eliminating poverty, ensuring equity and promoting national human and economic development.”⁴⁷

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Biographical notes

Mathias Pfeifer, born 1982, studied educational science, sociology and psychology in Jena. He has been working as consultant in the field of non-formal education and development in Laos and Cambodia since 2010.

Address: *c/o div international* Regional Office South- and Southeast Asia, Sisatthanak District, 351/19 Unit, P.O. Box 1215, Vientiane, Lao PDR

Email: pfeifermathias@yahoo.com

Thomas Bohlmann

CURRENT SITUATION OF THE TVET SECTOR IN LAO PDR WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON THE EDUCATION OF VOCATIONAL TEACHERS

Summary: Although its economy has grown remarkably in recent years, Lao PDR is still one of the least developed countries. Therefore, the country has set the goal to leave this status until 2020. One of the most prominent challenges in this direction is the development of the vocational education sector, which currently doesn't meet the requirements of the growing economy. Both the quantity and the quality of skilled workers, supplied by the labour market, illustrates, that there is a tremendous need for action. Since 2004 the National University of Laos educates vocational teachers- an essential prerequisite- on bachelor level. A recent tracer study shows whether this bachelor program, in principle, is capable to prepare the future teachers for their professional life, whether the graduates are actually working as vocational teachers and- if necessary- how the program should be modified. This article comprises results of a survey conducted with the kind support of the Regional Co-operation Platform Vocational Education and Teacher Training in Asia (RCP), GIZ and the South- and Southeast-Asian office of *dvv international* in particular.

ສະຫຼຸບ: ເຖິງແມ່ນວ່າເສດຖະກິດໄດ້ເຕີບໂຕຢ່າງໂດດເດັ່ນໃນປີທີ່ຜ່ານມາ, ສປປ ລາວ ຍັງຄົງເປັນນຶ່ງຂອງບັນດາປະເທດທີ່ດ້ອຍພັດທະນາທີ່ສຸດ. ດັ່ງນັ້ນ, ປະເທດໄດ້ກຳນົດເປົ້າໝາຍໃຫ້ທຸລຸດພົ້ນອອກຈາກສະຖານະດັ່ງກ່າວໃນປີ 2020. ນຶ່ງໃນຄວາມທ້າທາຍທີ່ໂດດເດັ່ນທີ່ສຸດໃນທິດທາງນີ້ຄືການພັດທະນາທາງດ້ານອາຊີວະສຶກສາ ຊຶ່ງປັດຈຸບັນບໍ່ກົງກັບຄວາມຕ້ອງການຂອງການເຕີບໂຕທາງດ້ານເສດຖະກິດ. ທັງປະລິມານ ແລະ ຄຸນນະພາບ ຂອງຜູ້ສຳນານງານ ຊຶ່ງຈັດທຳໂດຍຕະຫຼາດແຮງງານສະແດງໃຫ້ເຫັນວ່າມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການຢ່າງຫລວງຫລາຍສຳລັບການດຳເນີນການ. ຕັ້ງແຕ່ປີ 2004.

ដែរឬទេ ថា តើអ្នកដែលបានបញ្ចប់ការសិក្សា នឹងធ្វើការងារធម្មតាដូចគ្រូអប់រំវិជ្ជាជីវៈដែរ និងប្រសិនបើចាំបាច់ថា តើកម្មវិធីត្រូវធ្វើការផ្លាស់ប្តូរយ៉ាងដូចម្តេច? អត្ថបទនេះបានបញ្ចូល នូវលទ្ធផលនៃការសិក្សាស្រាវជ្រាវមួយដែលធ្វើឡើងដោយមានការជួយឧបត្ថម្ភពីកម្មវិធីសហប្រតិបត្តិការក្នុងតំបន់នៃវេទិកាការអប់រំ និងការបណ្តុះបណ្តាលគ្រូបង្រៀន (RCP) នៃអង្គការ GIZ និងជាពិសេសពីការិយាល័យអង្គការអន្តរជាតិ *dvv international* ប្រចាំនៅ តំបន់អាស៊ីអាគ្នេយ៍ និងអាស៊ីខាងត្បូង ។

Lao PDR still belongs to the group of least developed countries despite a strongly growing economy over the last several years. In 2010 the gross domestic product is expected to grow by 7.5 % and from 2011 to 2015 an average growth of at least 8.0 % is assumed¹. Apart from this solely economic development, the Lao government is continuing to meet its poverty-related Millennium Development Goals to be achieved by 2015 and is striving to leave the status of being a least developed country by 2020.

One of the most challenging tasks for this ambitious timeline is the development of the Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector. On one hand it has to absorb an increasing number of young girls and boys, who are leaving school (“population in working age (15-64 years) will increase from 3.76 million people in year 2011 to 4.10 million in 2015”)² and on the other hand this sector has to provide enterprises with the badly needed labor force. “In the year 2015, there will be a demand of 3.26 million workers, but the workforce supply will be only 3.17 million (including 276,828 new workers, average 55,365 workers per year).”³

1. Present situation of the TVET-sector in general

Currently 21 technical and vocational schools and/or colleges under the supervision of the Ministry of Education (MoE) are in charge of providing vocational education in Lao PDR (see Fig. 1). Furthermore, an additional number of TVET facilities under the responsibility of other ministries and private schools/colleges are offering vocational education as well. Together these training facilities educate about 50,000 students per year.

To provide the aforementioned institutions with qualified teachers, the first study program for vocational teachers at Bachelor level has been established in September 2004 at the Vocational Teacher Training Division (VTTD) at the Faculty of Engineering (FE) / National University of Laos (NUoL) with support of the Lao-German HRDME program (Human Resource Development for a Market Economy). The Vocational Education Development Centre (VEDC) has been educating vocational teachers since 1999 as well, albeit on the non-academic level of Higher Diploma. Unfortunately, despite noteworthy national and international efforts and good progress, both teacher-training institutions are not able to supply a sufficient number of well-trained teachers (less than 50/year). In order to alleviate the lack of well-trained teachers, VEDC and various colleges, which belong to the area of Vocational Education, have been authorized by decree of the Ministry of Education (MoE) to train vocational teachers at Bachelor level as well. Despite being authorized by the Ministry, these approaches have evolved in an uncoordinated manner disregarding commonly recognized standards.

Unfortunately the TVET sector in Lao PDR is currently not able to live up to the expectations of the labor market both on the de-

mand and on the supply side. According to the Asian Development Bank, “The sector and labour market assessments indicate that

- TVET enrolments are declining in high-demand skill areas and where skill shortages are greatest (e.g., construction), and
- only a small proportion of companies recruit workers directly from TVET institutions and few companies have any relationship with TVET institutions.”⁴

Furthermore, the aforementioned assessments reveal that “employer and trade association interviews indicated a strong negative image of TVET. It was repeatedly stressed that TVET graduates at all levels have to be trained again by the economic units. The training currently being provided in TVET institutions was considered to be exclusively theoretical, and delivered by teachers (sometimes graduates from the TVET school) who do not have the necessary work experience or real skills.”⁵ Considering these reports it becomes all the more essential to separate the education of vocational teachers from their alma mater colleges in order to enable a minimum of quality and evaluation on an academic level. Only then the vicious cycle can be interrupted where poorly trained students remain at the same college to become poorly qualified vocational teachers, who in turn insufficiently train the new generation of vocational students perpetuating the cycle.

A further difficulty is that vocational education, provided by the TVET-sector, increasingly misses the demand of the labor market. The labor market assessment identified “five major sectors of current and apparently likely continuing skills shortages”⁶: furniture, construction, construction sub-trades (masonry, carpentry, electrical, plumbing etc.), tourism and hospitality, mechanical maintenance and repair trades. The sobering forecast, identified by the assessment, is justified by the fact that the number of desperately

needed skilled workers (certificate level), trained by public TVET institutions, has dropped in recent years. In 2006/07 407 out of 13,065 students were trained at certificate level, while in 2008/09 the number dropped to 68 out of 17,926. Unfortunately, a reverse of this trend cannot be expected in the near future. On one hand, training in these trades is not attractive for young people, because it has a bad image. On the other hand, the schools are not keen on offering sufficient training, because it is too expensive, too difficult and has a bad reputation for them as well. On the contrary, Higher Diploma programs (IT, business administration etc.) have become the fastest growing component of TVET, despite an even faster growing oversupply of graduates. It can therefore be expected, that skilled workers still have to be recruited from neighboring countries, especially from Vietnam, to fill the gap.

In summary it can be stated that the TVET-sector of Lao PDR suffers from a bad image, caused by its inability to cater to labor market needs, its lack of adjusting to market demand and supply, particularly regarding the skill levels and the sectors where training is needed, and an insufficient number of vocational teachers, whose qualifications are considered less than sufficient for the market needs.

2. Quantitative Aspects of Vocational Education in Lao PDR

In demand driven vocational education systems, educational institutions receive signals as to which qualifications are in demand from enterprises and/or administrations and as to which level educated labor force is needed. Regrettably Lao PDR does not offer an effective labor market information system. "The study noted that a

critical weakness in the Lao PDR . . . [is] the absence of up-to-date market information, so that it acted as a constraint to economic planning and to the effective operation of the Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) system.”⁷

The MoE stated in its strategic plan that “there were 9,587 vocational and technical students in 2000 and [an] increase to 24,874 students in 2005”⁸. Each year the Ministry requests that all TVET schools under its supervision report the number of students enrolled. For the school year 2009/10 the schools reported an enrollment of 19,950 students – an obvious mismatch, as a general increase of student numbers is evident.

In the same paragraph of its strategic plan the MoE mentioned the number of teaching staff, which has also increased “from 1,586 teachers in 2000 to 2,363 teachers in 2005”⁹. It should be noted that these numbers are controversial to the total number of 1,206 teachers (2008/09), result of a MoE-internal calculation (see Fig. 1) and the number of 1,405 teachers (2009/10), reported by the Department in charge¹⁰. It can be assumed that the discrepancy between the reported numbers of students and teachers is caused on one hand by the absence of up-to-date data as mentioned above. On the other hand it is caused by the fact that sometimes the statistic data only covers schools under the supervision of MoE and sometimes schools under the supervision of other ministries also (e. g. Labour and Social Welfare, Public Health) and private schools.

Using these numbers teacher-student ratios for different years can be calculated. On average one teacher has to teach about 13.69 students in school year 2006/07. Three years later, in school year 2009/10, the teacher-student ratio remains comparable (14.20). The highest ratio (18.69) occurs in school year 2007/08, as 916 teachers teach 17,124 students. Obviously the teacher-student ratio in 2006/07 as well as in 2009/10 reflects rather an unequal distribution than a severe shortage of teaching staff in general. It can be

assumed that the rural exodus, which is also an issue in Laos, is noticeable in vocational schools as well.

Figure 1: Teacher-student ratios

	2006/07			2007/08			2008/09				2009/10			
	S VEDC	T VEDC	S/T VEDC	S MoE	T MoE	S/T MoE	S MoE	T MoE	S/T MoE	T int.	S/T int.	S MoE	T MoE	S/T MoE
1 Polytechnic	689	55	12,53	2291	54	42,43	2371	63	37,63	80	29,64	3107	n.a.	n.a.
2 Pakpasak	3257	164	19,86	4085	111	36,80	4918	116	42,40	130	37,83	4968	n.a.	n.a.
3 Lao-German	401	49	8,18	531	48	11,06	503	50	10,06	60	8,38	509	n.a.	n.a.
4 Dongkhamxang	439	32	13,72	476	74	6,43	699	41	17,05	42	16,64	856	n.a.	n.a.
5 Vientiane Prov.	1765	83	21,27	1634	83	19,69	1664	82	20,29	90	18,49	1681	n.a.	n.a.
6 Savannakhet	1562	73	21,40	1804	93	19,40	1091	98	11,13	112	9,74	810	n.a.	n.a.
7 Bolikhamxay	359	38	9,45	264	37	7,14	210	41	5,12	41	5,12	196	n.a.	n.a.
8 Champasack	1369	90	15,21	2018	60	33,63	1927	60	32,12	84	22,94	1925	n.a.	n.a.
9 Attapeu*	237	46	5,15	281	45	6,24	260	48	5,42	48	5,42	405	n.a.	n.a.
10 Luang Prabang	1282	87	14,74	1063	47	22,62	1225	97	12,63	100	12,25	1376	n.a.	n.a.
11 Khammouane*	468	65	7,20	482	47	10,26	754	59	12,78	66	11,42	1113	n.a.	n.a.
12 Phongsaly	80	11	7,27	101	17	5,94	73	28	2,61	24	3,04	114	n.a.	n.a.
13 Luang Namtha*	111	18	6,17	192	22	8,73	250	26	9,62	29	8,62	257	n.a.	n.a.
14 Bokeo	213	33	6,45	418	30	13,93	216	41	5,27	42	5,14	334	n.a.	n.a.
15 Xayabouly*	318	36	8,83	283	36	7,86	265	30	8,83	44	6,02	302	n.a.	n.a.
16 Houaphanh*	159	24	6,63	138	18	7,67	146	30	4,87	32	4,56	134	n.a.	n.a.
17 Oudomxay*	187	26	7,19	226	29	7,79	165	43	3,84	46	3,59	228	n.a.	n.a.
18 Xiengkhouang*	169	24	7,04	175	19	9,21	194	29	6,69	22	8,82	295	n.a.	n.a.
19 Saravan*	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	57	n.a.	n.a.	99	16	6,19	24	4,13	123	n.a.	n.a.
20 Sekong*	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	51	n.a.	n.a.	118	25	4,72	34	3,47	171	n.a.	n.a.
21 Vte- Hanoi	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	554	46	12,04	778	42	18,52	56	13,89	1046	n.a.	n.a.
Total	13065	954	13,69	17124	916	18,69	17926	1065	16,83		14,86	19950		
Total (alternative sources)					1091	15,70		1141	15,71	1206			1405	14,20

S=Students; T=Teachers; S/T=Teacher-Student Ratio; *=IVET-Schools; n.a.= not available; VEDC=survey of VEDC; MoE=official statistics of MoE; MoE int.=internal calculations of MoE

“Taking the student-teacher ratio into account it becomes obvious that the schools (in school year 2006/07) in general rely on a sufficient number of teaching staff. With the exception of TVS Champasak, TVS Luang Prabang, TVS Savannakhet, and TVS Vientiane Province, one teacher counts for less than 15 students, which is a quite an agreeable ratio.”¹¹ Compared to the teacher-student ratio

in secondary classes, reported by The World Bank and the MoE, most of the TVET schools in 2006/07 actually didn't show a shortage of teaching staff: "In secondary schools, the pupil-teacher ratio has significantly increased in the past decade as part of the steady expansion in secondary schooling. Nonetheless, it is smaller than at the primary level and now stands at 26.5 pupils to one teacher."¹²

As far as the author knows there is no specification of a target ratio of students to teachers for vocational education in Laos. The World Bank in conjunction with the MoE have formulated the following numbers applicable to general education: "The Teacher Education Strategy for 2006-2015 and the Teacher Education Action Plan for 2006-2010 (TESAP) lay out specific targets in the area of ensuring adequate teacher supply and training. Among these are student-teacher ratios of 20:1, 30:1, and 27:1 in pre-school, primary and secondary respectively."¹³ On average, vocational schools in Laos have already achieved this goal, set for secondary schools, even if a few schools are above these targets.

The following aspects have to be taken in account regarding the usability of the aforementioned data and ratios:

- It is not certain that the reported teaching staff only consists of teachers and does not include nurses, helpers, drivers, clerks etc. as well.
- It is not certain that communication between vocational schools and the MoE functions reliably. In order to validate the reliability of official statistics, schools were asked to verify the official numbers. However, only one school responded. Hence official numbers couldn't be verified.
- From experience it can be stated that the expected number of students does not necessarily match the actual number of students enrolled.

- It seems to be quite difficult to transfer teachers from a school with an oversupply of teaching staff to a school demanding teachers.
- The numbers quoted above do not take into account subject matter taught by each teacher. Therefore, it is possible that a significant imbalance exists between the supply of teachers for business administration compared to teachers for carpentry (e. g.).

The authors of a survey carried out in 2010, estimate that by 2020 Lao PDR will need “more than 6,070 additional vocational teachers and more than 12,140 additional vocational trainers”.¹⁴ This estimation is based on the growing employment opportunities expected by 2010¹⁵. The Master Plan of the MoE admits that “there is no precise projection of future numbers but, based on the likely changes to the population (presently very young), around 65,000 to 80,000 students can be expected to need training in 2015. The system should be able to cope with this increase.”¹⁶

3. Qualitative Aspects of Vocational Education in Lao PDR using the Example of Vocational Teacher Training

As mentioned above a study program for vocational teachers at Bachelor level has been established at VTTD (Faculty of Engineering). Currently study programs at Bachelor level, in general, last for five years and must be reduced to four years beginning with the academic year 2010/11. In line with this modification it makes sense to evaluate and revise each study program empirically.

The previous chapters pointed out that Laos has a huge demand for skilled labour needed to develop its society and economy. However, an insufficient number of well-trained vocational teachers are able to train this qualified work force required by this rapidly growing economy. First and foremost VTTD is responsible for the education and training of vocational teachers at Bachelor level. Between 2007/08 and 2009/10 91 students graduated successfully from VTTD. They were all enrolled in one major subject (civil engineering, e.g.) and additionally in the subject of vocational education. The subject distribution of student enrollment is displayed in Fig. 2.

Figure 2: Distribution of graduates to major subjects

Major subject	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	Total
Agriculture	0	12	0	12
Business and Administration	0	13	0	13
Communication and Transportation	1	0	3	4
Civil Engineering (Construction)	4	7	10	21
Electric Engineering	8	0	4	12
Electronic Engineering	7	1	5	13
Forestry	0	6	0	
Mechanical Engineering	0	1	5	6
Telecommunication				
Water Supply	0	0	4	4
Total	20	40	31	91

The Tracer study, described below, follows the aforementioned graduates of VTTD providing insight into post-graduate development and experiences. The survey shows whether the graduates entered the labour market successfully and if so, which path they took. The aim of this study, amongst others, is to understand how

former students evaluate their studies in retrospect and which content in particular was important for their professional development. Furthermore, the whereabouts of the graduates is of interest as well as this allows the experience of former students to be used for the restructuring and adjustment of future vocational teacher training.

The results of this survey should enable VTTD and all institutes of higher education involved in the training of vocational teachers in Lao PDR to indicate deficits in present study programs and to serve as a basis for future changes. This information is useful for the planning and accomplishment of further development of curricula. For that reason information on the professional success of the graduates is needed as well as findings on the relevance of knowledge, skills and information on curricula and study conditions. The accomplishment of the survey was supported by GIZ-China within the framework of the RCP-platform¹⁷, by GIZ-Laos and by the South- and Southeast-Asian office of dvv international. NUoL is one out of more than ten members of RCP, a network newly implemented by GIZ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit GmbH), supporting common research and cooperation between universities in Asia.

3.1 Selecting the objectives to be investigated

In order to identify the objectives of this survey, VTTD successfully held a workshop in September 2010. Amongst others, participants from all departments within the Faculty of Engineering were joined by representatives from the Ministry of Education as well as different experts to define the objectives that should serve as a framework for the planned survey.

1. The first objective of this survey is to find out where the selected graduates are currently working irrespective of their current occupation. We assume that more than 50 % of the graduates work in the field of vocational education. If graduates are not employed as vocational teachers we would like to know the reasons.
2. The second objective centers on the practical relevance of teacher training; therefore the training of vocational teachers should adopt a “dual approach”. To ensure practical relevance, it is important that future teachers participate as soon as possible in “on-the-job-learning” both in enterprises and in schools. Therefore the curriculum of vocational education at Bachelor level should emphasize internships at vocational schools as well as in companies in order to allow students access to more practical training (e.g. maintenance of technical equipment).
3. In order to educate a successful self-motivated, self-confident and independent work force, innovative, creative and supportive teachers are required. Hence, the third objective focusses on the motivation of the graduates for vocational education.
4. Finally the fourth objective of the survey takes aim at the relevance of the academic education for the professional career of the graduates in general.

3.2 Selecting the target group to be interviewed

“Fresh graduates in many countries have ‘search periods’ for the first job of half a year. Then they start with specific tasks in which they have to learn to cope with the work requirements. (...) Therefore we recommend to select (...) only graduates which have graduated at least one year before.”¹⁸ Based on this finding it was decided to interview 60 graduates for the survey, 20 from the academic

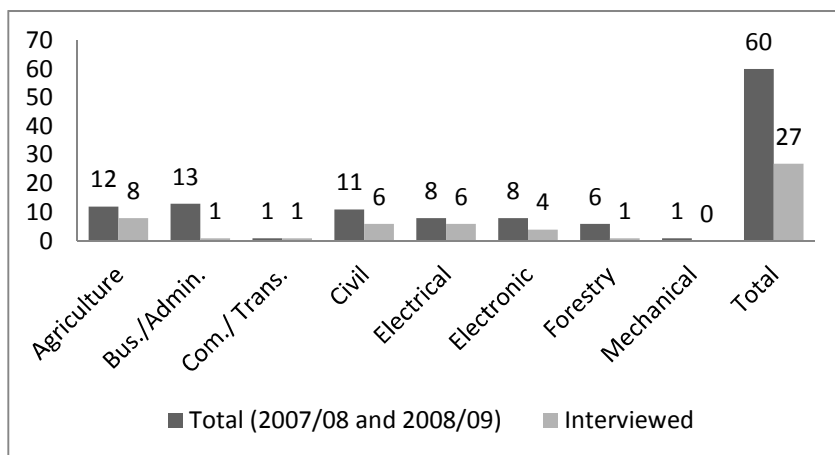
year 2007/8 and 40 from 2008/09. The graduates chosen had accumulated hands-on work experiences for at least one year.

3.3 Data collection

In Lao PDR graduates disperse immediately after leaving the university. Locating these students was found to be a real challenge. In most cases the university may retain perhaps a mobile number, often not even that. Unfortunately, Laotians switch their mobile numbers almost daily and certainly weekly, which resulted in significant efforts for VTTD to contact graduates. Only 40 out of 60 graduates selected for the survey were located and only 27 of these 40 graduates could be interviewed.

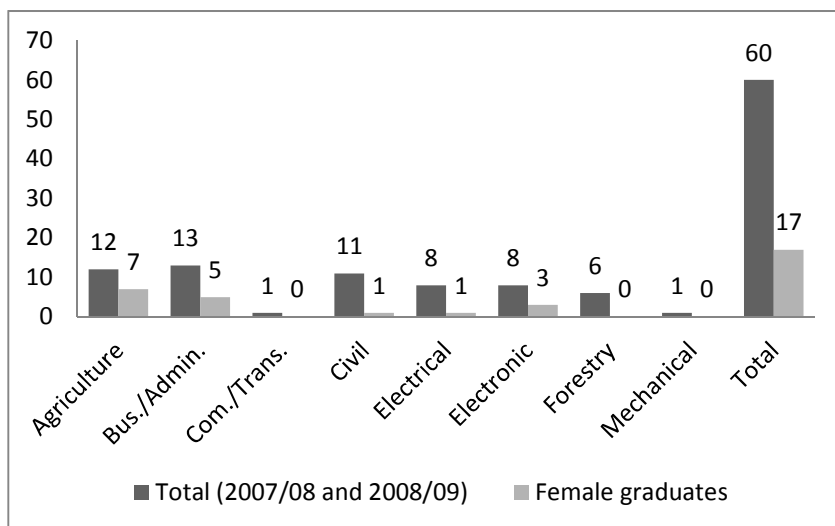
Due to the relatively small number of participants it was a challenge to collect statistically relevant numbers for some survey objectives. For example, the graph depicting subject matter of interviewees does not reflect the distribution across major subjects chosen. Fig. 3 shows that graduates who studied Business and Administration and/or Forestry are significantly underrepresented compared to other major subjects. Locating these graduates seemed to be particularly difficult.

Figure 3: Distribution of graduates/respondents (VTTD)



However, other statistics were clearly representative such as gender distribution within the population as seen in Figure 4. The graph clearly shows the low number of female students that decided to study vocational teacher education. Interestingly, the highest proportion of female graduates occurs in the subject of Agriculture (58.33%), followed by Business and Administration (38.46%) and Electronic Engineering (37.50%). In all other subjects female graduates were highly underrepresented. However, there might be no reason to believe that the random composition of the sample distorts the results of the survey inappropriately.

Figure 4: Distribution of female graduates (VTTD)



3.4 Questionnaire Design

The survey is divided into five sections arranged in chronological order. The first section (B) deals with the situation of the students prior to entering university. The second section (C) is related to the course of studies in general (financing of studies, practical training, thesis, knowledge and skills). The third (D) and fourth sections (E) focus on student motivation in choosing particular subjects (major subject and subject of vocational education) and – looking back – how satisfied they are with their decision. Finally the fifth section (F) deals with the transition from university to present occupation and asks how useful their studies have been in relation to the professional life of the graduate.

The questionnaire consists of 39 questions; 21 are designed as closed-ended questions and 18 as open-ended questions. A preliminary check was conducted with 12 graduates in order to identify whether the questionnaire used in the Tracer study covered appropriate subjects and formats. The pre-survey results showed that participants had culturally related difficulties giving negative feedback. Based on these results the questionnaire was modified accordingly.

3.5 Results and Discussion

A. Questions regarding pre-studies environment

The vast majority of respondents began studies of vocational education directly after completion of the general education curriculum. Only two graduates had previously worked as teachers and used the studies to obtain their Bachelor. One graduate had studied a totally unrelated subject first.

B. Questions regarding the course of the studies in general

The overwhelming majority (25 graduates) had funded their studies with the support of their families; only eight respondents stated that they had received a scholarship (generally 70,000 kip \approx 6.00 €/month). This result raises the question whether a scholarship of such minimal amount will motivate young people to study in general let alone assign up for a specific subject. The two graduates who worked as teachers before starting the study course got a scholarship almost equivalent to their regular salaries. Characteris-

tically for Laos none of the participants had taken out a personal loan.

As previously mentioned it was stressed that the “curriculum of vocational education at Bachelor degree level should emphasize internships at vocational schools as well as at enterprises, to supply the students with more practical skills (e.g. maintenance of technical equipment)”.

Almost half of the participants did not have the opportunity to gain practical skills during an internship in a company environment. Either they didn't participate in such training at all or they completed this training in an educational institution. Both alternatives are not designed to provide students with desperately needed practical skills. 40 % of the individuals did not have the opportunity to gain practical teaching skills at a vocational school. They either did not participate in such training at all (two graduates) or they completed this training at VTTD (eight graduates). The latter option is obviously a less-than-ideal solution as it fails to provide students with desperately needed practical teaching skills. Furthermore the respondents, who took part in internships, were most dissatisfied with the mentoring during the practical training and the evaluation of the training by the University.

What have the graduates experienced as particularly positive or negative in connection with their studies at NUoL? In general, the study course was rated as predominantly positive and a good basis for further professional development (+). The teaching of professional knowledge was evaluated as particularly positive (+). Studies in general need improvement urgently in terms of practical preparation for professional life (-). Analytical skills/critical thinking should be strengthened (-) and some lecturers showed a lack of interest in the students themselves or in their academic success (-).

The generally positive overall assessment of the study course is supported by the fact that only three graduates admitted to the idea of giving up their studies. Lack of interest of lecturers for the students or their academic success was cited as a reason for the potential abandonment of the curriculum. Similar information, given for different issues, supports this criticism. Obviously, some respondents expressed the opinion that for some lecturers, money is more important than high quality of teaching and the success of "their" students. Overall, however, the graduates considered their studies as a good basis for their further professional development. Noteworthy in this context is the fact that three out of all respondents would not study again while eight would study again, but select a different subject. This suggests that student counselling could be improved.

C. Questions regarding the major subject

The distribution of respondents over the various major subjects of study is shown in Figure 2. What stands out is that the motivation of the students for picking their major field of study was based on their interest in the field, the potential for multiple post-graduate employment opportunities and increased chances to get a secure job rather than a well-paid job. Eleven graduates strongly acknowledged that the option of receiving a scholarship influenced their choice. In case of eight respondents the selection by quota system more or less influenced their choice.

Improvements the responses requested most often were

- to modify the study course of the major subject in order to prepare students for professional life in a better way,
- to improve and extend the practical training possibilities,
- to improve the quality and pertinence of the lesson contents,

- to improve classroom equipment and teaching materials and media.

D. Questions regarding the subject of vocational teacher education

We wanted to understand what motivated the graduates to choose vocational teacher education as a subject. The predominant majority reiterated their interest in the subject. At least half of the respondents declared that the possibility to get a secure job played a great role as a motive also. Interestingly, respondents excluded salary and compensation as a motive for their choice. Other motives graduates named were the acquisition of additional skills / competencies that improve the chances of finding a job and the importance of vocational education for the training of young people.

Half of the graduates expressed their satisfaction with the content of lessons and the lecturers, but assessed the system of evaluation within the university and the ratio between the efforts and results very critically. Further weak points noted as needing improvement desperately were:

- Practical training (improvement and extension)
- Application of theoretical knowledge (particularly considering the preparation of lessons)
- Coordination within FE/NUoL (collaboration of VTTD and different Departments/Faculties)

The lack of practical experience was consistently criticized, regardless of the subject.

E. Questions regarding the transition from studies to present occupation

Except for two participants all graduates (25) successfully found

employment. 24 respondents are working as employees, one graduate is self-employed in computer-equipment sales (full-time), another runs a construction company in addition to his regular job (part-time). Based on cultural and economic experience it can be assumed that more graduates generate additional income from secondary employment sources, but did not feel comfortable sharing that fact. Ten out of 24 employed respondents are working as teachers at a vocational school (41.67 %), seven in different public administrations and seven have found work in private companies. It is worth noting that 23 out of 27 respondents (85.19 %) found an occupation within 6 months of graduating.

Asked about the reasons why they do not work as a teacher, five out of the 14 relevant graduates answered that they had applied, but were not accepted. Seven individuals responded that they chose not to work as teachers because of the unsatisfying work conditions. One of these respondents pointed out (e.g.), that the status of a full-fledged employee within public schools is achieved only after 2-3 years of work experience. On the contrary her/his current employer has awarded this status at the start of employment.

As expected, the graduates, who are working in private companies, earn an annual income, which is on average about three times higher (21,000,000 LAK \approx 1,800 €) than the annual income generated by graduates who work as teachers (7,016,600 LAK \approx 600 €) or in public administrations (6,126,667 LAK \approx 520 €).

When asked about the issues that have affected their job search the most, the respondents name their major subject, foreign language skills, the subject of vocational teacher education and the Bachelor degree in general as important factors (see Fig. 5). Interesting in this context is that most respondents do not have any significant foreign language skills. Perhaps the reason for this discrepancy is a – sometimes – unrealistic self-perception. On the contrary,

the relationship with an enterprise owner or manager did not play a significant role.

Figure 5: Impact on finding first job

F7 To what extent the following aspects made an impact on finding your first job after graduation?

(please rate each item below with an "x" in the appropriate column)

	Applies fully				Applies not at all	
-Bachelor degree.....	11	4	7	1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Grade of bachelor degree.....	8	6	6	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
-Major subject.....	15	2	5	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Subject of vocational education..	12	6	3	2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
-Subject of thesis.....	8	7	4	1	2	1
-Professional experience.....	8	11	1	1	1	2
-Practical skills.....	5	8	3	3	2	2
-Foreign language skills.....	13	4	3	1	1	3
-Recommendation by lecturer...	10	4	4	2	1	1
-Relationship to enterprise owner	4	4	2	7	1	5
-References / connections.....	8	4	1	4	3	1

3.5 Referring the results to the selected objectives (3.1)

- a) The results partly confirm the assumption that about 50 % of the graduates work in the field of vocational education. Unfortunately only 41.67 % of the interviewed graduates are teaching at a vocational school. The reasons for this discrepancy named by some graduates are based on an urgent need of improvement in terms of work conditions, wage structure and career opportunities. It is likely that the aforementioned quota system that regulates both access to higher education and the transition of graduated vocational teachers into professional life prevent or hamper the recruitment of teachers. This may explain why, regarding the high demand for vocational teachers

and the relatively low supply of graduates, only less than half of the graduates found an appropriate employment. In addition, the schools very interested in employing graduates often do not have enough positions available and/or lack the necessary money on hand. The government makes a bad investment when it spends a lot of money to train vocational teachers that are desperately needed, but is not able to employ them afterwards.

- b) Furthermore, the assessment of the Asian Development Bank has been fully confirmed. The graduates themselves certified that they did not receive enough practical training. They are missing sufficient practical exercises and internships related to their major subject as well as to the studies of vocational education and, therefore, do not feel well prepared for their professional life. In particular, they demand an improvement in practical exercises to prepare and to conduct lessons. To deliver these requirements means a significant extension of dedicated blocks of time towards practical training. Two internships – in enterprises and schools – each of four weeks duration are obviously not sufficient to realize sustainable practical experiences. Furthermore, training at the university does not always meet state guidelines. Thus, the respondents criticized that courses are often cancelled for various reasons and that lessons are not always carried out in accordance with the requirements of the curricula. This criticism applies to the teaching practice at vocational schools as well.
- c) The results show that at least half of the graduates initially chose to study vocational education because of their personal interest in this field. Admittedly some of them were persuaded not to become a teacher. It seems to be more necessary than ever to improve the conditions significantly under which teachers have to work in Laos. This concerns amongst others the principles of employment opportunities, the level and structure

of salaries and the chance to get ahead. For example, it seems to be common practice that teachers work overtime to generate higher income. This is understandable given the low income but prevents the recruitment of much-needed young talents and also deteriorates the quality of teaching. First, these teachers have little opportunity to prepare their lessons accordingly. Second, the classes are too large to perform high-quality teaching. If there is no progress in the future regarding this matter, there may be a selection towards candidates with highly reduced dedication to vocational teaching.

- d) All respondents stated that their current job requires an academic degree. For the majority of respondents (21) their present occupation is directly correlated to their major subject. Combined with the fact that 85.19 % of the respondents found an occupation within 6 months post-graduation, these results show that the studies are of significant relevance to the professional development of the graduates. Therefore most of the participants (20) confirmed that their studies were highly beneficial, even if the preparation for professional life needs to be improved significantly.

4. Future Prospects

By order of the MoE (Decree No. 976, 19th April 2011), the Vocational Teacher Training Division (VTTD) has been upgraded to Vocational Teacher Education Department (VTED). This means greater autonomy in personnel, academic and financial matters. At the same time it also means more responsibility and increased expectations.

As mentioned above, in Lao PDR generally all Bachelor degree programs have to be reduced from five to four years and re-designed. In the course of this transformation VTED will also revise its study structure and curricula. Currently pedagogic subjects were offered as of the third year in parallel with the major subject. Soon a post-graduate course will be available as well. This measure will extend the study period to 5 years, but at the same time enlarges the number of potential students. Not only students of the engineering disciplines but also students of other disciplines and practicing teachers will be able to use this program to further their education.

During government negotiations in May 2010, the governments of Lao PDR and Germany agreed upon a new project of technical cooperation in the area of Private Sector Development and Vocational Training. This project encompasses a component, which supports the former VTTD / present VTED in re-designing its study program for vocational teacher education. This program consists of two phases. The first phase takes place at the University (pre-service training) while the second phase will be carried out as a tutored practical training offered at various vocational schools. This will provide the desperately needed practical preparation for professional life. The objective is not only to train qualified teachers needed for the expanding system of vocational education, but also to provide the opportunity to assume positions of management or administration within the TVET-sector. A more important aim is to develop and establish the former VTTD / present VTED to become the leading academic institution in vocational teacher education within Lao PDR.

Notes

- 1 Cf. Ministry of Planning and Investment (2010): Seventh National Socio-Economic Development Plan (2011-2015)–Draft, Executive Summary, unofficial translation from original Lao version, Vientiane, 11
- 2 Ministry of Planning and Investment see above, 12
- 3 Ministry of Planning and Investment see above, 16
- 4 Asian Development Bank (2010): Report and Recommendation of the President to the Board of Directors; Proposed Grant Lao People's Democratic Republic: Strengthening Technical and Vocational Education and Training Project, 5
- 5 Asian Development Bank see above, 4
- 6 Asian Development Bank (2010): Labor Market Assessment (Strengthening Technical and Vocational Education and Training Project), 4
- 7 Nam News Network (2010). Laos is short of skilled Labour – ADB Study. <http://news.brunel.fm/2010/03/29/laos-is-short-of-skilled-labour-adb-study/> (19.08.2010)
- 8 Ministry of Education (2007): Strategic Plan for the Development of Technical and Vocational Education and Training from 2006 to 2020, Vientiane, 6
- 9 Ministry of Education see above, 6
- 10 Ministry of Education, Department of Technical and Vocational Education (2010): Report on Vocational Education in the School Year 2009/10, Vientiane, 3
- 11 Sisoulath, S./Chantaphone, S./Krapp, S./Pfänder, F. (2007): Public Technical Vocational Schools under the Ministry of Education in Lao P.D.R., Vientiane, 37
- 12 Benveniste, L./Marshall, J./Santibañez, L. (2007): Teaching in Lao P.D.R., 52
- 13 Benveniste, L./Marshall, J./Santibañez, L. see above, 102
- 14 Soysouvanh, B. et al (2010): Institutional Development of Vocational Teacher and Trainer Education (VTTE) for sustainable Development of TVET in SR Vietnam and LAO PDR, Vientiane, 13
- 15 Cf. Soysouvanh, B. et al see above, 14
- 16 Ministry of Education (2007): Master Plan, Development of TVET from 2008 until 2015, Vientiane, 17
- 17 The „Regional Co-operation Platform on Vocational Teachers' Training and Education in Asia“ (RCP) has set up its secretariat at the Insti-

- tute for Vocational Education and Training, Tongji University, Shanghai. For more information: www.rcp-platform.com
- 18 Schomburg, H. (2003): Handbook for Graduate Tracer Studies, 2. edition, Kassel, 48

Biographical notes

Thomas Bohlmann, born 1962; apprenticeship as engine fitter in Osnabrück; studies of economics in Berlin; 1992-1994 practical training as a secondary school teacher for vocational education; 1994-2007 teacher for economics, law and economic geography at a vocational education center in Berlin; 2000-2001 director of a teacher-training-course; 2007-2009 officer at The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the “Länder“ in the Federal Republic of Germany, Bonn; since 2009 Integrated CIM-expert at the National University of Laos, Vientiane.

Address: Thomas Bohlmann, Faculty of Engineering (National University of Laos), Lao-Thai Friendship Road, P. O. Box 3166, Sisattanak District, Vientiane Capital City, Lao PDR

Email: thomas.bohlmann@cimonline.de

Heribert Hinzen

ADULT EDUCATION, DEVELOPMENT AND COOPERATION: NEW ORIENTATIONS OF DVV INTERNATIONAL IN SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA AND ITS REGIONAL AND COUNTRY-SPECIFIC PRIORITIES

Summary: The work of *dvv international* in Asia started in the middle of the 1970s. Following in-country work especially in India, the Philippines, Indonesia and Nepal, new initiatives have started since 2009 in Laos and Cambodia. The structure of cooperation has changed as well through the establishment of a *dvv international* regional office in Vientiane. Professional cooperation with regional partners is well grounded in common values and experiences, and this is likely to continue. The article looks as well at the sometimes complex interrelations of education, development and cooperation, and tries to locate some of the more important achievements in the frameworks of goals and results for the government funded collaboration which is embedded in processes for monitoring and evaluation. Additionally, as it is dealing with adult education efforts of many other partners in the region, a point is made that increased globalisation calls for more and better cooperation in the years to come.

ສະຫຼຸບ: ການເຮັດວຽກຂອງອົງການນາໆຊາດຂອງເຢຍລະມັນເພື່ອການສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ໃນອາຊີ ໄດ້ເລີ່ມຕົ້ນມາແຕ່ໃນຊ່ວງກາງທົດສະວັດ 1970. ໂດຍສະເພາະແມ່ນຢູ່ ປະເທດອິນ ເດີຍ, ຟີລິບປິນ, ອິນໂດນີເຊັຍ ແລະ ເນປານ, ສ່ວນປະເທດ ທີ່ໄດ້ລິເລີ່ມ ໃໝ່ໃນປີ 2009 ແມ່ນປະເທດ ສປປ ລາວ ແລະ ກຳປູເຈັຍ. ໂຄງສ້າງຂອງການຮ່ວມມືໄດ້ມີ ການປ່ຽນແປງ ພ້ອມດຽວກັນ ທ້ອງການນາໆຊາດຂອງເຢຍລະມັນເພື່ອການສຶກສາ ຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ປະຈຳພູມິພາກ ກໍໄດ້ສ້າງຕັ້ງຂຶ້ນຢູ່ທີ່ນະຄອນວຽງຈັນ.

ຄວາມຮ່ວມມືລະດັບມືອາຊີບກັບຄູ່ຮ່ວມງານໃນລະດັບພູມິພາກ ເປັນເຫດຜົນທີ່ດີ ໃນ ຄ່ານິຍົມ ຮ່ວມກັນ ແລະ ປະສົບການນີ້ມີແນວໂນ້ມທີ່ຈະດຳເນີນການຕໍ່ໄປ. ບົດ ຄວາມເບິ່ງແລ້ວ ຄືວ່າ ມີລັກສະນະສັບຊ້ອນຂອງວຽກງານການສຶກສາ, ການຮ່ວມມື ແລະ ການພັດທະນາ, ແລະ ພະຍາຍາມທີ່ຈະຫາບາງສ່ວນຂອງ ຄວາມສຳເລັດທີ່ ສຳຄັນໃນກອບຂອງ ເປົ້າໝາຍ ແລະ ຜົນຂອງການເຮັດວຽກຮ່ວມ ກັນ ທີ່ໄດ້ຮັບ ການສະໜັບສະໜູນຈາກພາກລັດ ຊຶ່ງຈະຖືກຈັດເຂົ້າຢູ່ໃນຂັ້ນຕອນ ການກວດສອບ ແລະປະເມີນຜົນ. ນອກຈາກນີ້, ໄດ້ມີການຈັດການກັບຄວາມ ພະຍາຍາມໃນການ ສຶກສາຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ຂອງຄູ່ຮ່ວມງານພາກ ສ່ວນອື່ນໆຢູ່ໃນພູມິພາກ, ຈຸດນີ້ມັນໄດ້ເຮັດໃຫ້ ໂລກາພິວັດແຫ່ງການຮ່ວມມືທີ່ເພີ່ມຂຶ້ນ ແລະດີຂຶ້ນໃນຊຸມປີຕໍ່ໜ້າ.

ສະຫຼຸບ : ການຮ່ວມມື ດວ ວິ ນາ ຕີ ອາ ຊີ ບ ກັບ ຄູ ອາ ຊີ ບ ຮ່ວມ ງານ ໃນ ລະ ດັບ ພູ ມິ ພາ ກ ໃນ ຄວາມ ສຳ ຫລັດ ທີ່ ດີ ໃນ ຄ່າ ນິ ຍົ ມ ຮ່ວ ມ ກ ັນ ແລະ ປະ ສົ ບ ກ າ ນ ນີ້ ມີ ແນ ວ ໂ ນ ິ ມ ທີ່ ຈະ ດຳ ເນີ ນ ກ າ ນ ຕໍ ະ ໄ ປ. ບົ ດ ຄວາ ມ ເບ ື ັ ງ ແ ເລ້ ວ ຄື ວ່າ ມີ ລັ ກ ສ ຸ ນ ະ ສັ ບ ຊ ັ ອ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ວ ຽ ກ ງ າ ນ ກ າ ນ ສຶ ກ ສ າ, ກ າ ນ ຮ່ ວ ມ ມ ື ແ ແ ລະ ກ າ ນ ພັ ດ ທ ະ ນ າ, ແ ແ ລະ ພະ ຍ າ ຍ າ ມ ທີ່ ຈະ ຫ າ ບ າ ງ ສ່ ວ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ຄວາ ມ ສຳ ຫລັ ດ ທີ່ ສຳ ຄ ັ ນ ໃ ນ ກ ອ ບ ຂ ອ ງ ເປົ້ າ ໝາ ຍ ແ ແ ລະ ຜົ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ກ າ ນ ເຮັ ດ ວ ຽ ກ ຮ່ ວ ມ ກ ັ ນ ທີ່ ໄດ້ ຮັ ບ ກ າ ນ ສະ ໜັ ບ ສະ ໜູ ນ ຈາ ກ ພາ ກ ລັ ດ ຊຶ່ ງ ຈະ ຖື ກ ຈັ ດ ເຂົ້ າ ຢູ່ ໃ ນ ຂັ້ ນ ຕ ອ ນ ກ າ ນ ກ ວ ດ ສ ອ ບ ແ ແ ລະ ປະ ເ ມີ ນ ຜົ ນ. ນອ ກ ຈາ ກ ນີ້, ໄ ດ້ ມີ ກ າ ນ ຈັ ດ ກ າ ນ ກັ ບ ຄວາ ມ ພະ ຍ າ ຍ າ ມ ໃ ນ ກ າ ນ ສຶ ກ ສ າ ຜູ້ ໃ ຫ ຍ ຸ ຂ ອ ງ ຄູ່ ຮ່ ວ ມ ງ າ ນ ພາ ກ ສ່ ວ ນ ອື່ ນ ໆ ຢູ່ ໃ ນ ພູ ມິ ພາ ກ, ຈຸ ດ ນີ້ ມັນ ໄດ້ ເຮັ ດ ໃ ຫ້ ໂ ລ ກ າ ພິ ວັ ດ ແ ຫ່ ງ ກ າ ນ ຮ່ ວ ມ ມ ື ທີ່ ເພີ່ ມ ຂຶ້ ນ ແ ແ ລະ ດີ ຂຶ້ ນ ໃ ນ ຊຸ ມ ປີ ຕໍ່ ໜ້ າ.

ສະຫຼຸບ : ການຮ່ວມມື ດວ ວິ ນາ ຕີ ອາ ຊີ ບ ກັບ ຄູ ອາ ຊີ ບ ຮ່ວມ ງານ ໃນ ລະ ດັບ ພູ ມິ ພາ ກ ໃນ ຄວາມ ສຳ ຫລັດ ທີ່ ດີ ໃນ ຄ່າ ນິ ຍົ ມ ຮ່ວ ມ ກ ັນ ແລະ ປະ ສົ ບ ກ າ ນ ນີ້ ມີ ແນ ວ ໂ ນ ິ ມ ທີ່ ຈະ ດຳ ເນີ ນ ກ າ ນ ຕໍ ະ ໄ ປ. ບົ ດ ຄວາ ມ ເບ ື ັ ງ ແ ເລ້ ວ ຄື ວ່າ ມີ ລັ ກ ສ ຸ ນ ະ ສັ ບ ຊ ັ ອ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ວ ຽ ກ ງ າ ນ ກ າ ນ ສຶ ກ ສ າ, ກ າ ນ ຮ່ ວ ມ ມ ື ແ ແ ລະ ກ າ ນ ພັ ດ ທ ະ ນ າ, ແ ແ ລະ ພະ ຍ າ ຍ າ ມ ທີ່ ຈະ ຫ າ ບ າ ງ ສ່ ວ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ຄວາ ມ ສຳ ຫລັ ດ ທີ່ ສຳ ຄ ັ ນ ໃ ນ ກ ອ ບ ຂ ອ ງ ເປົ້ າ ໝາ ຍ ແ ແ ລະ ຜົ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ກ າ ນ ເຮັ ດ ວ ຽ ກ ຮ່ ວ ມ ກ ັ ນ ທີ່ ໄດ້ ຮັ ບ ກ າ ນ ສະ ໜັ ບ ສະ ໜູ ນ ຈາ ກ ພາ ກ ລັ ດ ຊຶ່ ງ ຈະ ຖື ກ ຈັ ດ ເຂົ້ າ ຢູ່ ໃ ນ ຂັ້ ນ ຕ ອ ນ ກ າ ນ ກ ວ ດ ສ ອ ບ ແ ແ ລະ ປະ ເ ມີ ນ ຜົ ນ. ນອ ກ ຈາ ກ ນີ້, ໄ ດ້ ມີ ກ າ ນ ຈັ ດ ກ າ ນ ກັ ບ ຄວາ ມ ພະ ຍ າ ຍ າ ມ ໃ ນ ກ າ ນ ສຶ ກ ສ າ ຜູ້ ໃ ຫ ຍ ຸ ຂ ອ ງ ຄູ່ ຮ່ ວ ມ ງ າ ນ ພາ ກ ສ່ ວ ນ ອື່ ນ ໆ ຢູ່ ໃ ນ ພູ ມິ ພາ ກ, ຈຸ ດ ນີ້ ມັນ ໄດ້ ເຮັ ດ ໃ ຫ້ ໂ ລ ກ າ ພິ ວັ ດ ແ ຫ່ ງ ກ າ ນ ຮ່ ວ ມ ມ ື ທີ່ ເພີ່ ມ ຂຶ້ ນ ແ ແ ລະ ດີ ຂຶ້ ນ ໃ ນ ຊຸ ມ ປີ ຕໍ່ ໜ້ າ.

ສະຫຼຸບ : ການຮ່ວມມື ດວ ວິ ນາ ຕີ ອາ ຊີ ບ ກັບ ຄູ ອາ ຊີ ບ ຮ່ວມ ງານ ໃນ ລະ ດັບ ພູ ມິ ພາ ກ ໃນ ຄວາມ ສຳ ຫລັດ ທີ່ ດີ ໃນ ຄ່າ ນິ ຍົ ມ ຮ່ວ ມ ກ ັນ ແລະ ປະ ສົ ບ ກ າ ນ ນີ້ ມີ ແນ ວ ໂ ນ ິ ມ ທີ່ ຈະ ດຳ ເນີ ນ ກ າ ນ ຕໍ ະ ໄ ປ. ບົ ດ ຄວາ ມ ເບ ື ັ ງ ແ ເລ້ ວ ຄື ວ່າ ມີ ລັ ກ ສ ຸ ນ ະ ສັ ບ ຊ ັ ອ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ວ ຽ ກ ງ າ ນ ກ າ ນ ສຶ ກ ສ າ, ກ າ ນ ຮ່ ວ ມ ມ ື ແ ແ ລະ ກ າ ນ ພັ ດ ທ ະ ນ າ, ແ ແ ລະ ພະ ຍ າ ຍ າ ມ ທີ່ ຈະ ຫ າ ບ າ ງ ສ່ ວ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ຄວາ ມ ສຳ ຫລັ ດ ທີ່ ສຳ ຄ ັ ນ ໃ ນ ກ ອ ບ ຂ ອ ງ ເປົ້ າ ໝາ ຍ ແ ແ ລະ ຜົ ນ ຂ ອ ງ ກ າ ນ ເຮັ ດ ວ ຽ ກ ຮ່ ວ ມ ກ ັ ນ ທີ່ ໄດ້ ຮັ ບ ກ າ ນ ສະ ໜັ ບ ສະ ໜູ ນ ຈາ ກ ພາ ກ ລັ ດ ຊຶ່ ງ ຈະ ຖື ກ ຈັ ດ ເຂົ້ າ ຢູ່ ໃ ນ ຂັ້ ນ ຕ ອ ນ ກ າ ນ ກ ວ ດ ສ ອ ບ ແ ແ ລະ ປະ ເ ມີ ນ ຜົ ນ. ນອ ກ ຈາ ກ ນີ້, ໄ ດ້ ມີ ກ າ ນ ຈັ ດ ກ າ ນ ກັ ບ ຄວາ ມ ພະ ຍ າ ຍ າ ມ ໃ ນ ກ າ ນ ສຶ ກ ສ າ ຜູ້ ໃ ຫ ຍ ຸ ຂ ອ ງ ຄູ່ ຮ່ ວ ມ ງ າ ນ ພາ ກ ສ່ ວ ນ ອື່ ນ ໆ ຢູ່ ໃ ນ ພູ ມິ ພາ ກ, ຈຸ ດ ນີ້ ມັນ ໄດ້ ເຮັ ດ ໃ ຫ້ ໂ ລ ກ າ ພິ ວັ ດ ແ ຫ່ ງ ກ າ ນ ຮ່ ວ ມ ມ ື ທີ່ ເພີ່ ມ ຂຶ້ ນ ແ ແ ລະ ດີ ຂຶ້ ນ ໃ ນ ຊຸ ມ ປີ ຕໍ່ ໜ້ າ.

និងវាយតម្លៃ។ លើសពីនេះ ដូចការលើកឡើងពីកិច្ចខិតខំប្រឹងប្រែងផ្តល់ការអប់រំមនុស្ស
ពេញវ័យរបស់ដៃគូដទៃទៀតជាច្រើននៅក្នុងតំបន់ដែរ ចំណុចដែលត្រូវបានលើកឡើងគឺថា
ការកើនឡើងនូវសកលភាវូបនីយកម្មអំពាវនាវឱ្យមានកិច្ចសហប្រតិបត្តិការច្រើនជាងមុន និង
កាន់តែប្រសើរជាងមុន នៅក្នុងឆ្នាំបន្តបន្ទាប់ខាងមុខនេះ។

1. Human Right to Education and Development

1.1 Basic Education and Lifelong Learning

The notion that in the era of globalisation lifelong learning calls for an integration of formal, non-formal and informal educational processes, and the notion that it has to rest on four equal pillars: schooling, vocational training, higher education and adult education, are widespread within the international educational policy debate.¹ Flexible means of transition are required. Non-formal and out-of-school education for youth and adults complement as well as compensate.

Globalisation, technological change and the development of knowledge and information societies demand lifelong learning. In a globalised world, synchronisation and independence of local and national, regional and international developments are becoming more important. This is equally true for industrialised, emerging and developing countries. The realities and tendencies of these developments are illustrated in this article predominantly for the Asian region and in the context of functions and impacts of international cooperation and its organisations. *dvv international* and its engagement in Southeast Asia is presented as an example.

Nobody doubts that education is a fundamental human right. It is, however, often limited to compulsory schooling for children. As

a result of the paradigm shift from schooling for children to lifelong learning for all, adult education has become an important dimension.² Education is one of the basic needs, such as food, health and political participation. What should be taken for granted is far from being realised. According to the latest Education for All (EFA) Global Monitoring Report, more than 100 million children do not attend school and almost 800 million adults are illiterate. It should be kept in mind that these are conservative estimates: In its new Global Report on child labour, the ILO stated that around 250 million children are affected. Are regular school attendance and arduous child labour really compatible? In a similar manner, the number of illiterate adults is likely to exceed one billion when literacy levels are actually tested rather than derived from self-reporting and general census data. This, at least, can be assumed in the light of several surveys. In Laos, for example, the National Literacy Survey 2001 revealed a tested literacy rate for youth and adults aged 15-59 of 45.2%, as compared to 72.3% literacy rate based on self-reporting – a noteworthy difference of 27%. For Kenya, a difference of 25% was discussed in the context of the CONFINTEA-processes. Recent studies conducted on the Solomon Islands indicate a similar tendency. These findings suggest that the figure of 800 million illiterates should be increased at least by another 25%.³

As a side remark, it can certainly be argued that there is an important difference between being illiterate in a society where writing and reading is not (yet) necessary in all realms of life and in a highly industrialised society. It is nevertheless striking that the above mentioned Education for All Education Monitoring Report does not provide figures regarding the literacy rate for Germany, and thus suggesting that there are close to no illiterates in Germany (for Italy and Portugal the figure given is 99% and 96%, respectively). However, in the context of the recent Level-One Surveys (leo), it was found that “around 7.5 million, or 14% of the popula-

tion in working age, are merely able to read and write individual sentences, but fail to understand coherent texts, even short ones, such as written work instructions”.⁴ It will be interesting to see how these findings are reflected in the statistical data of the upcoming Education Monitoring Report.

1.2 Development Policy and Education Cooperation

In the scientific discourse of the 1970s, some argued that education is in fact an “obstacle to development”⁵, referring to the results of educational investments targeting national elites in the South and the behaviour of these ‘educated elites’ in their societies. This view has not gained much ground. Rather, today it is generally accepted that education is an indispensable prerequisite for development.

The worldwide initiative Education for All (EFA), the World Conferences on Adult Education (CONFINTEA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) provide important orientation for projects, partners, as well as cooperation in networks, associations and organisations with the common focus on achieving tasks by 2015 related to poverty reduction, compulsory schooling, gender equality, sustainability and the fight against HIV/AIDS. One EFA goal focuses on: “Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in adult literacy levels by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all.”⁶

The vast majority of partners and networks of *dvv international* are committed to reaching the MDGs, EFA goals and the CONFINTEA agenda. Selected organisations are increasingly asked to prepare monitoring reports, documenting the quantitative and qualitative levels of development in their respective countries, and

provide recommendations for further action. These include the annual „Education for All Global Monitoring Reports EFA GMR“, which are produced by an independent team and feature every time an in-depth exploration of one EFA goal besides the general overview; in 2006 the focus was on goal 3 “Literacy for Life” and in 2012 it will be on goal 4 “Skills development: Expanding opportunities for marginalized groups“, most likely looking into vocational training and employability.⁷ *dvv international* takes up the resulting discussion on ‘skills’ and calls for a wider understanding that encompass „livelihood and life skills“, and as such to take into account general, social, political and cultural knowledge, skills, and competences on an equal basis. Furthermore, more attention should be paid to the realities of youth and adult education and related experiences and insights gained through practical work and project activities.⁸

Another important step towards the recognition of adult education as a profession has been the GRALE (Global Report on Adult Education and Learning) report, following the world conference CONFINTEA VI in Belem 2009, which presents a first comprehensive overview of the situation of adult education. An improved report is due in 2012.⁹

In the development policy discourse, education is increasingly given more attention in several respects, which is quite remarkable after its gradual loss of importance over the past 15 years.¹⁰ The new World Bank document „Learning for All: Investing in People’s Knowledge and Skills to Promote Development“¹¹ has the potential to initiate a wider debate. The EU’s „New skills for New Jobs“, discusses changes affecting human beings, society and economy, albeit limiting its view to an employability perspective. It is good to see that the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA) has highlighted the deficits of the EU paper.¹² In terms of necessary coherence of policies, it remains to be seen whether this deepened discussion on skills is going to have an impact on the EU-policy for

development cooperation. So far, the focus there has been clearly on increasing primary school enrolment rates, in line with the MDGs.

With regard to Germany, two significant processes are worth mentioning. First of all, the Parliament has given clear directions to the government, and the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) has subsequently developed a new strategy. And secondly, the resolution of the German Bundestag “Strengthening Education in Developing and Transition/Threshold Countries – Adjusting and Increasing Effectiveness of Education Measures” is of importance because it stresses the connections between poverty reduction and educational poverty. In addition, it accords high priority to adult education and literacy as well as flexible vocational training.¹³ The draft of the BMZ’s education strategy from November 2010 states that education is “the strategic key to development” and sees educational poverty as a “central factor that hinders social development”. Lifelong learning is presented as the guiding principle, and the emphasis on a holistic approach that encompasses basic and vocational oriented education as important dimensions will be significant for *dvv international* and its partners. The draft circulated in order to get feedback and initiate a discussion; it is expected to be endorsed before end of 2011.¹⁴

2. *dvv international*: The Beginning and Institutional Development

2.1 Start of International Cooperation

One has to begin a little further back in order to answer the question why German Community Adult Education Centres – or Volkshochschulen (VHS) – and adult education in general play a role in development cooperation.¹⁵ The German VHS has a tradition of more than 100 years. Historical and philosophical roots of the general education aspect can be traced back to the age of Enlightenment, and for the vocational education to the industrial revolution. Furthermore, reformist educational elements and influence particularly from Nordic countries are discernible. Many VHSs were engaged in town-twinning schemes focusing on reconciliation and international understanding that were initiated since the beginning of the 1950s – shortly after Second World War – with the establishment and maintenance of contacts between German and French communes. Later on, the initiative was supported by the cultural section of the German Foreign Office through the German Adult Education Association (DVV), which was founded in 1953.

Since the early 1960s, DVV is engaged in international educational aid as part of the German development cooperation. Since end of the 1950s, many of the so-called developing countries liberated themselves from dependence and oppression of the colonial system. In most cases, however, the struggle for independence was anything but a peaceful one. There is a long list of devastating wars over spheres of influence and resources, which reaches into the first years of the new millennium. In the process of decolonisation development aid was born. The prosperous industrialised countries pledged to support the poor developing countries in their attempts to catch-up. Young people in these new nation states strived for orientation and qualifications. The origins of the Institute for International Cooperation of DVV can be found in the context. First inquiries from embassies in various African countries were made

as to whether support to adult literacy programmes, in areas such as advisory, training and qualification of relevant staff and production of necessary teaching and learning materials is possible. It was called for an integration of adult education into educational aid. And DVV, as the German organisation specialised in adult education, was to take a leading role in the cooperation with the newly emerging so-called Third World countries.

2.2 Institutional and programmatic expansion

From such project work the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV) emerged. It has undergone several transformations, starting with the establishment of the DVV Department for Adult Education in Developing Countries in 1969, later called Department for International Cooperation. Its guidelines, which are based on the institute's policy and give orientation for practical work, have also changed several times since they were adopted in 1973. When they were first formulated, the key principles were outlined only in a few sections: e.g. 'development doesn't work without education'; that development aid is 'more than alms and more than aspects of foreign policy and foreign economic relations'; and that adult education has to 'play a role in achieving social justice, next to or following traditional formal education and training'. New guidelines were adopted in 1989 by the DVV directorate under the title 'International Cooperation: Framework, Principles, Priorities', elaborating these issues in greater detail (as the title indicates). Most importantly, the document lists 12 points, which were to guide practice in future, focusing on the following key areas: European and international exchange of information and expertise, support of establishment and

development of adult education structures, as well as training, advisory and media development in the field of global learning.¹⁶

Cooperation and project work expanded systematically in the 1990s. First, the focus was put on countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America; later, after the unification of Germany, Central and Eastern Europe and countries of the former Soviet Union were included, when the BMZ was made responsible for this region. The established contacts and cooperation (funded by the Foreign Office) of DVV with partners in countries of Central and Eastern Europe were later integrated into the so-called 'Social Structure Assistance' of the German development cooperation.

From the very beginning, DVV relied on cooperation and communication. Close partnership with regional and international associations holds potentials when attempting to impact on global tendencies and developments in adult education. Already in 1954, DVV became a member of the EAEA. And when Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE) was founded in 1964 in Australia, DVV was present. DVV was also founding member of the International Council of Adult Education (ICAE), founded in Toronto in 1973 (today based in Montevideo), following CONFINTEA III in Tokyo in 1972. ICAE has developed its own series of world assemblies, starting in 1976 in Dar es Salaam. In 2011, the 8th world assembly was organised in Malmö under the title "A World Worth Living in. Adult education and learning: A key for transformation". Again, several topics were discussed, especially around the MDGs, EFA and CONFINTEA. A thematic oriented online-seminar preceded the world assembly by several months. In the seminar, members of ICAE again lamented the absence of goals focusing on adult education within the MDGs. Can MDGs be achieved, if again in this decade more than one billion people are excluded from basic education?¹⁷

2.3 Priorities and Perspectives

dvv international considers itself as an expert institution, which shares experiences and resources with its partners and in joint projects. In other words, *dvv international* is not merely a funding agency, though it could increase its funding volume and diversify its funding sources over the past years. Cooperation is focused on institutional support and competence development and concentrates on basic education and literacy learning, health education and AIDS prevention, environmental education and sustainable development, human rights education and democracy education, migration and integration, crisis prevention and resolution, as well as employability and skills and vocational training.

In 2009, on the occasion of the 40th anniversary¹⁸ of *dvv international*, a large conference – “Financing Adult Education for Development”¹⁹ was organised. The first 40 years constitute a sound basis for further work. The presented documentation clearly demonstrates how the institute has stimulated the international discussion around adult education, development and cooperation. It also indicates by which new insights it was influenced.

Already the annual report 2009/10 illustrates that further institutional and organisational development is necessary in order to adequately respond to the increased diversification. Currently, *dvv international* runs 11 regional and 14 project offices, has around 200 partners and employs almost 180 people in more than 30 countries. Generally, the following aspects characterise its work:

“*dvv international*

- provides support in the establishment and development of sustainable training structures in developing and transition countries;

- provides training, advice and provision of materials and media for global, intercultural and European political learning;
- supports the European and global exchange of information and expertise on Adult Education and development;
- cooperates with governmental and nongovernmental institutions in Germany, Europe and worldwide.”

project approach:

- Achieve better general conditions in policy, legislation and finance (macro level).
- Enhance professionalism in practice and theory for Adult Education (meso level).
- Implementation of model, specific measures, particularly for disadvantaged groups (micro level).²⁰

Regional offices supervise the different activities in the countries of the respective region. A seconded expert is responsible for design, organisation and financial management and implementation of these activities. In the Asian region there are 3 regional offices – one in each of the sub-regions: Middle East, Central Asia/Caucasus and Southeast Asia. In the *dvv international* headquarters, the Asia Department is in charge of coordination of the regional offices and their work, in cooperation with other regional departments and the institute’s directorate. It gets support from the M&E Unit and the Finance and Administrative Department.²¹

3. Initiatives in the Asian-Pacific region: the beginning

3.1 Countries and partners

First contacts in the region were established in India in the mid-1970s. Cooperation commenced with KANFED (Kerala Association for Non-formal Education in Development), active in Southern India. A little later, a joint project with Seva Mandir in Rajasthan was initiated. With both partners, the focus was on adult literacy and training and re-training of adult educators. In 1982, PRIA (Society for Participatory Research in Asia) was founded and shortly afterwards cooperation began. Since the beginning, PRIA pursued a national and regional approach; with research, training and organisational development as core components. Two of PRIA's partners in India – SAHAI (Centre for Collective Learning and Action) in Kerala and UNNATI (Organisation for Development Education) in Uttar Pradesh – became partners of *dvv international*. Another noteworthy partner – among the various partners with whom partnerships were maintained over the decades – is NIRANTAR, a network focusing on gender and development issues. NIRANTAR was awarded with an UNESCO-prize in 2009 for its outstanding achievements in the area of adult literacy.

Other important partner countries in Asia were the Philippines, Indonesia and Nepal. In the Philippines, cooperation commenced in 1990 – shortly after the end of the Marcos dictatorship. Here, *dvv international* supported NGOs (Non-Governmental Organisations) working on the national level, in areas such as environmental education (CEC, Centre for Environmental Concern) and women's empowerment (CWR, Centre for Women Resources), as well as NGOs active on the regional and local levels, such as PILCD (People's Initiative for Learning and Community Development) in the north and CASEC (Community Awareness and Services for Ecological Concern) in the south of the Philippines. In Indonesia, project work began a little later. NGOs working at national or regional level, as well as those with strong links and focus on local communities: PPSW (Center for Women's Resources Development); PESADA in

North Sumatra links women's empowerment with community development; DMM is a network of rural training centres on several islands of the Maluku archipelago; FIRI is an institute for training and rural development on Flores; and SEAPCP (South East Asia Popular Communications Program) is a consortium of experts in Southeast Asia, organising media, training and exchange in the region. *dvv international* works in Nepal with DidiBahini, which runs a network of resource centres supporting women in several districts of the country.²²

In addition, the Central Asian countries Uzbekistan, Kirgizia and Tajikistan have become important partner countries since 2001. Key areas of work in these countries are vocational education and training and employment oriented approaches and initiatives, as well as education for reconciliation and coming to terms with troubled histories. Regarding the latter, a network was established. Its cumulated experiences were the focus of a large conference "Remembering for the Future: The Role of Youth and Adult Education with Working with the Past and Reconciliation Processes", which took place in Bonn in 2011.²³

Afghanistan is another important partner country. ANAFE, the Afghanistan Association for Non-formal Education, achieved to establish a network of adult literacy centres. Despite all the problems facing the country, it is a successful project, which has been widely recognised and could expand its project activities considerably.²⁴

3.2 Regional approaches

In 1977, when cooperation with India commenced, *dvv international* also started to cooperate with ASPBAE. Several regional seminars in Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia were organ-

ised, and the ASPBAE-Courier – an information and communication journal – was revived. Furthermore, scholarships were awarded and exchange visits and studies organised, leading to the creation of a close network in almost all Asian countries and a sound understanding of the conditions of youth and adult education in the region. The cooperation with ASPBAE continues to the present day, particularly in the fields of adult literacy, democracy and environmental education, training and re-training of multipliers, and the production and teaching and learning materials. On the occasion of the 25th anniversary of this successful cooperation, a conference in Peking in 2003 was held.²⁵

Shortly afterwards, an evaluation of the cooperation was conducted, focusing on contents and methods, aspects of women's literacy and gender mainstreaming, and the implementation of the Education for All programme.²⁶ The findings were positive and recommendations were implemented in the coming years. Ever since, ASPBAE has also done a lot in terms of organisational development and improvement of member support. The general meeting of its members and elections of president and executive board is conducted electronically. Noteworthy is the geographical expansiveness of the Asian-Pacific region and hence the origin of its member, as well as the utilisation of IT-technologies. It seems no exaggeration to claim that ASPBAE has become the most influential civil society group in the youth and adult education sector in the region. It also has gained necessary recognition by government authorities and multilateral agencies.²⁷

4. Further developments in Southeast Asia: regions and countries

4.1 The *dvv international* Regional Office – regional partners ASPBAE and PRIA

In 2008, *dvv international* started consultations with the Federal Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation (BMZ) on how to manage the phasing-out with partners in India, Indonesia and the Philippines, and initiate new cooperation in Cambodia and Laos in the project phase 2009–2011. In the context of these developments, the establishment of a new regional office in Vientiane, the capital of Laos, began in 2009.²⁸ Suitable office space was identified and personnel for adult literacy, monitoring and evaluation, financial management and accounting, and administration and technology were employed.

In 2011, the longstanding bilateral cooperation between *dvv international* and partners in India, the Philippines and Indonesia came to an end. The regional office hence focuses more on Laos and Cambodia. However, the regional office also closely cooperates – in terms of coordination and financial management – with ASPBAE and PRIA, who are active on a regional level in areas such as training and re-training, research and evaluation, policy dialogue, advocacy and lobbying. It is planned to make use of PRIA's expertise in research and development, monitoring and evaluation, capacity development and training, for the cooperation with partners in the different sub-regions.²⁹

4.2 Approaches of *dvv international* with partners in Lao PDR

The Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) was founded in

1975. It has 17 provinces, 147 districts and 8000 villages. The Lao PDR has a population of 6 million. Its capital Vientiane has around half a million inhabitants, while 70% of the population lives in rural areas. Laos has a predominantly young population: 40% is aged less than 15 years. Population growth is around 3%. There are 49 officially recognized ethnic groups and a variety of languages spoken. Lao is the official language. Laos ranks 122th out of 169 countries in the annual global Human Development Report compiled by the UN Development Program. Poverty is widespread in Laos; the annual per capita income in 2008 was only \$740. The situation is improving as the country benefits from around 8% yearly economic growth rates. It aspires to graduate from its current Least Developed Country status by 2020. The rapid socio-economic development is mainly driven by the exploitation of natural resources and intensification of agriculture and agro forestry, as well extraction of mineral and metal resources hold huge potentials for the economic development. Income from hydropower export is major foreign-exchange earner. Regional integration and cooperation is progressing swiftly and increasingly in the context of ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations). Laos is the most heavily bombed country per capita in history – more than Germany and Japan during World War II combined. Approximately 80 million unexploded bombs and mines, so-called UXO, remain scattered throughout the country. Somebody gets killed or injured on a daily basis, often children while playing, searching for fire wood or collecting scrap metal. Development project often have to start with UXO clearance of forests and agricultural land. In effect, Laos has declared UXO clearance as their number nine on top of the eight internationally agreed MDGs.³⁰

Laos dedicates 12% of its state expenditures to education, or around 2% of its GDP. The intake into primary schools was already enlarged considerably: up to 81% for girls and 84% for boys, and

will reach almost 100% by 2015. However, it is estimated that around 40% of the adult population has never attended a school, in the Northern provinces even up to 60%. And the dropout rate from primary schools is with 20% still very high. The number of youth and young adults at secondary schools, vocational training centres and university is rising, though still well below the level needed to fuel social and economic development of the country. Data from 2005 indicate a literacy rate of 72.7% for those aged 15 and above (82.5% of the men and 63.2% of the women are considered literate).³¹

dvv international's project objective – “Strengthening of an efficient structure of adult education organisations, which contributes to a development-oriented system of adult education through networking, adequate concepts, functional programmes and solid institutions” – is guiding in a mid-term perspective, though it will remain a challenge to fully achieve it. The right to education, often narrowed to access to primary education, has to include the right to education of youths and adults outside school, i.e. not only in the context of equivalency programmes. Lobbying in the area of education policy, focusing on the top-levels of the Ministry of Education, as well as on decision-makers in the parliament, government, administration and university is necessary. Policy dialogue as a means of capacity development aims at ministry staff on national, provincial and district level. On the macro-level, another dimension is of importance: Regional cooperation with partners in neighbouring countries and different regional organisations, which will lead to the necessary exchange of experiences with NFE developments and standards elsewhere. The instrument “Sharing for Learning” is applied strategically. Cooperation and exchange on policy and practical issues, such as lifelong learning or language usage in literacy classes, pave the way for future innovations.

The current NFE policy marginally touches non-formal approaches to skills training and vocational training. This has to be further strengthened with arguments in education policy debates, underpinned by the increasingly critical discussion on employability and income-orientation. Implementation has to focus on infrastructural measures, such as the expansion of Community Learning Centres (CLC). The aim is to gather information regarding the baseline situation in a relatively systematic manner – through training needs assessments and surveys covering relevant topics –, and then build up an impact-oriented monitoring system. This process is challenging as the development of the NFE Information System is still in its very early stages.

Experience in delivering adult literacy education in the Lao context is being gained together with Welthungerhilfe (German Agro Action), which just started a community development project in 20 villages in Nong District, in the Southern province of Savannakhet. Nong is situated at the border to Vietnam; it is one of the 47 poorest districts of Laos. Partners are governmental authorities at provincial, district and village level, as well as NORMAI and LADCA, two non-profit organisations (NPAs). The NPAs are fully involved in the project planning and management, their organisational development is another important objective of the project. *dvv international* supports the NFE and adult literacy component of the project. At the beginning, a baseline survey was conducted. The gathered data and information serve as the basis for a monitoring system and help assessing and meeting the education needs of the target group. If successful, the project will extend its activities to villages in the neighbouring district of Sepone.³²

Apart from the intensive cooperation with the governmental partners mentioned above, *dvv international* also works closely with UNESCO, which influences policies and practise in Laos. The UNESCO's Capacity Development for Education For All (CapEFA)

programme is particularly important, which focuses on 4 sectors, including non-formal education. It is coordinated from the UNESCO regional office in Bangkok that also sends experts to Laos.³³ Important is also the Education Sector Working Group; all major international donors and expert organisations regularly meet with relevant departments of the Ministry of Education.

dvv international's work is embedded in the Lao-German Development Cooperation, in its unified approach since the fusion of the GTZ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für technische Zusammenarbeit), DED (Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst) und INWENT (Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung) into the GIZ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für internationale Zusammenarbeit). The non-formal vocational education and training sector is taken up in cooperation with the GIZ. There are some formal vocational training centres in all provinces, and in some provinces they were turned into Integrated Vocational Education Centres (IVET). A number of pilot projects are underway: A training needs analysis determines what training need exists. Tracer studies evaluate vocational course employment outcomes. Additional to the vocational trainings, the IVET centres offer non-formal education courses in commerce, craft skills and home economics for youth and adults. Evaluations are important so that courses and curricula can be further improved. The cooperation with the National University of Laos (NUOL), particularly the Vocational Teacher Training Division, is crucial in this respect.³⁴

4.3 Approaches of *dvv international* with partners in Cambodia

Cambodia has a rich, centuries-old and often troubled past. Angkor Wat – a UNESCO World Heritage Site – is the world's largest sacral building complex. French colonialism, the Vietnam War, which has left a legacy of unexploded bombs, and particularly the Khmer Rouge's reign of terror have left a trail of deep wounds and scars. Cambodians are only slowly coming to terms with their tragic history. Cambodia is a constitutional monarchy advocating a multi-party liberal democracy. The country is divided into 24 provinces with more than 1600 communities. The capital Phnom Penh has a population of 1.5 million people. The per capita income was reported to be \$600 in 2008. One third of the total population lives below the poverty line; 90% of those below the poverty line are rural dwellers. In the Human Development Index 2010, Cambodia is ranked 124 out of 169 countries surveyed. Foreign aid accounts for half of the state budget. Economic growth rates were reasonably high in recent years at 5-8%. There has been a sharp rise in footwear, clothing and textiles exports. And for some years now, Cambodia has been experiencing a construction boom, as well as a considerable increase in the number of tourists. In addition, deposits of oil and natural gas have been discovered recently and competition for concessions is in full swing. Because all previous land registration records were destroyed by the Khmer Rouge, a complicated land tenure situation prevails. There is also a widening gap between rich and poor as well as urban and rural areas.

Due to the massacres and famines during the Khmer Rouge era, Cambodia has a very young population. 60% of 14 million inhabitants are below 30 years. Population growth is estimated at 2.1% annually. In 2008, there were about 3 million children aged 6 to 17. Half a million of those school-aged children were out-of-school. The literacy rate for the population 15 and above was 73.6% in 2004, and for 15-24 years-olds 84.7%.³⁵

State expenditure for education is around 12%. But education sectors other than the formal sector or the institutions of higher education (private and public) are poorly developed. There is a serious lack of well-trained and qualified skilled workers in the economic sphere but also in the social sphere. A number of official documents highlight the importance of education for poverty alleviation, for instance in the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP). The formal education sector has priority; with regard to MDGs the aim is nation-wide primary schooling with school enrolment of 100% as an indicator.

The Education for All National Plan 2003–2015 contains important quantitative objectives. Non-formal education (NFE) plays a minor role, and is often only mentioned in passing when it comes to financing and concrete planning. In the area of non-formal education, the NFE policy (adopted in 2002) and the NFE equivalency programme policy (2008) are of importance. Both reflect the attempts to reach the EFA goals. Priority is given to offering a second-chance to pursue primary and secondary education and attaining related certificates, respectively. Therefore, the curriculum is by and large predetermined, though a life-skills component – with primary focus on vocational skills – is supposed to play an important role as well. In both documents the term lifelong learning appears, albeit without elaborating implications of implementing an education strategy accordingly, and without considerations of lifelong learning as a system. In 2008, the National Action Plan for Non-formal Education was adopted.³⁶ The plan includes diverse programmes for adult literacy, continuing education, second-chance education, and income-generating and life-improving measures, targeting different urban and rural groups. It also states far-reaching quantitative (annually, 2.400 adult literacy classes with 60.000 learners; annually 45.000 drop-outs in re-entry programmes) and qualitative measures, like improving information,

monitoring and management systems that are supposed to be based on the provisions of the formal sector. Unfortunately, there is very few robust data available so far indicating an implementation of the plan.

In Cambodia, *dvv international* opted for strengthening civil society and its engagement for NFE. As part of this strategy, NGO Education Partnership (NEP), a membership organization for education NGOs, is supported through capacity development, advisory and funding of programmes. The starting point is thus the strengthening of partner organisations and expansion of their programmes that are related to *dvv international's* agenda. Networking of partners is a key strategy. YRDP (Youth Resource Development Program) and YFP (Youth for Peace) are members of NEP.³⁷ NEP is well established and recognized in their work; it also supports the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MoEYS), particularly in improving the effectiveness of the formal education sector. *dvv international* focuses on strengthening NEPs engagement for NFE.

On the government side, the MoEYS is responsible for non-formal education at national, provincial, district and commune levels through its Department of Non-formal Education (DNFE). Vocational education and training, on the other hand, is under the direction of the Ministry of Labour. In the recent years, the DNFE has been neglected, at least in comparison to the main departments of primary and secondary education, as well as the higher education sector. UNESCO Phnom Penh and DNFE have entered into a cooperation agreement, which draws upon the CapEFA (Capacity Development on Education for All) programme. In the context of the evaluation a study on stakeholders and courses in the NFE sector, as well as a capacity assessment of DNFE itself are conducted; at the end an action plan for the years 2012-14 is planned.

RUPP (Royal University of Phnom Penh) offers two relevant Master degree programmes (one in development and another in ed-

ucation), which are important for advancing the knowledge of qualified personnel in the education and development sectors. In the beginning, the Master of Education is supported through offering of scholarships – if possible targeting staff in partner organisations –, provision of teaching and learning materials and strengthening courses. The author teaches master's level classes in Comparative Studies in Education, which allows good insights into the programme, as well as the quality of students who are mostly working in the education sector. Classes take place on weekends. A strong focus on non-formal and continuing education sector is sought to be established.³⁸

Another thematic focus is on remembrance and reconciliation of the war and genocide, which is taken up with a number of youth organisations, especially YFP and YRDP.³⁹ Both have experience stretching over a decade, running cooperation with up to 10 donors. And they possess a qualified core team of employees. Priorities were formulated in collaboration with *dvv international*, which are the basis for implementation plans, including innovative approaches with a broad impact, such as essay competitions, popular youth fora, and radio programmes. They are involved in a wide range of good quality publications. Their work is embedded in diverse political and judicial investigation processes related to the violence in the context of the genocide committed by the Khmer Rouge. However, both youth organisations have started diversifying their work in terms of target groups and expansion to other regions and areas. Environmental education has taken a central role in the dialogue with *dvv international* and will be established as another area of cooperation.

In the north-eastern province of Ratanakiri, Welthungerhilfe and local NGOs are partners in the delivery of NFE at village level. Pilot projects in adult literacy are underway. In the beginning, a baseline survey and training needs analysis were conducted to as-

sess learning needs. The aim is furthermore to develop expertise for advisory services to Ministries and departments at national, provincial and district level.

Hence, *dvv international* follows the aim of partner orientation in Cambodia as well. This is implemented with Cambodian and international organisations, through direct cooperation, as well as support and networking in the framework of coalitions and campaigns. Policy dialogue in the country – with UNESCO and ASPBAE – is an important aspect. The collaboration with UNESCO Bangkok and UNESCO Phnom Penh, particularly with regard to CapEFA works very well. This close coordination is necessary and helpful in respect to consultations with the DNFE. *dvv international's* cooperation with organisations of the Cambodian-German-Cooperation was linked to the former German Development Service (DED) through certain agreement. This plays a key role in the reconciliation and remembrance culture. After the fusion into the GIZ, further expansion into other thematic and regional focal areas has to be considered. Cambodia is an important EU-partner country in terms of poverty reduction and sustainable development. The EU is also an important donor to the education system. The multiple funding opportunities of the EU can be utilised to diversify financial means.

5. A glance into the future: more dialogue and exchange

It appears that the transition of the European Economic Community to the European Union is model, at least to some extent, for developments in Southeast Asia. ASEAN – Laos and Cambodia are members, as well other Southeast Asian countries such as Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia and Singapore – has expanded its cooperation from economic and political spheres to the area of educa-

tion.⁴⁰ A common lifelong learning programme, like the one the EU has initiated at the beginning of the millennium, hasn't been developed yet. Neither is there an equivalent to the EQF (European Qualification Framework), which is the reference point for the national qualification frameworks. However, in the vocational education and training sector there are first initiatives in this direction.⁴¹

SAMEO, the Southeast Asia Ministers of Education Organisations, exerts influence in terms of innovation and coordination, with its different institutes and programmes (especially INNOTECH and VOCTECH) on the various countries. UNESCO Bangkok, on the other hand, has influence through long-term programmes on the entire Asian-Pacific region, including Southeast Asia. The focus is on ICT in various areas of education, as well as on CLC as a special strategy for institutional development in the NFE sector. As an UN organisation it is responsible for the implementation of MDGs, EFA and CONFINTEA. With regard to the EFA process and its coming major milestone in 2015, End-of-Decade Notes were prepared in 2011. Working groups were established, with ASPBAE co-chairing the group focusing on Goal 3 and 4 (skills and literacy) and *dvv international* as part of the reference group. Not surprisingly, the results in respect to these two goals are disappointing, as achievements in providing sufficient education opportunities for youths and adults and reduction of illiteracy have clearly fallen short of the goals. The assessment conferences of the EFA-coordinators in the region were an excellent opportunity to exchange and networking.⁴²

The year 2011 offers another special chance: ASEM, the Asia-Europe-Meeting is going to take place in Laos in November 2012. ASEM is a forum for regular exchange among all member states of the EU and ASEAN, as well as a number of economically important countries, such as China, India, Japan, Korea and Pakistan. Recently, Russia, Australia and New Zealand have become members as well.

In the context of ASEM, education is taken very seriously. In 2009, the establishment of an education secretariat was agreed upon, and for 4 years the secretariat has been under the auspices of German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF). There are several active working groups under the ASEM Education and Research Hub for Lifelong Learning, which organised a number of conferences and have published related documentations.⁴³ The university sector is certainly dominating – on the European side through ERASMUS-MUNDUS and the DAAD, which organises students and academics exchanges. First steps towards a Grundtvig-Mundus are being made. It is also conceivable that ASEM-meetings, besides the exchange on political and economic issues between head of states, are utilised to initiate another education campaign with the focus on youth and adult education within lifelong learning, led by ASPBAE and EAEA? If that is deemed feasible and useful, *dvv international* could support such as process through its Regional Office.

Cooperation with Laos and Cambodia has started successfully and regional cooperation could be intensified. In the framework of the BMZ funding cycles, the continuation in the years 2012 to 2014 is proposed. Without doubt, it is in the interest of discussions on development and education policy to closely observe this process in the future.

Notes

- 1 See the broad discussion in the special issue: Education for Transformation. In: *Development*, 4, 2010
- 2 See Chris Duke, Heribert Hinzen: Youth and Adult Education within Lifelong Learning: Claims and challenges. In: *Development*, 4, 2010, 465–470; a good overview is provided by Jin Yang and Raul Valdes Coteria (eds.): *Conceptual evolution and policy developments in lifelong learning*. Hamburg: UIL 2010
- 3 See EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006: *Literacy for Life*. Paris: UNESCO Publishing 2005; an especially interesting study on Laos is: Ministry of Education, Department of Non-formal Education: *Lao National Literacy Survey 2001. Final Report*. Bangkok: UNESCO, 2004; see article on Salomon-Islands in this issue.
- 4 See Level-one Survey (leo) about the extent of functional illiteracy in Germany, by Prof. Anke Grotlüschen, Universität Hamburg, presented from Federal Minister Annette Schavan on 28.2.2011. <http://bundesforschungsministerin.de/de/426.php>
- 5 See Hanf, Theodor, Karl A. Ammann, Patrick V. Dias, Michael Fremerey and Heribert Weiland (1975) ‚Education – An Obstacle to Development? Reflections on the Political Function of Education in Asia and Africa‘, *Comparative Education Review* 19(1): 68–876 Siehe Heribert Hinzen: *Bildung in den Entwicklungsprogrammen der Volkergemeinschaft*. In: Jörg Siebert (Red.): *Misereor Themen: Bildung*. Aachen 2006, S. 34–43; see also Heribert Hinzen, Josef Müller (Hrsg.) *Bildung für Alle – lebenslang und lebenswichtig. Die großen internationalen Konferenzen zum Thema Grundbildung: Von Jomtien (Thailand) 1990 bis Dakar (Senegal) 2000. Ihre Ergebnisse, ihre Wirkungen und ihr Echo. Internationale Perspektiven der Erwachsenenbildung 27*. Bonn: IIZ/DVV 2001
- 6 See Concept Note for EFA GMR 2012. Paris 2011
- 7 See Supplement ‘Skills’, *Adult Education and Development*, 77, 2011
- 8 UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning: *Global Report on Adult Learning and Education*. Hamburg: UIL, 2009; see also Uwe Garteschlaeger: *Weltweites Recht auf Weiterbildung*.
- 9 Internationale Konferenz zur Erwachsenenbildung prangert Defizite auch in entwickelten Ländern an. In: *diskurs*, 1, 2010, 23; the most important results of CONFINTEA VI. In: *Adult Education and Development*, 75, 2010

- 10 On the loss of importance see statement of statement of IIZ/DVV Advisory Board and DVV Executive Board from 10. Juni 2001 in Berlin: Zur Bedeutung der Erwachsenenbildung in der Entwicklungszusammenarbeit, 1–3; see www.dvv-international.de
- 11 See Learning for All: Investing in People’s Knowledge and Skills to Promote Development. World Bank Group Education Strategy 2020 – Executive Summary. April 2011
- 12 See also Commission of the European Communities: New Skills for New Jobs. Anticipating and matching labour market and skills needs. Brussels, 16.12.2008, COM(2008) 868 final; EAEA: The Response of the EAEA to the Communication of the Commission: An Agenda for New Skills and Jobs: A European Contribution towards Full Employment. Brussels, June 2011
- 13 See Deutscher Bundestag: Antrag der Abgeordneten Anette Hübinger et.al.: Bildung in Entwicklungs- und Schwellenländern stärken – Bildungsmassnahmen anpassen und wirksamer gestalten. Drucksache 17/2134, 16.06.2010
- 14 See BMZ: Zehn Ziele für Bildung. BMZ Bildungsstrategie 2011–2013. Bonn 2010 (Draft)
- 15 See Heribert Hinzen: Geschichte und Geschichten. In: Ders. (Red.): Erwachsenenbildung und Entwicklung. 25 Jahre Institut für Internationale Zusammenarbeit des Deutschen Volkshochschul-Verbandes. Bonn: IIZ/DVV, 1994, 9–25
- 16 Leitlinien der Fachstelle für Erwachsenenbildung in Entwicklungsländern des Deutschen Volkshochschul-Verbandes, 1973. In: see (15), 27 and 391–395
- 17 The documentation of the world assembly can be found at www.aworldworthliving.se; see there the introductory document for the On-line-Seminar: Heribert Hinzen: Adult education as a right and a profession – Follow-up to the MDGs, the EFA Goals, and the CONFINTEA Agenda.
- 18 Heribert Hinzen (Ed.): 40 Years *dvv international*. Adult Education – Development– Cooperation. Adult Education and Development, 72, 2009
- 19 See Adult Education and Development, 72, 2009 with the conference documentation
- 20 See Gisela Waschek (ed.): Annual report 2009/10. Bonn: dvv international, 2011

- 21 See Uwe Gartenschlaeger: Wie funktioniert eigentlich *dvv international*. Die Struktur der Auslandsarbeit auf den Punkt gebracht. In: *dis.kurs*, 1/2011, S. 23–24
- 22 See the respective country portraits and cooperation partners on the website of the regional office in Laos: www.dvv-international.la. In the years of cooperation with partners, interesting materials have been developed, which can be seen at the organisations and the documentation of the regional office.
- 23 See conference website: www.bocaed.org; see also Matthias Klingenberg: Oral history, Contemporary Witnessing and History Projects in Central Asia. In: see notes (18), 247–262
- 24 See Bettina Brand, Wolfgang Schur: Afghanistan: Bildung statt Krieg. Verzweiflung und Enttäuschung im Land sind gross. Doch immer mehr Afghanen wollen, dass sich das ändert. In: *dis.kurs*, 4, 2009, 42–43; Wolfgang Schur: Afghanistan kann mehr. *dvv international* und seine Partner sind für viele Menschen am Hindukusch inzwischen unverzichtbar geworden. In: *dis.kurs*, 1/2011, 27–29
- 25 See Chris Duke: The Year of the Sheep – International Cooperation for Adult Education. In: *Adult Education and Development*, 60, 2003
- 26 See Edicio dela Torre, Vasanth Kannabiran: Strengthening a Strategic Learning Partnership. Evaluation of ASPBAE – *dvv international* Cooperation. Report for *dvv international*. 21. November 2007
- 27 See Maria Khan: Coping with Regional Challenges: The Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE). In: *Lifelong Learning in Europe*, 4, 2010, 207–214; see also www.aspbae.org
- 28 See Heribert Hinzen: Cooperation and Exchange in Adult Education. The Case of *dvv international* in South and Southeast Asia. In: *Lifelong Learning in Europe*, 4, 2010, 198–206
- 29 With regards to the work with PRIA, there are several evaluations, documentation and learning materials (also for the distance education course) ; see www.pria.org
- 30 Information are available on the website of GIZ (former country information portal of INWENT): <http://liportal.inwent.org/laos.html>
- 31 See Ministry of Education, Department of General Education: Education for All. National Plan of Action 2003–2015. Vientiane, UNESCO Bangkok, 2005; Ministry of Education: Education Sector Development Framework 2009–2015. Vientiane: April 2009
- 32 Lamphoune Luangxay, Mathias Pfeifer: Challenges of Introducing Innovative Adult Learning Approaches in Laos. In *Adult Education and Development*, 76, 2011, 201–210

- 33 Ministry of Education, Department of Non-formal Education: NFE Capacity Building Master Plan (Draft). Vientiane: Ministry of Education, 2010
- 34 See the article by Thomas Bohlmann in this issue
- 35 Information are available on
<http://liportal.inwent.org/kambodscha.html>
- 36 See Royal Government of Cambodia: Education for All. National Plan 2003–2015. Education for All – All for Education. Phnom Penh: NEFAC, 2003; Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports: National Action Plan for Non-formal Education 2008– 2015. Phnom Penh: MoEYS 2008
- 37 For more information see websites of these organisations: www.nepcambodia.org, www.yfpcambodia.org, www.yrdp.org
- 38 See <http://www.rupp.edu.kh/master/education.php>
- 39 In addition to the materials of YFP and YRDP see Ivanova, Vanya; Klingenberg, Matthias: Fact finding mission to Phnom Penh on the possibilities of a *dvv international* intervention in the field of reconciliation and processing history. Sofia and Bonn. October 2010. pdf. Bonn: *dvv international*
- 40 See the websites of ASEM, ASEAN, SEAMEO und UNESCO Bangkok, which provide information on the different forms of regional and international cooperation of these organisations
- 41 See also the interesting PhD thesis by: Xaymountry, B.: Die Implementierung von Competency-Based-Training-Ansätzen in Südostasien – Fallstudien für Laos, Thailand und Vietnam. Hamburg, 2009
- 42 The End-of- Decade Notes for EFA Goals 3 (Skills) and 4 (Literacy) were presented at the EFA-Coordination-Conference in Seoul, Korea from 25–28 Juli 2011; see www.unescobkk.org
- 43 See 3rd Asia Europe Meeting of Ministers for Education (ASEMME3) Copenhagen, 9/10 May 2011. Shaping an ASEM Education Area. Conclusions by the Chair. This and further documents on <http://www.asem-education-secretariat.org>

Biographical notes

Prof.(H) Dr. Dr. h. c.(H) *Heribert Hinzen* studied in Bonn and obtained his doctorate degree in Heidelberg for a comparative study on adult education in Tanzania. Since 2009, he has been directing the Regional Office for

South and Southeast Asia of *dvv international*, the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband), in which he has been working in different positions since 1977. For 15 years, he led the Headquarters in Bonn and for a couple of years the offices in Sierra Leone and Hungary. He was vice-president of the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA) and of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) and is member of the UN Literacy Decade Expert Group as well as of the Reference Group on Higher Education for EFA. In 2000, he was part of the German delegation for the EFA World Education Forum in Dakar and in 2009 for the CONFINTEA VI in Belem. He is in the Editorial Board of Adult Education and Development as well as Advisory Editor of the Asia Pacific Education Review. He has been awarded an honorary professorship at the universities of Iasi and Pecs, where he additionally received the honorary doctorate. At the Royal University of Phnom Penh, he is teaching Comparative Education in the Master of Education Program.

Address: *dvv international*, Regional Office, P.O.Box 1215, Vientiane, Lao PDR

Email: hinzen@dvv-international.la

ຈົດໝາຍຂ່າວ

ການຮຽນຮູ້ຕະຫຼອດຊີວິດ ແລະ ການສຶກສານອກໂຮງຮຽນຢູ່
ສປປ ລາວ ແລະ ອາຊີຕາເວັນອອກສ່ຽງໃຕ້

Newsletter

Lifelong Learning and Non-formal Education
in Lao PDR and Southeast Asia



ຈັດພິມໂດຍ: ຫ້ອງການຮ່ວມມືນາໆຊາດເພື່ອການສຶກສາລາວ-ໄທຍໄຢຍລະມັນ ແລະ
ຫ້ອງການໃນ ສປປ ລາວ ແລະ ກຳປູເຈຍ

PUBLISHED BY DVV INTERNATIONAL IN COOPERATION WITH PARTNERS IN
LAO PDR AND CAMBODIA



ບົດບັນນາທິການ

ສະບັບນີ້ແມ່ນສະບັບທີສອງຂອງພວກເຮົາ
ແລ້ວ, ໃນສະບັບນີ້ພວກເຮົາໄດ້ເອົາໃຈໃສ່ບັນ
ພິເສດ ແຕ່ມັນກໍ່ມີຄວາມຫຍຸ້ງຍາກພໍ່ສົມຄວນ.
ພວກເຮົາຈຶ່ງຂໍຄວາມຊ່ວຍເຫຼືອມາຍັງບັນດາ
ເພື່ອນຮ່ວມງານ ເພື່ອຊ່ວຍບັບປຸງ ຫຼື ຊ່ວຍສົ່ງ
ເອກະສານ, ຂໍ້ມູນກ່ຽວກັບກິດຈະກຳ ແລະ
ແຫຼ່ງທີ່ມາຂອງຂໍ້ມູນ. ພວກເຮົາຄິດວ່າມັນ
ອາດຈະອອກມາດີກວ່ານີ້ຖ້າພວກເຮົາຊ່ວຍກັນ
, ສະນັ້ນ ພວກເຮົາຂໍເຊີນບັນດາທ່ານຊ່ວຍ
ປະກອບສ່ວນສະໜັບສະໜູນອີກຄັ້ງ.
ໃນຄັ້ງນີ້ພວກເຮົາໄດ້ເນັ້ນໃສ່ສອງຂົງເຂດທີ່
ສຳຄັນໃນຕົ້ນແຖວຂອງວຽກງານການຮຽນ
ນອກໂຮງຮຽນຢູ່ ສປປ ລາວ ແລະ ກຳປູເຈຍ
ແມ່ນຢູ່ໃນເຂດທີ່ກ່າວເຖິງການຮຽນ ແລະ ກຳປູເຈຍ
ແມ່ນຢູ່ໃນເຂດທີ່ກ່າວເຖິງການສຶກສານອກ
ໂຮງຮຽນອາດຈະໄດ້ຮັບ ແລະ ອີກ
ແຜນທີ່ເຮົາສາມາດເຮັດຫຍັງໄດ້
ແດນອື່ນໆ ແລະ ຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ຜູ້ທີ່ມີຄວາມ
ຕ້ອງການ ຫຼື ຢາກຮຽນຮູ້ຕະຫຼອດຊີວິດ? ສູນ
ຮຽນຮູ້ຊຸມຊົນສາມາດຊ່ວຍຫຍັງໄດ້ແດ່?
ພວກເຮົາມີຄວາມສົນໃຈທີ່ຈະແລກປ່ຽນບົດ
ຮຽນກັບເພື່ອນຮ່ວມງານຈາກທັງ ສປປ ລາວ
ແລະ ກຳປູເຈຍ ດັ່ງນັ້ນ ພວກເຮົາຂໍນຳສະເໜີ
ບົດລາຍງານທີ່ໜ້າສົນໃຈສອງບົດຄື: ບົດໜຶ່ງ
ກ່ຽວກັບວຽກງານການຮຽນ-ການສອນຂອງ
ການນຳໃຊ້ຄູສອນສອງພາສາຢູ່ຮັດຕະນະຄີຮີ

Editorial

Here comes our second issue.
We enjoyed working on it. But
it has not always been easy.
We have to get adjusted to
inviting colleagues to write, or
to send documents,
information on events and
resources. But we have a
feeling that it will get better,
we go on fighting for it.
Therefore, please continue to
send us contributions.
We are interested in the range of
non-formal education in Lao PDR,
especially in very remote areas,
where children do not have good
opportunities to go to school.
Can non-formal education
help? And the other angle is:
What can we do for youth and
adults who want to, or even
have to continue learning
throughout life? Can
Community Learning Centers
help?
We are interested in an
exchange between colleagues
from Lao PDR and Cambodia.
We therefore present two
interesting reports looking at
developments in the neighbor
country. There was one on

ໃນສະບັບນີ້ | IN THIS ISSUE

ແຜນງານຄູສອນເດືອນທີ່ ຈັດຜັດຜູ້ປະສານສານສຶກສານອກໂຮງຮຽນ Mobile Teacher Plan in Lao PDR and Cambodia Initiated by Department of NFE	ຫ້າ 2 Page 2
ຊື່ທີ່ມາຂອງສູນຮຽນຮູ້ຊຸມຊົນໃນເມັດສາ ກຳປູເຈຍ What is a Community Learning Centre? in Cambodia	ຫ້າ 4 Page 4
ສູນຮຽນຮູ້ຊຸມຊົນຢູ່ແຂວງສຽງຮຽບ Field Visit to Community Learning Centers (CLCs) in Stung Reap Province, Cambodia	ຫ້າ 6 Page 6
ການໃຊ້ໂທລະສັບມືຖືໃນການຮຽນຮູ້ທັງສີ ເລີ່ມໄລຍະທີ 3 ເພື່ອຢຸດຕ້ອງໄສ້ຄວາມບໍ່ຮູ້ທັງສີ Using Mobile Phones for Literacy – 3rd Phase Begins to Break the Chains of Illiteracy	ຫ້າ 8 Page 8
ກອງປະຊຸມສົນທະນາກ່ຽວກັບການສ້າງແຜນວຽກງານໄຫມ່ ສຳລັບການສຶກສາລາວ-ໄທຍໄຢຍລະມັນ Workshop on Innovations in Adult Literacy in Lao PDR	ຫ້າ 10 Page 10
ອົງການອຸຍເນດສໂກ ປະຈຳພາກພື້ນຈັດກອງປະຊຸມຜູ້ ຊຸກຍູ້ຄວາມລະດັບສູງ ເພື່ອກຳເນີດສູນສຶກສາເພື່ອຊ່ວຍ ທຸກຄົນໃນປີ 2015 ແລະ ກອງປະຊຸມທີ່ບາງກອກວັນທີ 9-11 ພຶດສະພາ UNESCO Regional High-Level Expert Meeting: Towards EFA 2015 and Beyond Bangkok, 9-11 May	ຫ້າ 11 Page 11
ການສະຫ້ອນຄົ້ນການຮຽນການສອນແບບມີສ່ວນຮ່ວມ ການປະເມີນຄົ້ນການຮຽນຮູ້ທັງສີ ແລະ ການເຄື່ອນໄຫວ ກິດຈະກຳການສຶກສານອກໂຮງຮຽນທີ່ເມືອງນອງ, ແຕ່ວັນ ທີ 13-19 ພຶດສະພາ Reflection on Reflect. Assessing the Literacy and NFE Activities in Nong District, 13-19 May	ຫ້າ 11 Page 11

