TRENDS AND ISSUES IN AFRICAN EDUCATION
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Foreword

This is the second volume of a series of Education Monographs concentrating on Trends and Issues in African Education. The contributions in this volume are papers on non-formal education presented at the Fifth Biennial Training Development Conference of the African Association for Training and Development held in Addis Ababa 19-29 November 1984.

The first article focuses attention on some basic and major issues in the consideration of non-formal education. One such major issue in Africa is the concept of non-formal education as applied in its various forms in many African countries, and in this regard, the paper identifies three possible modes of non-formal education. It then considers the relationship between non-formal education and development and the relevance of the former to the needs of developing societies in rural areas. The paper also highlights on the measures for increasing the effectiveness of learning in non-formal education and concludes by proposing strategies through a systems model for the planning of non-formal education.

The second article gives an overview analysis of the development of non-formal education policies and programmes in Kenya before and after independence. It emphasizes on the value of community education for both men and women, the importance of learners as a learning resource and the place of media in non-formal education. The last article is a case study on non-formal vocational training programme and content relevance with special reference to the Industrial Training Fund Experience in Nigeria. The case study analyses the conceptual framework on which the Industrial Training Fund based its involvement in non-formal vocational training in Nigeria.

The three articles argue that non-formal education should be considered as an alternative to the provision of education and training because it is more responsive, tailor-made and relevant to the needs of developing communities in rural areas. These are but a few of the many issues reflected in the articles of this second monograph on education. It is hoped that they will provoke some thinking and comments by our readers who may wish to contact us at this address:

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CHAPTER 1

Non-Formal Education and Development: Basic issues for consideration

I. Introduction

One of the tasks of the Fifth Biennial Training Development Conference of the African Association for Training and Development would be to review the role of non-formal education in extending knowledge, skills and information, appropriate technology and educational opportunities to the rural entrepreneurs, traditional craftsmen, out-of-school youth and peasants, and thus enabling them to refine their skills and knowledge for increased productivity.

The conference would look at non-formal education as part of the widespread search for alternatives in educational experience because of the failure of formal education to respond to development problems. These problems emanate from gaps, discrepancies and disparities caused by some of the following factors:

(a) the rapid population growth accompanied by the quest for more educational opportunities which have not kept pace with the provision of educational opportunity infra-structure - i.e. classrooms, teachers, instructional materials etc.

(b) the disparity of educational facilities and opportunities between the rural and urban areas which has resulted into rural-to-urban drift for better opportunities and social services;

(c) the failure of the formal system to equip its outputs with better knowledge, relevant skills and right attitudes for productive work or self employment. The system continues to educate for both richness and poverty, in as far as some of its output get good salaried jobs and others pace between bare subsistence and poverty.

(d) the high rates of illiteracy and the low levels of skills available for socio-economic development. Illiteracy has proved to be a serious impediment to rural development in the region; and in this regard formal education has failed to be the key to the modernization and ruralization process as was hoped at the time of independence.

(e) the different meanings and notions attached to the various firms of non-formal education processes.

(f) the lack of structural linkage between rural users and urban centres of knowledge and information organization for the enhancement of integrated rural development. To this must be added the lack of effective relationship between non-formal and formal education and their effective integration within the overall national development system.

(g) the need for opportunity to work while they learn or learn while they work and raising their families.
It may therefore be argued that arising out of the shortcomings of formal education and in general of schooling, came the search for alternatives, complements and supplements to formal education. This search led to the birth of the non-formal education concept (though the practice as distinct from the idea is not a recent phenomenon) which is part of a widespread quest for alternatives in education to suit the changing conceptions of development. This paper therefore addresses itself to the concept of non-formal education as a recent phenomenon the relationships between non-formal education and development; the need for non-formal education and finally what measures and strategies through a systems approach ought to be considered in developing non-formal education for overall national development.

II. The concept of Non-Formal Education

Research appears to have abandoned the search for a general definition of non-formal education. Efforts have focused on its definition as a contextual or functional issue by identifying certain characteristics as being applicable to the NFE concept or by pin pointing issues that separate formal from non-formal education. In spite of all this, attempts have been made to define non-formal education as "a form of administration and programme provision (by government or non-governmental bodies) which takes place outside the formal education system."

This view is more difficult to subscribe to when the Ministry of Education runs non-formal education through the same bureaucratic procedure and governmental structures. At the same time non-formal education could be looked at as a process which also adopts the rigid set forms of relationships of traditional schooling with regimented curricula, classroom, teacher or facilitator, discipline and syllabi, but unlike formal education, it is more flexible and diverse, being adapted to the particular needs of its clients or learners and their circumstances. Looked at it in this way, it can be agreed that much of what goes on is not like this but some form of elementary schooling in the methods and approaches used.

Non-formal education can be negatively defined as "all education that does not take place in schools, that is, the out-of-school education." But among the many variants of out-of-school learning such as adult education, literacy programmes, correspondence education, distance teaching, community programmes, continuing education, extension and extra-mural studies, and extension work/services, which ones of these should be regarded as most the non-formal form of education? This definition however, like the previous ones offered above, should be regarded as a contextual or functional issue by looking at characteristics that distinguish formal from non-formal education. Such contextual characteristics entail for instance:

(1) administrative affiliation in which case the distinction is based on sponsorship or government affiliation; whether one is run by government agency or privately sponsored. Often therefore concern is voiced over schoolish activities which are sponsored by non-school or non-education agencies.


In considering administrative affiliation, non-formal education consists of all those activities not discharged by the formally designated educational agencies; or all those deliberate educational activities not conducted in the school system. In this regard, the out-of-school educational activities that closely resemble school activities constitute non-formal education such non-formal education activities may be informal or incidental.

(ii) A distinction may also be based on pedagogical style or approaches as to whether they are rigid, formal, teacher or pupil centred or on the adherence to certain established standards.

(iii) Thirdly the distinction can be made on the clients of non-formal education, who are mostly the deprived rural population, school drop-outs, out-of-school youth, illiterates, school leavers yearning for a second education chance etc as opposed to formal school age population. In response to the clients, and its clientele, the functions of the school appear clear, whereas that of non-formal education do not seem clear-cut in as far as NFE activities must be outside the recurrent central core of the schooling functions.

(iv) Finally, a distinction can be made based on the reward systems of formal and non-formal education. Whereas the rewards of the formal education system are general, they are more lucrative than those of non-formal education which although specific and contingent upon what is learnt, have less attractive benefits to many of its clients.

The concept of non-formal education can still be extended further for some people, it is primarily a way of extending the influence of the basic schooling systems in extension and field-based training, in-service and continuing education, as well as the uses of mass media for extending the influence and value of the structures of formal education. To people nourishing this concept interest in NFE is promising because it may represent a new emphasis on the value of education for the wider sets of people. For other people, interest in non-formal education is something else: a demand for alternatives for formal schooling so as to be able to do something worth while for those whose educational needs are not now being met. This position arises from the conviction that new ways are demanded so as to meet the needs of those who are unable to bend themselves into schooling establishment eg. out-of-school youth. Non-formal education therefore is more than new delivery systems. It is the restructuring of goals and even the underlying assumptions about what constitutes worth while content in education.

Indeed non-formal education should not just be thought of as adult or out-of-school education confined to literacy or university extra mural studies, but it should include programmes in farmer training, all educative services to rural adult and youth producers, school age drop outs, left-outs of the formal system, illiterates and all those in need of second chance education.

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Whatever concept of non-formal education we may have, it is possible to identify three possible modes of non-formal education:

(a) education provided to youths and adults outside the formal system which does not lead to any value added paper qualification but provides the client with functional knowledge and skills for productive work;

(b) education for youths and adults outside the formal system leading to qualifications. This being deliberately provided as an alternative for them and as a form of second chance education intended to have the same results in both paper qualifications and the attendant remunerations as formal education;

(c) deliberate provision of education for both the youth and adults within the formal system to enhance their educational attainment.

The first two are the most common forms of non-formal education and it is with this in mind that we examine in the next section the relationship between non-formal education and development.

III. Non-formal Education and Development

In an earlier section of this paper, it has been pointed out that the concept of non-formal education as distinct from its practice is a recent phenomenon because there has always been some non-formal education of one kind or another from times past. But the concept and its practice have acquired greater significance in recent years because of the growing dissatisfaction with the effects of formal education in relation to development goals, and secondly arising out of the fundamental changes in the definition of the "concept of development" itself which now incorporates ideas such as people or human beings, employment, environment, social equity, participation, privileges, basic needs satisfaction, growth etc. Therefore one way of looking at non-formal education is to relate it to the concept of development, or to relate it to the major reconstruction of the concept of development now being propagated by international assistance agencies/organizations, recipients and that portion of the academic community concerned with the problems of development.

Indeed non-formal education ideas as part of a widespread search for alternatives in education might acquire greater focus from a consideration of what development means. Looked at in this way, NFE would assumes clarity and usefulness to the extent that is informed by an understanding of that toward which it is an instrumentality i.e. development itself.

Formal education has not proved to be neither the elixir for curing development ills nor the key to modernization and development as was once hoped specially at the time of independence. In fact it has reached a point in many developing countries where it is making a negative contribution to development. Unemployment does not necessarily decrease with an increase in the level of education; nor does productivity increase with an increase in the number of educated people. In many developing countries, illiterates (the backbone of their agricultural economy) are employed as producers of food. Indeed formal education rather than being a general force for equality tends to increase income inequalities.
Non-formal education is being considered as an alternative because it is more responsive, tailor made and relevant to the needs of developing societies in rural areas. It focuses on teaching people to improve their basic level of subsistence and their standards of health and nutrition. In this way, it is more immediately productive and application oriented as learners acquire knowledge and skills for their immediate use thereby avoiding the long gestation period which often exists between formal education and productive employment. Since non-formal education usually requires the participation of its recipients in determining the nature and content of the educational programmes by focusing on their needs and priorities it therefore tends to be part of life, integrated with life and inseparable from it. This is not so because it deals with the execution of agricultural, health, nutrition, literacy or mechanical skills, but because it tends to relate all these to the total life a man is living to the man he is and to the man he will become.

Through non-formal education a person does not just learn how to grow beans or peas, but learns also the effects of nutrition, not just the users of fertilizers but the benefits as well. It is therefore more of a force designed to change society and make it move towards self reliance and self sustaining, be able to control and induce change and able to contend with the momentum generated by change. It must be emphasized that NFE can do this in so far as it answers to the aspirations and needs of its clients; and is relevant to national goods. A mere change of emphasis from formal to non-formal education does not necessarily make the latter a more effective instrument for development.

Once again it must be pointed out that an emphasis on non-formal education does not entail a rejection of formal schooling which has been a very useful tool for certain purposes and will continue to be so. The major factor for us to turn to non-formal modes of education is a search for ways to do things that formal schooling has demonstrated its inability and incapability of doing; or things that can be done more effectively in the area of non-formal education rather than in formal schools. What is more pressing for us is the need to find means for effective learning which can be made available to more people at bearable costs. This, however, does not entail advocacy of non-formal education at the expense of abandoning formal schooling.

IV. The need for Non-Formal Education

Our efforts in re-aligning non-formal education to the needs and merging patterns of development is based on:

(a) the low costs involved in the development of non-formal education i.e. the low per capita or per instructional unit costs. In educational planning and decision making one cannot over-emphasize the importance of cost either in absolute terms or in terms of the proportion of national wealth. There is now increasing evidence to show that non-formal education can achieve the same or better results in education at very low per capita instructional unit cost.
(b) the limited time duration with frequent terminal points at which students may terminate their studies/training. Non-formal education has a short gestation period for an educational programme but with effective results at low costs.

(c) non-formal education has a clear and definite base in immediate human needs, be they economic, political, social, health, nutritional or educational. The focus for non-formal education is to give primary objectives which have a clear and immediate relationship to the existing human needs.

(d) non-formal education seems to cater for the provision and accommodation of the aspirations of its clients and participants, i.e. it recognizes and accommodates the aspirations of adults (literate or illiterate), unemployed youth, youths outside the school system, men and women out of work or at work, whether in urban or rural areas. In emphasizing accessibility to educational opportunities through non-formal processes, we can direct our attention to those cases that make the greatest provision for allowing the aspirations of the participants to function as powerful formative elements in programme planning and design.

(e) non-formal education has a solid linkage to real employment opportunities especially in labour intensive sectors such as agriculture and industry. As employment is a major imperative in any development effort, it does therefore provide an important focus for enquiry and planning in non-formal education with the main objective of equipping the participants with relevant knowledge and skills for immediate use.

(f) non-formal education allows for decentralized planning without the built-in inflexibility which often arises from centralized planning. Non-formal education provides a good conceptual rubric for educational approaches which tend to maximize decentralization of design and planning. In fact, non-formal education tends to break conservatism in which often views education as a time and place bound process with the emphasis on conventional academic skills and subject matter, on the use of conventional institutional structures and on education being conducted at a certain time of one's life. Non-formal education allows for learning to be conducted in the home, in the street, in the field, through the press and other distance teaching and mass media facilities.

(g) non-formal education has a high potential for the distribution of whatever commodities are associated with it such as better education, economic gains, improved health, better nutrition and acquisition of skills for self employment.

(h) it provides an opportunity for people to learn while they work and raise their families and vice versa.
The emphasis on these points does not entail a conviction on our part that non-formal education is a magic solution to problems. The main issue is that it is a more promising approach to practical knowledge acquisition for immediate application for solutions of problems than formal schooling has proved to be ineffective in dealing with the issues of rural development. The advantage of non-formal over formal education is that the former tends to be a specific and not general remedy for educational shortcomings. Its utilization ought to be determined by contextual conditions provided proper use is made of it. In this regard we need to be clear in our minds what its best potentialities are and what conditions make it most effective in developing countries. Our concern in the next section is therefore focused on increased learning effectiveness through systems development of non-formal education.

V. How to Increase Effectiveness of Learning in Non-Formal Education

One of the major reasons advanced in favour of non-formal education is that it is less costly as an alternative for providing education to the majority of the people. But the problem is how to design measures for effective learning so as to achieve educational objectives at less cost. The design of effective non-formal education involves a consideration of the motivations, expectations, abilities of the target population and the rewards and reward systems in which the target population and the learning experiences operate.

First let us examine what brings a given target population to the learning experience. From the sociological point of view, is it conformity to societal norms or enforcement/requirement by society that motivate people to learning experience? Or from the psychological point of view, is it curiosity, anxiety, ambition or anticipation of rewards that motivate individuals or groups of people to a learning experience? Whatever approach we choose to take sociological or psychological we should be clear in our own minds as to the type of motivations which exist in a target population and once this has been done, then we should be able to identify the extent motivations which are appropriate and in harmony with educational goals. These motivations ought to be nurtured, enhanced and emphasized so that learning can be made more effective.

A second aspect then would be that once motivation has been identified, we need to seriously consider as to the benefits a target population would get from the learning experience, and the rewards of the programme. Some people take to non-formal education as a second chance in education to continue from where they stopped in the formal system. There are those who do it for prestige, recognition, status, income, power or simply for self fulfilment and qualification. Since the gestation period for non-formal education is shorter, the rewards appear to be more readily demonstrable than those of non-formal education.

However if NFE is to be effective, we need to be aware of what rewards and its systems exist in the personal-social occupational environment of the learners, and realign them with educational goals. Motivation for learning is greatly enhanced if the rewards of a learning experience can be easily demonstrated either through change of income, increased social status or societal recognition.
Thirdly, if non-formal education is to be effective, the expectations of the target groups (be they pedagogical, topical or values) ought to be taken into account. What does a person who undergoes a learning experience hope to get from teachers, other learners, or from the programme content. Is he expecting a more practical or theoretical approach to the learning situation. Many programmes fail because the expectations of the programme designers and those of the learners are not in unison nor are they in harmony with the educational goals expected of the programme. It is important therefore that we should reinforce the expectations of the target population if learning is to be effective.

Another aspect that merits consideration is the matter of cognitive styles, mental and physical abilities of the target population. We need to know the level of ability of the target group to comprehend abstractions of both verbal and symbolic nature; their reading skills; the mechanical and manipulative skills previously developed before taking up this programme; the factors of health, nutrition, attention span, alertness, concentration and application of effort which might affect their learning. Above all, in terms of cognitive styles and habits of response to pedagogy, we need to define and identify learning styles which can be accommodated by the instructional design.

The approach given above can be diagramatically demonstrated as follows:
### Consideration of Factors for Designing Effective Non-Formal Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Sociological</th>
<th>Psychological</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. Motivation</strong></td>
<td>1. What brings the target population to the learning experience</td>
<td>A. (i) Conformity (ii) Societal norms (iii) Enforcement and (iv) Requirement</td>
<td>1. (a) Curiosity (b) Anxiety (c) Ambition (d) Anticipation of rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. What will the target population get from the learning experience</td>
<td>B. (i) Prestige (ii) Recognition (iii) Status (iv) Income (v) Power</td>
<td>2. (a) self-fulfilment (b) gratification (c) self employment (d) satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. Rewards</strong></td>
<td>3. What does the target population believe or hope will be their experience?</td>
<td>C. (i) Teacher roles (ii) Content (iii) Utility</td>
<td>3. (a) abstract or concrete (b) practical rather than theoretical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. Expectations</strong> (Pedagogical, topical values)</td>
<td>4. What is the target group able to do and capable of learning to do? (i.e. what are the constraints of learning?)</td>
<td>D. (i) Role acceptance (ii) Role recognition</td>
<td>4. (a) mental ability (b) cognitive style (c) affective involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV. Abilities</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VI. Strategies for Planning Non-Formal Education: A systems Model

What has been said in the foregoing paragraphs brings us to the central issue of planning for non-formal education for integrated rural development. Non-formal education is not just about teaching of adults or for teaching adults to read, write, count or some useful skills or knowledge, nor simply for the delivery of knowledge, skills and information but for solving real problems of rural communities. It has to be emphasized that rural adults are the producers of food and as such they must play a larger role as agents of social change.

Our first concern therefore is to be clear in our minds as to definition of objectives in terms of what we expect to achieve through non-formal education i.e. our objectives need to be very clear, definitive and job/task oriented. Since our task is to equip the target population with useful knowledge and skills for dealing with income generation. The learning to be achieved ought to be practical, non theoretical, less abstract, and with specific goals based on pragmatic sorts of values.

Secondly we should study the target population, (adults - new literates or illiterates, out of school youth, drop-outs or those who want to have a second chance education) in relation to the motivations value systems and reward systems within the target population's environment; their cognitive style and capability in terms of previously acquired skills and their expectations about learning and about pedagogical environment. Needless to emphasize that a precise description of the target population is absolutely essential for the successful application of the systems development procedures for instructional planning. Indeed non-formal education appears best placed for ministering to the basic needs of its target population as it is supposed to equip them with knowledge and skills for immediate and useful application.

A third aspect in planning non-formal education is to specify institutional tasks. This can be done by identifying and describing precisely the learning task objectives and proposing the instructional experience which would ensure that the objectives are achieved. This, however, can be done if we are aware of the full range of possible instructional alternatives and we have some insights into the relevance of the instructional alternatives and cultural influences on the personalities of the target population. If we are to develop an efficient instructional system, we need not only be aware of the existence of alternatives but be able to make a choice among the alternatives. At the same time, we must identify possible instructional procedures that promise to achieve the learning objectives at less the cost.

We may need to ask ourselves how best we can achieve our objectives through for instance, distance teaching techniques, mass media or through practical assignments.

Closely related to this point is the need to specify support and management tasks. Central to the planning of non-formal education delivery system is the question of use of resources. We may wish to utilize existing resources (hardware) and put new instruction through these channels but with minor modifications; or decide to develop new resources and use them as instructional channels. Should we choose the first of using existing hardware, it will be necessary to negotiate with other ministries, agencies or organizations (e.g. radio or tv authorities) to ensure the success of the NFF programme. In the case of the second choice, new resources
or personnel may be needed but since this is likely to involve a small target groups, it may be a better option.

Another factor for consideration in the planning on non-formal education is to specify the level of performance to be learned by the target population. The level of performance is different from the learning task in that it is concerned with setting the minimum acceptable level in terms of accuracy, rate of performance or the quality level of the skill. Once we have defined the learning task, the question that may be asked is: what level of competency will the non-formal system attempt to achieve? Whether it is the formal or non-formal system, it must be able to define a set of standards which represent the acceptable level of achievement of the skills or understanding. In our planning therefore, we should design a set of evaluative procedures which enable our target population to attain the expected levels of performance.

But these expectations can come to no avail if we do not have instructional materials. So our other concern is the need for the preparation of instructional materials which involves a set of tasks governed by decisions made in the specification of instructional objectives. The preparation of instructional materials demands a high degree of imagination if materials for NFE are to be useful. More importantly is the need to develop new materials for use in non-formal instructions than to adapt those originally designed for formal education because of the linguistic demands, conceptual level, degree of abstraction and differences in learning styles of the non-formal education target population.

With this mind, we should always attune instructional materials to the cognitive processes and pedagogical expectations of the NFE learners, and to provide effective learning, we should constantly take into account the cognitive differences and characteristics.

All these activities however, need trained people to ensure that they are properly done. Another important aspect therefore is the training of human resources to deal with non-formal education to ensure that the various human roles will be compatible and supportive. As a target group on its own, NFE personnel ought to have their needs analysed, their skills specified and instructional materials for their training specially designed. Most of those already involved in one aspect of education or another will need to be retrained so as to cope with the multifarious activities of non-formal education.

Given the multifarious non-formal education, delivery vehicles between knowledge organization centres with the client users, the need is for complementarity between the various vehicles; whether extension service in health, agriculture, co-operatives etc., or literacy, numeracy in "adult" education, or correspondence/distance teaching (or distance education, etc.) the point is that there may be need for restructuring the same within the frame purpose, content, and charts are determined.
While planning of the various non-formal educations delivery system and the various activities is going on, but before completing the system, it is vital that consideration be given as to how the effectiveness of the non-formal education programmes delivery system would be evaluated. For this purpose therefore, evaluation procedures based on assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the programme’s content delivery system, methodology, media, etc. should be designed. Such programme should include data collection on the various aspects, right from the analysis, at the beginning, the design and development during and at the end of the programme and the operational monitoring of impact non-formal education systems graduates. One has to ask as to how we are going to assess the rewards and effectiveness of the programme and how such information is going to be recycled so that modifications can be made to the programme.

The most important step next is the operation of the programme itself. Oftentimes a programme may start with a trial phase and then from there proceed to include the greater number of the target population. Implementation of the programme requires that the right personnel is available to ensure at least modest success.

Finally we need to evaluate the learning and its programme. This can be done by collecting data to be used for decision making. Evaluation of the programme, whatever methods we use should be a continuous process to allow for feedback and modifications to the programme.

The whole process as described above is demonstrated in diagramatic form in figure 2.

Conclusion

We will conclude this paper by saying that non-formal education as a practice (as distinct from the concept) is concerned with the problems of learning effectiveness and real life problems. It has no other justification beyond being instrumental to facilitating the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes for solving life problems. Except for those types of non-formal education which are disguised alternative forms of formal education or which provide second chance formal education, non-formal education should have no system of artificial rewards, self-justifying paper certificates, or the self denied levels of accomplishment.

In non-formal education, the reality of its effectiveness is in application and use of learning to the practical problems of life. Non-formal education makes life changing educational inputs to the learner while the frame of reference is application and life style realities. Thus our search for learning effectiveness of non-formal education is not an option but a mandate that must be pursued with all vigour to complement and supplement the effectiveness of formal education. For multifarious problems of rural development in Africa, non-formal education appears better placed to deal with them. Therefore its planning and development are crucial to Africa's survival.
2. Describe Target population:
   - Adult illiterates & new literates
   - Out of school youth
   - Dropouts, jobless
   - Their expectations, motivations, rewards

4. Specify support and management tasks:
   - Resources available
   - Mass media, radio, TV
   - Support personnel

7. Train Human Resources:
   - Educators, extension workers, discussants
   - Facilitators, animators
   - Programme writers, administrators

9. Implementation:
   - Trial Phase
   - Operate the system/programme

10. Evaluation:
    - Collect data
    - Tests
    - Assess effectiveness
    - Examine rewards
    - Unobtrusive measures
    - Recycle
CHAPTER 2

An overview of Non-formal Education Policies and Programmes in Kenya

Introduction

The concept of non-formal education in this paper is based on the definition by Coombs and Ahmed which states that non-formal education is "any organized systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children". The paper looks at the factors that have influenced the nature and trend of development of non-formal education programmes and the linkages between non-formal education and different educational and development programmes in Kenya.

The African Tradition

Traditional forms of education in most communities in Kenya tend to be predominantly informal with very short periods of organized learning that can be described as non-formal. Before the introduction of Western education, the individual received basic education through lullabies, songs, games and encouragement to imitate older people. As one grew older, education was made more challenging and delivered through stories, myths, riddles, puzzles and other informal activities intended to make one develop the power to think and to deal with problematic situations.

Organized and systematic educational activities were introduced as the youth prepared for more adult roles in life. Passage from childhood to adulthood was marked by special initiation ceremonies which often included periods of systematic instruction. Writing about the Kikuyu people, Jomo Kenyatta says that at the initiation ceremony a youth shed off childhood and was "born again" to become a warrior, a dandy, a dancer, an eater of good food and a full member of the community.

Initiation into adulthood started between the age of fifteen and twenty. In some ethnic groups like the Baluyie there was only one ceremony marking entry into adulthood while in other groups like the Kikuyu and the Tisi complete adulthood was achieved through a number of spaced out ceremonies. The main ceremony which in most ethnic groups of Kenya included circumcision for men and clitoridectomy for women lasted between six months and one year.

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2/ Ibid Informal education is defined by Coombs and Ahmed as "The lifelong process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment, at home, at work, at play"


The physical ordeal of circumcision and clitoridectomy was only a small part of a longer process of education and training covering public morality and etiquette; proper relationships between different age groups and sexes; the role of the individual in the age group and the entire community; the division of labour between different age groups as well as between men and women; and the correct interpretation of the laws, norms and customs of the community. In warlike communities, the first initiation ceremony was also preparation for military service and enrolment into community defence form.

The initiated youths entered a permanent relationship and mutual respect as members of one age group. The age group served as a historical landmark in the community. Kenyatta says that initiation and the attendant age group system had "enormous educational, social, moral and religious implications".1/ Evidently the non-formal sector of traditional education were strongly rooted in the lifelong education of the individual, and the social and economic institutions as well as the moral and spiritual life of the community. The initiates were helped to understand their community and their roles in their communities better. The educational programmes was reinforced by the community system of belief and code of conduct.

The Colonial Context

Education for the Black Race

Evolution of the Western forms of non-formal education in Kenya was influenced by the attitude of European colonial administrators and missionaries to the ability of black men to get a liberal education and to govern themselves. During the 19th century and early 20th century, European and American scientists advanced the theory that different racial groups were at different stages of evolution.2/ The white race was the most advanced while the black race was the most backward. A number of physical characteristics such as the shape of the skull, the size of the brain curvity and the color of the brain were used to prove that the whiteman was intellectually superior to the black man. These scientists therefore concluded that the black man could not manage the same kind of education given to whitemen. They recommended that the black man should be given only enough literacy education to enable him to follow industrial and agricultural education.

The notion of industrial and agricultural education for the black man was first developed in the United States of America to discipline Black Americans to use their hands and eyes accurately to instill in them humility, to promote the virtue of hard work and to prepare black men for their role in life. In contrast, it was claimed that a literacy education would create discontent, suspicion, bitterness and instability among the black people.

1/ Ibid
Colonial administrators and missionaries saw the indigenous people of Kenya as the equivalent of the working class in Europe and the black race of the United States. It was claimed that the African lived in a perpetual state of childhood.

The District Commissioner for Kitui told the 1919 Education Commission: "For some years to come (the African) must be regarded as a child, as such, not allowed to decide what is best for himself." The missionaries saw an African as a fallen man who needed to make a fresh start in the evolution process. Meanwhile, there was no need to bother him with the kind of education given to whitemen. He had to be trained to work with his hands, to appreciate the value of hard work and to take his proper position in the colonial situation dominated by European colonialists.

Introduction of Western forms of Education

Christian missionaries introduced western education on the East Coast of Africa in the late 19th century for resettlement of freed slaves who faced risks of re-enslavement, starving to death or losing their lives if they attempted to trace their way back to their places of origin. Missionaries organized them to raise their own food and to establish a self-reliant community. In 1871 a 200 acre settlement scheme was started at Freretown about 10 miles from Mombasa for 300 settlers of whom half were children. The settlers received instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, religion and practical skills. The boys were grouped into three categories: (1) those who showed potential for leadership were prepared for the role of preachers and teachers; (2) those with ability to learn skilled jobs were taught carpentry, masonry and blacksmithing; and (3) the rest who showed least ability to learn were taught how to make mats and bags. Girls were mainly taught sewing and gardening.

Subsequently missionaries opened many more stations along the coast as well as in the interior and mounted educational programme modelled on the Freretown Curriculum. In order to make the mission station an effective centre for Christian propaganda, missionaries decided to recruit young children who would be relatively easy to teach and to separate from their homes for long periods. The focus on long term education for children conducted in boarding schools marked the separation of formal education exclusively for children from non-formal education conducted outside the school system.

A number of out-of-school programmes were established by missionaries to run alongside the emerging formal schools. The Church Missionary Society (CMS) established a programme at Maseno consisting of carpentry, blacksmithing and brick making. In conjunction with the CMS the East African Industries started a programme on ploughing and cultivation. In 1911 the church of Scotland based at Kikuyu mounted industrial apprenticeship and training for medical assistants and three night schools for adult men. At the same time the Friends African Mission established a wood industry at Kaimosi. The first government vocational education programme was established in 1907 to train young men in carpentry and joinery.

As the formal education for children was separated from vocational non-formal education, the stigma associated with the latter crystalized and the conflict between the colonialists and the indigenous people of Kenya over what kind of education should be given to Kenyans became severe.

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Colonial Policies and Programmes

Evolution of Policy on Non-formal Education

The initial education programmes mounted by missionaries along the Coast of East Africa were non-formal in nature as suggested above. The colonial administrators and missionaries argued that Africans were incapable of following a literary education. In 1909 Frazer who became education advisor to the colonial government recommended that a department of education be established to take responsibility for the education of all races of Kenya. Influenced by the debate on the educability of black people, he recommended industrial and agricultural education for Africans focusing on children.

Educational policy remained static during the 1914-18 war. After the war, the colonial Government appointed a commission to look into the education of the country. The commission mainly collected information from colonial administrators, missionaries and white settlers and recommended, among other things, that the Government should establish village schools which should act as development centres for the communities around them. A village school was intended to educate the community in health, farming and other elements of basic education and social development.

In 1924 the colonial office appointed the Phelps-Stokes Commission to review education in East and Central Africa. The report of the Phelps Stoke Commission proposed industrial and agricultural education for Africans. The colonial office memorandum of 1925 on education was based on the Phelps Stoke report. The colonial office suggested that industrial and agricultural education was more fitted to the immediate needs and intellectual abilities of the Africans.

The colonial administrators, missionaries and white settlers used the Phelps-Stokes recommendations and the 1925 memorandum to justify separate educational systems for the different races in the country. For Africans, industrial and agricultural education was seen as an inferior educational system. Indeed all the people of Kenya including the colonial administrators, missionaries and white settlers believed that industrial and agricultural education was an inferior alternative to literary education.

1/ Jesse-Jones, Thomas, Education in East Africa. London, Edinburgh House Press, 1925
2/ HMSO. Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Areas, CMD. 2374, 1925
Evolution of Modern Non-formal Education Programmes

The educational system proposed by the Phelps-Stoke Commission was intended to retain the African in his community. The educated Africans would act as extension agents, giving guidance to their people in agriculture, home management, principles of good health and general improvement of life in the community. The village school supervised by specially trained all-purpose educators would serve as the development nerve centre for the community in the village. The village school supervisors would be trained at Jeanes school as explained below.

The Jeanes School idea came out of the Phelp-Stoke Commission and we modelled on the Jeanes Industrial Teacher programme found in the United States. The School was started off with a grant of £37,000 from the Carnegie Foundation of New York. In 1925 the school opened its door to the first fifteen trainees to take a two year course. The curriculum of the school started off with lessons in religious instruction, physical training and games, literacy and arithmetic, history, geography, civics and professional techniques in teacher training. Towards the end of the course the curriculum was extended to include art, practice in the supervision of village schools improvement of rural life, village development, methods of extension work, the role of native customs and cooperative philosophy and procedures. Every trainee studied agriculture and worked on an agricultural demonstration plot. The students visited schools, and organized night schools as part of their training.

All students came to the schools with their wives. The strategy was to acquaint wives with the kind of work their husbands would be doing and at the same time to get some basic education on home management. The trainees and their wives were expected to set up model homes back in their communities. To instill cooperative principles, the school started a cooperative shop in 1927. In the same year, the school started a newspaper as a tool for informing and educating a community. And during the vacations the trainers visited the students back in their home settings.

Community educators trained at the Jeanes School were expected to enlighten their communities on agriculture, health, education and all aspects of development using the village school as their base. In practice the Jeanes teacher was doomed to fail. Most of the teachers trained by the Jeanes School were protestants and therefore not acceptable to Catholic schools and communities. The Protestant missionaries and their own teachers who were better trained on how to handle children. The idea of linking the school and the community was not in harmony with the missionary approach of removing children from the contaminating influence of their communities.

Government departments were developing their own extension systems with field workers who were more professionally qualified than the Jeanes teachers. In the legislative assembly, which was dominated by white settlers, the Jeanes School came under attack mainly because of the training in civics, cooperative principles and other liberal education aspects of the programme. The African nationalists were indifferent to the Jeanes School programme. They wanted their people to have the same education as the Asian and European communities.

Apart from the village school educator, the Jeanes School introduced some short specialized courses. In 1932 a course for health inspectors was started. The course attracted ten participants with their wives. Attempts to start a course for agricultural instructors during the same year failed mainly because the Agricultural Department was starting its own training programme for extension workers. In 1934 a course for women in home making attracted forty participants.

One of the Jeanes school courses that had impact on the country for a long time was a course for farmers started in 1934. Participants to this course were recruited from all over the country. They had to be farmers who were already making an effort to modernize their farming practices. They were expected after the course to develop a model farm in their communities as a process of extension, or teaching their neighbours by example. The curriculum for this course included religious instruction, working on a demonstration plot, observing the farming practices and lives of the farmers around the school and attending classes on different aspects of crop and animal husbandry.

In 1939 the Jeanes School programmes were suspended and the centre used for war purposes. Meanwhile other non-formal education programmes were evolving under different government departments. The Agricultural Department initiated a training programme for agricultural extension workers. On completion of the programme, the trainees were expected to get employment under local government authorities to work on demonstration farms, production of good seed for their communities and educating farmers. This programme was inhibited by two problems: The people who came forward for training did not have the minimum education required to follow a specialized course. Of the fifty nine (59) instructors trained by 1928 only twenty four (24) were able to obtain employment.

Under the Education Department, a voluntary organization mounted evening continuing classes for the Asian and European communities in Nairobi. The main courses offered were book-keeping, surveying, electrical and mechanical engineering and languages like Latin, French and Kiswahili. Initially elementary courses in English and literacy which would have catered for the Africans were not introduced until 1941.

Continuing education classes were run by a voluntary committee with representatives from Nairobi Municipal Council, the Asian Community, the Kenya Society, the Education Department and the major employment agencies in Nairobi notably the office of the Postmaster General, the Mines Department and the Kenya Uganda Railways. Most of the funding came from Nairobi Municipal Council; but neither Nairobi Municipal authority nor the Education Department wished to be held responsible for the policies of the council which tended to discriminate against the indigenous people of Kenya. An African representative was invited to join the committee in 1945.
The Jeanes School was used to demobilize ex-service men after the end of the war. Ex-Servicemen were trained to become social welfare assistants, probation assistants, British Legion Assistants, school teachers, agricultural instructors, health assistants, clerks and traders using the Jeanes school model of education. The traders course had a wide range of specialized areas which interested ex-servicemen such as transport business, retail trade and a variety of small scale industries like baking.

By 1948 the number of soldiers declined and the centre reverted to civilian use in 1949, starting with a two-months course for farmers. Participants to this course were recruited from all over the country from among the farmers who had adopted progressive methods of farming. Each farmer had to bring along his wife to get some education on farming and home making. The wives were expected to support their husbands in the field after the course. The main areas of the course curriculum for farmers were agriculture, animal husbandry, management of a small holdings, civics, simple economics, cooperative principles, health education and social development.

During the course, the trainees lived with and learnt about Kenyans from different parts of the country. They made visits to farms and industries around the school and did practical farming on demonstration plots in the school. Instructors followed up their trainees in the field to help them cope with local problems. At the same time, the instructors helped the government extension agents by organizing short field courses for farmers and helping individual farmers cope with specific problems on their farms. Like all earlier Jeans School programmes, farmers courses ran into difficulties. Coordination of recruitment was difficult as the Jeanes School had to relay on District Officers who did not all believe in the Jeanes School approach. It was not possible to design courses on specific farming problems as the farmers came from regions of the country with different farming practices and needs. There were complaints from the Agricultural Department that the Jeanes School courses were too long for farmers to be away from their homes.

In order to deal with the problem of varying learning needs among the farmers, the school proposed to organize courses on regional basis. The length of the courses was reduced from two months to an average of five weeks. Jeanes Schools teachers stepped up their follow-up programmes to support their farmers trainees and to help farmers in the field deal with special individual problems.

Agricultural Department was opposed to the Jeanes School programme which they saw as interference in agricultural extension by non-professionals. The opposition from the agricultural extension service was summarized in a letter from the District Agricultural Officer as follows:

1. It (the Jeanes School) caters to the whole country and is therefore unable to understand problems particular to any one district.

2. The normal five week courses are too long for farmers to be away from their farms.

1/ Ibid pp. 83-118
3. Its officers do not tour the districts frequently enough to keep pace with current developments.

4. Inclusion of civics and other subjects in a farmers' course is a waste of time.

5. There is no examination at the end of the course.

The officer was out to pick on any excuse to discredit the Jeanes School. Only the second point on the length of the courses had substance in it. All the others were half truths or complete nonsense. Jeanes School teachers made extensive visits to students' homes to learn the problems their trainees encountered in every day life, to organize short need-based field courses and to give assistance to individual farmers. Inclusion of civics in the curriculum might have been unpalatable to a colonial administrator but any knowledge on how government works and who was responsible for what in government was useful to the farmer. The suggestion of an examination for farmers after a short course was ludicrous to say the least.

Traders Courses

Business has virtually replaced cattle as the symbol of wealth and prestige among the indigenous people of Kenya. Ownership of a business building or a running business is the goal of most Kenyans. But many of the businesses in the rural areas hardly break even, and sometimes survive on subsidies from the other sources of income. Usually business is a part-time engagement carried on along side farming and/or paid employment. By 1949 when the Jeanes School reopened, there were no trade officers to help rural businessmen. In 1953, a Department of Trade was established and in 1954 the Government introduced loan schemes for African traders. It was found that the loanees had problems with keeping books of accounts, accounting for personal expenses out of their business, displaying goods and generally controlling their businesses.

The Jeanes School started a course for small scale traders, but had problems in finding a competent teacher who had (1) a good knowledge of the rural environment in Kenya, (2) a knowledge of business studies and (3) could communicate effectively in Kiswahili. The course started in 1956. Participants were recruited through District Commissioners or local government councils. The participants were required to have basic primary education and a working knowledge of Kiswahili. The curriculum consisted of simple accounts, shop management, business methods and arithmetic. The residential trainees at the Jeanes School also benefitted from the liberal education studies conducted on the campus.

As government field administrators and extension agents increased in the countryside, they attempted to give their own short courses lasting one or two days. In addition, the Jeanes School organized shorter courses of one week duration conducted locally using school buildings and other public buildings. Jeans teachers also visited their trainees in their home and trading centres.
The major problem with the traders course was the teaching language. The most successful course was a six weeks course taught in English. By the time the Jeanes School closed in 1961, about 1000 traders had gone through the school.

Cooperative Education

Producer cooperatives emerged in the country as the African farmers started to produce for the market. Initially the members did not understand cooperative principles, officials elected by cooperative societies were ignorant and inefficient and government officers supposed to supervise the new cooperative societies were few and unable to handle all the societies existing let alone those emerging. The government extension officers normally inspected accounts and minutes of meetings only. They did not explain the purpose of cooperative structures and procedures. It seems the government of the day was not committed to the philosophy of the cooperative movement.

East African countries, Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania agreed in 1951 to establish a school of cooperation near the Jeanes School. The two schools were separate but they worked together amicably sharing teaching resources and other opportunities and facilities. The school of cooperation introduced along course for government cooperative officers, three weeks course for society secretaries and shopkeepers, a one week course for committee members and two week courses for society secretaries and treasurers. The core curriculum was book-keeping accounts and committee management.

Education for Women

The Jeanes School took a lead in emphasizing the education of women in Kenya. Men who were admitted to a course at the school were required to live on the school campus with their wives. While the husbands did their specialized course, women learnt domestic science, civics and agriculture. The wives were expected to help their husbands in the field to develop a model home and to perform their work effectively. A wife had to have some idea of the professional specialization of her husband.

From the point of view of the community, education and training for women was not a priority. There were more important tasks to be performed in the home. Besides, no husband or father would risk letting the wife or daughter to live alone in a predominantly male community on the Jeanes School campus. In 1950 the first course of nine women was mounted at the Jeanes School, inspite of the cultural obstacles against women education. Participants were selected by District Commissioners and were expected, after the course, to start women clubs in their home areas.

Teaching was done in Kiswahili and the main topics covered were cooking, types of food, childcare scientific farming and mending studies. The women also learnt some civics and other liberal studies. In 1951 women clubs from different parts of the country met and formed a national organization, Maendeleo ya Wanawake (Women Progress Association). For a number of years Maendeleo Association worked under the umbrella of the Government. In 1955 the Association became a member of the Association of Country Women of the world. In 1959 Maendeleo Association was registered as a private organization.
Women clubs increased in number to 986 by 1967. Each club was supposed to have elected leaders. The functions of the clubs were varied with numerous income generating, community service, and cultural activities. The clubs were supervised by a homecraft officer and frequently visited by other government extension workers, especially those responsible for agricultural development, health services and community development.

Women clubs leaders were normally trained at Homecraft Training Centres (HTC). Homecraft Training Centres had emerged under the influence of the Jeanes School to provide short courses for women clubs in the field. By 1957, the country had ten HTCs built jointly by local government authorities and the Central Government. Running expenses came from local government authorities and the fees paid by trainees. The language of instruction was Kiswahili and the main courses offered were homecare, cooking, childcare, nutrition, needlework, hygiene, agriculture and civics. The main course for women club leaders lasted three months, and those who wished to get further training were admitted to the Jeanes School programme.

In 1957, Homecraft Training Centre were renamed Community Development Training Centre (CDTC) and their functions expanded to cover the training of both men and women. The two-year training course became a course for Community Development Assistants (CDA) while the shorter courses were retained to serve women clubs. The CDTC also offered conference facilities for other courses.

Expansion of the Jeanes School Programme

It was realized from the outset that the Jeanes School could not provide all the training required in extension work and community development. Jeanes School instructors used their vacations visiting their trainees, organizing and running shorter courses in the field and assessing the needs of their potential trainees. In 1953, the Jeanes School proposed to start a second Jeanes School in Western Kenya at Maseno. The building was completed in 1955 with funds from the local authority and in 1956 the school started working. The main clientele were expected to be farmers, traders, local leaders and grassroots extension agents. The Jeanes School programme wound up in 1961 and the facilities became training institutions for the Government.

Adult Literacy

Jeanes School teachers included literacy in practically all their programmes. Illiteracy was seen as one of the main obstacles to community development in Kenya. Jeanes School trainees and all community development staff were expected to establish literacy centres in their area of work. A number of literacy classes emerged in isolated rural areas after the war but the colonial government was not keen on the literacy programme.

The strongest literacy programme at that time developed in Meru under a Methodist missionary. The missionary intended to use literacy education as a tool for developing local leaders and making members of the church more self-reliant. The missionary came up against growing apathy, lack of reading materials and government indifference. However, as the nationalist movement gathered momentum in 1950s, the Government started to take an interest in literacy as a possible channel for influencing public opinion.
and attempting to counteract the mounting opposition to colonial rule. The Education Department was given the responsibility to register literacy classes as legal organizations in order to function freely during the armed conflict between nationalist freedom fighters and the Colonial Government. In practice, the registration process worked against the literacy programme. Groins were denied registration for being one or two students below the minimum of twenty-five students required by the Government or because 100% of the students had not paid up their fees in full before seeking registration.

In this section of the paper, an attempt has been made to review the emerging needs for different programmes of non-formal education in Kenya during the colonial period. The Jeanes School led the way in the development of non-formal education in Kenya starting with programmes for farmers, traders, cooperators, women and illiterate people. Attempts to develop courses in health were unsuccessful, and no attempts were made to design courses for out-of-school youth. While the Jeanes School was in existence, youth unemployment was not a serious national problem. The next section will look at the efforts made in the post-independence period to evolve a comprehensive efficient and well-coordinated system of non-formal education.

Management of Non-formal Education

Education for Development

In 1963 Kenya became an independent sovereign state. The Government was restructured and expanded to cope with all the affairs of state. Most of the departments which existed in the colonial period became full ministries and were further subdivided into departments. For example, the Ministry of Agriculture was subdivided into two departments of agriculture and veterinary services, and later split further into more specialized divisions responsible for crop production, cash crops, horticultural development, home economics, range management, livestock development, veterinary services and research.

New ministries emerged and developed their own extension and field administration services. Alongside government ministries, a number of existing parastatal organizations were expanded and new ones created to give more specialized services to the country. National and International non-governmental organization also developed their own extension systems to participants in the creation of the "new nation".

During the struggle for independence, the ruling political party, the Kenya African National Union (KANU) promised to provide more opportunities for education and control of the economy of the country to indigenous people of Kenya. In 1963 the Government appointed a commission to survey existing educational resources in the country to advise the Government on the formulation and implementation of national educational policies. The Commission

recommended expansion and improvement of the quality of both school and out of school education. In 1966 the Government jointly with the University College of Nairobi and the Rockefeller Foundation held a conference to clarify the National Education policies and strategies for rural development. The conference noted that "a more significant contribution to rural development can be made by a much strengthened, more clearly thought-out and effectively co-ordinated educational service to adults, than by alternations in or expansion of the existing system of primary and secondary education".  

Extension Services

Extension in the machinery of government and growth in both governmental and non-governmental development and extension services after independence greatly increased the number of development workers at community level. However, studies of extension services in Kenya and elsewhere in Third World countries suggested that grassroots extension agents were normally poorly trained and poorly rewarded for their work. Extension agents who work side by side at grassroots level rarely communicate with each other and planned their development activities jointly, and the flow of information up and down the extension ladder was slow and disjointed.

Studies by Ascroft and others in Kenya suggested that traditional extension tended to exacerbate poverty in the country by concentrating government efforts and resources on the progressive minority while virtually neglecting the less progressive majority. The advancement made by the progressive farmers who make only 2.5% of the farming community in the country would not make a visible impact on the per capita production of the farming community using existing production methods.

If the farming practices of the majority remained static, agricultural production was bound to decline. Methods of farming used efficiently when the population was less dense or was not settled permanently in one place were becoming less efficient with increasing population. Under traditional extension, there were dangers of a majority of the less progressive farmers failing to get the technology required to make their farming more efficient.

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A study by the International Labour Office, ILO\(^1\) in 1971 suggested that the food needs of Kenya were growing by 10% per year while production increased by 5% per year. In order to increase the national production of food to cope with the rising demand there was need to evolve a new strategy which would entail redistribution of land, reclamation of unproductive land and efficient use of the land available. A more effective extension system was required to revolutionise land use techniques. The ILO Mission suggested that group and mass education techniques would be more effective than the traditional system which tended to favour the progressive farmers.

Structured Courses and Process of Development

In the previous section we examined the evolution of Jeanes School courses for farmers, traders, cooperators, women and illiterate people. When the Jeanes School programme closed down, the farmers training programme was taken over by the Ministry of Agriculture. By 1966 there were thirty Farmer Training Centres (FTC) in the country and the national development plan proposed that four more centres would be constructed. The aim was to have one FTC in each of the forty districts in the country. The Ministry of Health jointly with the Ministry of Agriculture established a special centre in 1961 to teach both health and agricultural education, known as the Better Living Institute (BLI).\(^2\) In practice the BLI provided rural development courses like any other FTC. The participation of the Ministry of Health was virtually nil when the Vice-Principal, who was from the Ministry of Health left after only one year of service at the BLI.

In 1961 the Churches decided to help the country to alleviate the efforts of famine in the dry parts of the country and to resettle landless people. After consultation with the Ministry of Agriculture, it was agreed that the National Christian Council of Kenya (NCCK) would develop five Rural Training Centres (RTC) on the lines of the Farmers Training Centres.\(^3\) The Ministry of Agriculture offered to provide staff for RTCs while the British Council of Churches provided most of the funds required for capital and recurrent expenditure.

The RTC curriculum was similar to the FTC curriculum. Farmers came in for about a week to learn a specific skill. During the course, they also had opportunities to get lectures on current affairs, keeping of accounts and farming in general. The RTC tended to be cheaper to establish and to run and more efficient than FTCs. They were able to run their demonstration farms at a profit.

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\(^3\) Ibid. pp. 177-183
Courses for traders and women were decentralized and based at the district level under the Trade Development Officers (TDO) and Community Development Officer (CDO) respectively. Residential courses were held at the district level normally housed at the CDTC while local courses would take place in school classrooms, churches and other public buildings.

The Cooperative Course remained at the institute which took the buildings of the Jeanes School, the Kenya Institute of Administration (KIA). The cooperative course remained at KIA until the cooperative College of Kenya was established to provide a broad programme of education to the cooperative movement.

Out-of-School Youth

Throughout the colonial period, the few youths who went through the school systems were absorbed into the existing training programmes to become primary school teachers, clerks and artisans. Following the 1939-45 war, there was considerable expansion in primary education with very few openings for youths to proceed to secondary and higher education. At the time of independence, Kenya was faced with a large number of primary school graduates who seemed uprooted from their homes in the rural areas, and yet there were no job openings for them in the urban sector. The primary "school leaver" problem was aggravated by removal of the movement restrictions which had been imposed on the central regions of the country, during the war of independence. The youths who had been restricted in these areas were freed to look for employment in the capital city and elsewhere in the country.

The Government persuaded all employers in the country to take on excess labour. In turn, the Government persuaded trade unions not to ask for wage increases. The Government established the National Youth Service (NYS) to give young people skills as well as to promote in them a sense of nationalism.

These measures could not solve the youth unemployment crisis. The number of youth given employment or absorbed by the National Youth Service was very small.

Meanwhile, the Christian churches evolved the Village Polytechnic (VP) programme to assist the Government grapple with the problem of youth unemployment. A village polytechnic was intended to be a low cost training programme which provided youths with skills to use local materials to produce services and goods that could be sold within their communities to generate an income on which the youth could live honourably.

All the village polytechnics established in late 1960s and early 1970s were started by churches with Government support. Eventually the Government provided teachers and gradually took over all the financial responsibilities.

As the programme spread throughout the country, the people themselves established VPs for their communities without waiting for churches or the Government to start VPs for them. Community sponsored VPs have also received government support like the church sponsored VPs.

The main courses offered by VPs are carpentry, building, tailoring, motor mechanics, electrical wiring, smithing, various elements of farming and home science, sewing and knitting. The range of courses offered depend on the ability of the sponsor to provide initial equipment and teachers.

Evaluation studies have shown that the VP programme has had some remarkable successes. Some VP graduates have established profitable workers cooperative or individual enterprises while others have acquired employment in industry or government service. The VP has become an important employment agency for VP graduates. Cases of complete unemployment among VP graduates are few.

Continuing Adult Education

The literacy programme in Kenya was under the Ministry of Education towards the end of the colonial period, but literacy programmes were done by community development staff. In 1962, literacy work was transferred to the Department of Community Development. By 1964 it was estimated that there were about 40,000 literacy learners attending 1400 classes. In 1965, the literacy programme once more came under the Ministry of Education along with other programmes of continuing adult education. The Ministry of Education embarked on a plan for a national literacy campaign. In 1967 adult education along with the literacy programme was once more transferred back to the Department of Community Development while the first literacy campaign was in progress. In 1969, an official policy issues clarifying the nature of the campaign. The programme had to be linked to other development programmes especially agriculture, family planning, health, cooperative development, self help and relevant community development projects.

The Division of Adult Education within the Department of Community Development had the responsibility to take adults on a part-time basis through to the Certificate of Primary Education (CPE) examination. Eventually an examination for adults equivalent to the school CPE was to be developed.

Higher forms of adult education were linked to the University. University adult education started in East Africa in 1953 under Makerere College. The first extra-mural class organized by Makerere College in Kenya was conducted in Kisumu town in 1954. In 1956 a full time university representative was sent to Nairobi to start extra-mural work. Alongside the Extra-mural programme, an independent

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1/ Prosser, op cit pp. 290-356
College had been growing up near Nairobi since 1961, the College of Social Studies. In 1963, the University College of Nairobi was established and assigned responsibility for University Adult Education. In 1964 the Extra-mural Department and the College of Social Studies which had been renamed the Adult Studies Centre amalgamated to form the Institute of Adult Studies. In 1967 a radio correspondence course was introduced as the third department of the Institute. The Adult Studies Centre provided residential training for adult educators or trainers, extension workers, front line managers and local leaders. The Extra-mural Division provided public lectures in the main population centres of the country, field training for extension workers, and local leaders, and higher continuing education through part-time classes. The Correspondence Course Unit taught through a combination of three channels: Correspondence materials, electronic media and occasional face to face teaching. The main programme done by the Correspondence Course Unit since inception has been upgrading and inservice training for primary school teachers and adult literacy facilitators.

Coordinators of Non-formal Education Programme

The Board of Adult Education

The rapid growth of adult education programme after independence seemed to call for a body that should coordinate adult education activities in the country. More specifically there was need to advise the Government on formation of new courses and syllabuses, the establishment of residential and non-residential institutions, the use of museum, libraries and media for mass communication, the provision and method of award of scholarships and bursaries, the coordination of the adult education programmes of different government Ministries and Departments and the need for new adult education programmes.1

In 1966 the Board of Adult Education was created. The act provided for Adult Education Committees at Provincial and District levels. The functions of the committees were to organize training and refresher courses for literacy teachers, to arrange literacy examinations and tests, to supply reading materials, to guide and advise village committees and to mobilize public support and participation to help attain the objectives of the literacy campaign.

The Board of Adult Education proposed a merger of the FTCs and CDTCs. These institutions originated from the Jeanes School programme. The 1963 Education Commission and the 1966 Agricultural education commission examined the recommendation to merge the FTC and CDTC into one institution to be known as the multi-purpose training centre and neither came out strongly in favour. The case for the proposed merger to form a multi-purpose training centre to be known as the District Development Centre was stated a fresh in the National Development Plan for 1974 to 1978 as follows:

The District Development Centres will be multi-purpose centres and will eliminate the existing uneconomic duplication of adult training facilities. They will coordinate training programmes which currently do not support or complement each other; provide better facilities and better qualified instructors; and provide the means for developing an adequate career structure for the training staff. The programmes in these centres will be directly geared to comprehensive and balance development of the districts and will become the focus for all extension work in the district.1/

In 1976, the Board of Adult Education published a booklet entitled "Curriculum for District Development Centres" listing the courses to be offered by the proposed centres. Later in the same year, a longer document on the curriculum of the DDC was published listing courses referred to as the standard curriculum. The prospective users of the document were advised that the standard curriculum provided a framework for design of more need-based courses. The document also advised adult educators to time their courses and to select appropriate content carefully in order (1) to take account of the seasonal activities in which the learners may be involved; (2) to draw on the experience of field extension workers as far as possible; and (3) to involve field extension workers and master craftsmen in teaching.2/

The main weakness with the DDC is that its objective was to design parcels of knowledge which would be used to solve rural development problems. It seems that researchers and development workers in Kenya during the 1960s and 1970s believed that such parcels of knowledge existed and had to be discovered. The search should have been to identify development bottlenecks from which learning needs would be inferred.

Summary and Conclusions

This paper is a compromise between the urge to produce a comprehensive study of non-formal education programmes in Kenya and the need to keep the study short enough for the purpose of a conference. The programmes listed above have been defined in terms of their objectives, contents and clientele.

The paper starts with traditional forms of education which directly or indirectly have a bearing on modern forms of education. Whenever current formal or non-formal education programmes are criticised, one feels that they are judged against traditional forms of education. Often such judgements are superficial. Education is looked at in isolation from the social and economic milieu that determines one's ability to contribute to the improvement of the life of a community and to earn a living honorably within one's immediate environment. Traditional education was in harmony with the traditional social and economic systems.


When considering the effectiveness of non-formal education as an alternative to formal education, it is important to get a correct view of the system from the point of view of the potential learners. In Kenya, non-formal education programmes, especially for children, have been seen as an inferior alternative to formal education. During the colonial period, industrial and agricultural education was recommended for the indigenous people who had to be trained to accept a subject status in the country. Their colonial masters were given a literacy or academic education to maintain their position at the top of society as the governors.

The Jeanes School approach to community education provided a framework for a strong non-formal education tradition in the country, but it was out of step with the thinking of colonial administrators, the missionaries who controlled education for the indigenous people, and the African nationalists. However, some of the educational activities initiated by the school notably institutional training for farmers, traders, cooperators, women leaders and extension agents have survived and do come into fashion now and then.

Four models of training for rural development emerge out of the Jeanes School Programme. The courses for farmers and traders were given directly to selected clients who were expected to develop model homes and/or production units in their home areas. It was expected that farmers and traders in the field would ultimately learn from the Jeanes School graduates and accordingly improve their homes and production methods. Training the "progressive farmer" as an example for other farmers was later condemned by researchers in the 1960s and early 1970s until it went out of fashion. It has just come back to Kenya as a new model from Israel, and the Ministry of Agriculture is taking it very seriously.

The second model used in training community educators, cooperative agents and women leaders was based on the assumption that the extension worker should be the focus of training. Indeed most government development agencies are based on the assumption that extension workers are the initiators and directors of change.

Thirdly, the Jeanes School attempted institutional decentralization to serve different parts of the country. Decentralization took three forms: (1) new Jeanes Schools were proposed, starting with the Maseno Jeanes School; (2) a network of Homecraft Training Centres was established to serve women groups in different parts of the country, with the Jeanes School Homecraft Training Centre at the top of the network and (3) learners from different regions of the country were recruited to courses run at Nairobi but designed specifically for their regions.

The fourth model which does not come out clearly, and which was not perhaps intended, is giving courses directly to farmers, traders, cooperators, members of women clubs or groups and the illiterate people. The clients are the final goal of any extension message. If they are reached directly, there are less dangers of delay and distortion of development messages. However, reaching the grassroots directly requires the kinds of resources which most extension services cannot muster.
Coordination and integration of development effort are concepts that puzzle development workers in Kenya. In practice, they see lack of coordination between different government and non-government agencies working in the field on similar or complementary projects. The vertical flow of information within the same development agency is slow and disjointed. The creation of the Board of Adult Education and the multi-purpose training centres was intended to reduce wastage due to poor coordination and integration. The problem was to identify what should be coordinated and integrated.

The paper generates many more points of detail which are not included in the summary: to name only a few of the issues generated, not in any specific order; the value of community education for husband and wife; the importance of learners as a learning resource; the use of demonstration plots, school newspapers and cooperative shops as practical experience for non-formal education; follow-up and field visits as curriculum component in non-formal education; observation of real life situation; government red tape in registration and supervision of non-formal education programmes; the place of media in non-formal education; and the problem of frequent reorganization of non-formal education programmes causing disruption to existing programmes.

Over zealous non-formal education experts made the world believe that non-formal education would revolutionize the world in the 1960s and early 1970s. Governments in Third World countries and supportive multilateral and bilateral agencies responded by investing heavily in non-formal education programmes during the past one decade. The development miracle they expected has not been realized. These financiers are now turning away from non-formal education instead of finding out what happened? Were the expectations realistic? Who did the work in the field? and was the programme in the field conducted according to the plan? Such are the changing fashions in education. Like changes in clothes fashions, there is hardly any rational explanation for the present apparent withdrawal from non-formal education.
Non-Formal Vocational Training Programme and Content Relevance

The Industrial Training Fund Experience

Nigeria

Manpower Development has been aptly defined by Lewis (1971; 135) as "the process aimed at transforming people so that they can contribute more effectively to the social and economic development of their society."

This definition highlights the development of the individual as related to the upliftment of his society's economic and social status. Of all the processes associated with manpower development, the most formal and the easiest to quantify and measure is Education. It is therefore not surprising that the initial trust of most governments especially in the Developing World is the expand facilities for formal education. Although these efforts pay off in providing increased numbers of educated people for career opportunities in government and industry, nevertheless, the vital area of craft skill formation remains largely unattended to.

Developing countries, especially those with large population and whose population growth rate appears to be increasing face more serious problems in terms of Vocational Training. The number of young people who will enter the labour market in the years ahead appears quite enormous.

The training task will not just be one of adjusting existing formal technical education system or adopting temporary measures, but of creating and strengthening vocational training infrastructures in order to bring about substantial, permanent increase in the number of well trained craftsmen and technicians of assured quality.

Introduction:

According to the programme we have before us, my main contribution to our deliberations today is on Non-Formal Vocational Training programme of the Industrial Training Fund and its content relevance.
Although Nigeria is naturally endowed with tremendous human and material resources, there is no gain saying the fact that our country has not yet got all that is necessary to make her fully developed industrially. The essential factors lacking are the availability of relevant indigenous technology and adequate trained manpower. To meet this identified requirement, there is need for the development of adequate manpower that possess the full range of technical, managerial and professional skills. In this regard, it is important to recognize that there is no one educational delivery system which, exclusively on its own, would be sufficient to satisfy the emerging and pressing manpower needs of the various sectors of the national economy.

Rather unfortunately, over the years, our educational systems and institutions have not been developed to provide adequately for all categories of manpower, most especially the skilled craftsmen and technicians required for industrial development. The Nigerian economy is faced with among others, two critical issues regarding the amount of demand and the rate of supply of industrial manpower.

The first issue concerns the acute shortage of skilled manpower as compared to the huge demand of the Nigerian industrial labour market. The overall picture of this situation for the whole country is easily portrayed in the attached Table I which is an extract from the fourth National Development Plan (1981-85). As would be observed from the statistics contained in the table, only a carefully planned and well implemented strategy of industrial manpower development can save Nigeria from the continuous and expensive importation of skilled personnel to execute her plans of technological advancement.

Another dimension to the problem of industrial manpower development is the pattern of production of skilled manpower in Nigeria. In our efforts to bridge the gap between the supply and demand of industrial manpower, a very serious imbalance has been observed.

In the data obtained from the 1977 National Manpower Board Survey for the manufacturing and industrial subsector, the ratio of professional to technical personnel average 5:3 or 1:1.5.

This ratio shows considerable shortfall in the number of trained technicians when compared to the recommended ratio by the International Labour Organization (ILO) of 1:4.5 i.e. two Engineers to nine Technicians. The ratio of professionals plus technicians to craftsmen and skilled workers was also obtained from the 1977 National Manpower Board Survey to be 1:13 which is also very much higher than the average for manufacturing industry in most developed countries, where the average figure is between 1:20 and 1:40.

The observed imbalance appears to be perpetuated with the present formal educational arrangement of the 4th National Plan. With the establishment of seven more Federal Technological Universities in Nigeria, the anticipated enrolment of the 20 Federal Universities and those being established by State Governments is expected to rise up to 120,000 students by 1985. Whilst on the other hand, all the Polytechnics and other technical institutions will by 1985, have a student population of about 30,000. Thus, Nigeria would still continue to produce more University graduates than technicians and craftsmen, who are to provide support for them (see Table I, ILA and IIB). We would end up in 1985 with a ratio of 1:1.1 instead of 1:4.25 as the ratio of the output of professionals to technicians to skilled workers. It thus seems most likely that the present situation in which high level manpower is utilized to do low level manpower jobs will still persist rather unfortunately.
The concept of Vocational Training

is useful to establish the conceptual perception of the term "Vocational Training" as it is being used in this discussion.

Various definitions of the terminology, "Vocational Training" abound, depending on the author and the nature and scope of his submission. However, of particular appeal is the definition given by the International Labour Organization (ILO) which affirms that:

"Vocational Training involves all activities which essentially aim at providing the skills, knowledge and attitude required for employment in particular occupation, group of related occupations or a function in any field of economic activity including agriculture, industry, commerce, the hotel, catering, and tourist industries, public and private services, etc."

Viewed in this perspective, the concept of Vocational Training is broad and all-embracing. In order to avoid undue ambiguity, and particularly in view of the cumulative experience and the primary pre-occupation of the ITF with manpower development for the intermediate and lower levels, "Vocational Training", in the context of this discussion will be limited to the training of technicians and draftsmen.

This delineation, however, does not necessarily preclude further debate on who really is a technician or craftsman. The debate, although it is pertinent, will not be articulated in this paper, so as to conserve available time. It may suffice to add that if the main products of Vocational Training are usually technicians and craftsmen, it is useful to identify clearly who these categories of personnel are and, in the interest of this submission, it is useful to mention, albeit later, what contributions they can make to industrial development.

Although the responsibilities of a technician in any country may differ according to the prevalent economic and social circumstances, we may, as a reference point, adopt the definition of a technician as given by the committee on Manpower Resource for Science and Technology (UK) in their report on the 1965 Triennial Scientific Manpower Survey. It states:

"Technicians and other technical supporting staff occupy a position between that of a qualified scientist, engineer or technologist on the one hand, and the skilled foremen or craftsmen or operators on the other.

Their education and specialized skills enable them to exercise technical judgement. By this is meant an understanding by reference to general principles, of the reasons for and purposes of their work, rather than the reliance solely on established practices or accumulated skills."

From the above definition the functions of a technician may be summarized as:

- exercising technical judgement based on the understanding of the principles of his job;
- taking initiative when confronted with problems related to his work;
- supervising other skilled workers, including craftsmen and artisans.
Vocational Training should therefore aim at producing technicians with the above qualities in terms of attitude, skills and knowledge. There is often the tendency in Nigeria to identify technicians by reference to educational qualifications only instead of the functions they perform which should be paramount. Technicians should, in the first instance, be identified by the functions they perform.

Essentially, the training of a technician rests on the proper identification of this functions and designing a programme that will impart the knowledge, skills and competence required to perform the function. This analogy of training requirement applies to a less extent, to the training of craftsmen.

**Formal Vocational Training System in Nigeria**

Until quite recently in Nigeria, Technicians and Craftsmen were produced mainly by formal training institutions. The few exceptions were the products of the training units of the major public utilities (parastatals) like the Nigerian Railway Corporation, the then Electricity Corporation of Nigeria (ECN), the old Marine Department and Public Works Department, to just mention a few. In the most recent past, none of these bodies was able to produce half the number of technicians and craftsmen required to maintain its services. The large number of industries in the private sector have always, however, managed to produce the minimal number of technicians and/or craftsmen required for their operations.

The one single major source of the training and production of technicians and craftsmen in Nigeria has been the formal Vocational Training Institutions known as Government Trade Centres. Presently virtually all such institutions have been re-designated as Government Technical Colleges or Schools. These institutions were run and most of them are still being run by the Federal and State Ministries of Education. As far back as April 1981, there were over fifty Government Technical of Trade Centres in existence throughout the Federation.

The new Federal Government's National Policy on Education, as postulated in 1977, prescribed elements of technical education and skills training for all levels of the six years primary education, as well as for the three years each of the junior and senior secondary schools. This policy specifically requested all junior secondary schools to prepare their pupils for full pre-vocational training in the basic technical occupations. Such training is to provide a strong technical orientation for the junior secondary school pupils that do not have aptitude or capacity for the grammar school type of senior secondary education.

This category of pupils will then move from the junior secondary school to the purely Vocational Training Centres where their further training will turn them into Craftsmen and/or Technologist in due course. Between 1981 and December 1983 all categories of formal educational institutions, all over the Federation, were starved of funds required not only to provide the necessary workshops and tools for the implementation of the new national policy on education, but also for the payment of teachers' monthly salaries. In such a situation, the well designed policy on education which imposed the introduction of practical vocational training subjects on the syllabi and curricula of primary and junior secondary schools proved unworkable.

**Common Problems Experienced By All Formal Vocational Training Institutions**

Almost all the formal Vocational Training Institutions without exception, were and are still confronted by the following perennial problems:
(i) There is no effective national coordinating authority for the formal vocational training institutions. Thus, training offered by these institutions used different curricula and syllabi which are unfortunately not standardized.

(ii) The institutions always have acute shortage of qualified and/or experienced Trade Instructors. The few good ones available were easily frustrated due to lack of bright career prospects and often abandoned their jobs for more lucrative appointments in industries.

(iii) The workshops in the Vocational Training Institutions were always in dire need of tools and consumable materials. Most of the equipment in use are obsolete and not in tune with the equipment and machinery in use in local industries around.

(iv) The curricula used in the institutions were not commensurate with the Government Trade Test examination, taken at the end of the 3-year course and usually conducted to last only for a few hours. This Terminal Examination (Trade Test) as presently conducted, could never prove to be an efficient measure of skills training undertaken in so many years. Furthermore, the Trade Test Examinations syllabi have not been modified for many years despite the rapid pace at which technology and industrialization has changed, over the years.

The Non-Formal Vocational Training Programme In Nigeria

In the previous section, a brief situational analysis of the formal vocational training institutions in Nigeria was highlighted. In more recent times, a lot more efforts was geared towards non-formal vocational training.

The organizations involved in the establishment and running of non-formal vocational training include religious or voluntary organizations, Federal and State Ministries such as Industries, Works, Trade & Cooperatives, Social Development, Youth & Sports, and Employment Labour and Productivity, etc. Prominent amongst the non-formal vocational training institutions are the following:

(i) The Opportunities Industrialization Centre (OIC) Lagos.

(ii) The Vocational Skills Improvement Unit (VSIU) of the Ibadan Polytechnic.

(iii) Vocational Improvement Centres (VICs) including Business Apprenticeship Training Centres.

(iv) The Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) Vocational Training Centres all over the country.

(v) The Artisans Training Centres of Borno, Gongola and Bauchi States.

The Vocational Improvement Centres (VICs) utilized the physical facilities of existing Government Technical Schools or colleges to provide part-time evening vocational training courses for full-time employees as well as self-employed craftsmen such as the road-side motor and radio/television mechanics.
Following years of periodic appraisals of the efforts of various non-formal vocational training institutions in the Federation and also in a bid to introduce into the national economy, an effective and systematic vocational training system, the ITF in 1973 commissioned a study of In-Plant and Apprenticeship Training in Nigeria. The report of this study showed that the standards attained in vocational training institutions were as varied as the number of bodies and organizations that run the various vocational training centres. This report also confirmed that vocational training in the formal vocational training institutions was more or less improvised and geared more towards theory than practice.

Regarding vocational training as implemented outside the formal and non-formal institutional training centres, the Fund's observations showed that the programmes in each case were far too restricted to the immediate needs of each employer offering such a training programme. In the light of all the problems enumerated in this section, the Industrial Training Fund was therefore compelled to take steps to establish a National Apprenticeship Scheme in a bid to establish national standard and competence.

The ITF Draft National Apprenticeship Scheme

By mid 1978, the Industrial Training Fund prepared a draft National Apprenticeship Scheme which was widely circulated to Federal and State Ministries, Parastatals, Employers' Associations and the Trade Unions. Furthermore, the Fund initiated discussions on issues raised in the draft scheme with the various Ministries, Employers' Associations and Labour Unions and other bodies during which there was a unanimous agreement as to the urgent need to set up an effective National Apprenticeship Scheme in Nigeria.

An Inter-Agency Committee was set up late in 1978 to deliberate on the draft National Apprenticeship Scheme prepared by the Fund, and to find out ways to streamline the overlap in the assigned responsibilities of ITF, NBC, Federal Ministry of Education, and the Federal Ministry of Employment, Labour and Productivity. The Committee comprised high level representatives from the following:

- The Federal Ministry of Education
- The Federal Ministry of Employment, Labour and Productivity
- The Federal Ministry of Works
- The National Manpower Board (Federal Ministry of National Planning)
- The Nigerian Employers' Consultative Association
- The Nigerian Association of Chambers of Commerce, Industries, Mines and Agriculture
- The Manufactures Association of Nigeria
- The Nigerian Labour Congress and
- The Industrial Training Fund.

The Committee met several times between 1979 and 1981, during which period, agreement was reached on the text of a National Apprenticeship Scheme. The Committee also made the following recommendations to the ITF Governing Council:
(i) That there shall be a National Apprenticeship Scheme to be controlled and supervised by the Governing Council of the Industrial Training Fund.

(ii) That the Industrial Training Fund's Governing Council should set up a National Apprenticeship Committee to deal exclusively with matters relating to the National Apprenticeship Scheme.

(iii) That the Governing Council of the Fund should immediately set up a new and full fledged department at its Headquarters with field units at all Fund's Area Offices to deal exclusively with the National Apprenticeship Scheme.

All the above recommendations of the Inter-Agency Committee were accepted by the Fund's Governing Council.

Draft Enabling Legislation for the NAS

Although legal opinion in the Federal Ministries of Justice and Industry indicate that the present ITF Act is sufficient to enable the Fund to operate the Scheme, nevertheless, it is the opinion of the ITF Governing Council and its Management also, that a separate Apprenticeship Act will lend more authority to the Fund to implement the scheme. So, a draft legislation to formally establish the scheme has been prepared by the Fund and is awaiting enactment into law.

The Fund's Vocational Training Centres

Under the national apprenticeship scheme developed by the Fund, Vocational Training Centres are being established in some of the industrial cities of the Federation. One centre has been established and is now in operation in Lagos, the other is currently under construction in Kano.

The Fund's Ikeja Vocational Training Centre

This Fund's Pilot Vocational Training Centre which commenced operation with 45 trainees in May 1983 was conceived as a major contributory training scheme for low level technical manpower development by the Fund. The training content was designed to:

- provide trainees with occupational skills and technical know-how;
- foster necessary work attitudes and proper discipline among trainees and develop them as competent skilled workers; and
- instil into the trainees a sense of pride in their trades.

The Centre provides industry-oriented courses in the following three (3) occupations:

- Fitting and Machining
- Electrical Installation
- Agricultural Machinery Maintenance and Repairs.

There are 15 trainees for each class which presently deals with each of the three (3) occupations.
Initially the centre was conceived as a centre to provide one (1) year training, but when the Fund successfully initiated the National Apprenticeship Scheme, it became necessary to alter the training arrangement of the centre to be in line with the proposed apprenticeship training programme. The present training plan for the centre is as follows:

- **Phase I**: A forty (40) week comprehensive institutional training during which the trainees cover a number of modules of skills, knowledge and attitudes in their respective occupation.

- **Phase II**: A twelve (12) month industrial attachment of trainees comprising largely supervised on-the-job training at the shop-floor level in selected companies.

- **Phase III**: Up to 12 months at the Vocational Training Centre, during which the trainees receive supplementary training to remedy identified deficiencies. At the end of Phase III the trainees sit for their final examination by the Fund.

### Training Curricula and Content

The curricula in use at the Centre was jointly developed by staff of the Fund and consultants from Nécaform S.A. of France. The process of development included extensive studies in industries to establish the job contents of the three occupations offered at the centre. This was followed by the preparation of learning packages which were designed to fall in line with the level of technology available and anticipated for the country for the next 10 years.

### Addendum

During the first year training at the Centre it was discovered that the training curricula and learning elements for electrical and mechanical while adequate for the training of fitters and machinists and electrical installation mechanics respectively it provided very little training in maintenance skills both for mechanical and electrical trainees. Consequently the Fund is currently modifying the curricula for these two occupations to include:

#### Electrical Maintenance

- Developing Trouble-shooting skills
- Electrical Trouble shooting
- Element of Mechanics
- Bearings
- Lubrication
- Power

#### Mechanical Maintenance

- Developing trouble shooting skills
- Elements of Mechanics
- Lubrication
- Drive components
- Bearings
- Pumps
- Introduction to electricity

It is hoped that these modifications would introduce the 1st year trainees properly to maintenance so that in their 3rd year they could do more specialized work in maintenance to include elements of hydraulics and pneumatics to enable their main complex modern machines on completion.

Assessment

Besides the final examinations, phased testing and cumulative assessment methods are used because they provide feedback which enables the faults of the trainees to be corrected during training. Furthermore, the Fund is currently working very hard with the British Council to develop competence in the principles and practices of objective trade testing, it is hoped that the acquisition of this capability will further assure the quality of the products of the Centre.

Instructional Staff

There are at present one Head of Department and two Instructors for each of the three (3) occupations taught at the Centre. By September in 1984, it is proposed to introduce up-grading courses in the evenings. All the Instructors had their NTTT certificates or equivalent before undergoing further training in France to orientate them to the training methodology being used at the VTC. Another important experience gained at the end of the first year operation of the Centre, is the need to have well trained Instructors who are capable of presenting both theoretical and practical lessons. Although all the Instructors received Instructor Training in France before deployment to the Centre, it was observed that most of them still found it difficult to present practical lessons properly. The Fund therefore had to use faculty and facilities of its Instructor Training Centre to correct address this problem. A good measure of success has been recorded, nevertheless, the Fund is still keeping a close check in this area to ensure that the success achieved is not only maintained but also improved upon.

The Fund's Kano Vocational Training Centre

The feasibility studies undertaken in 1982 led to the choice of Kano as the location of the Fund's 2nd Vocational Training Centre. A site has been acquired and paid for, for the purpose. The elaborate work done on the project so far should enable construction to begin shortly so that the centre may commence training sometime in 1985.

The Kano Vocational Training Centre on the other hand has been designed to train skilled craftsmen to meet the growing needs of industries in and around Kano metropolis in the under-mentioned trades:

- Metal working
- Automotive (Petrol and Diesel - Light Vehicle)
- Agricultural Equipment and Heavy Plant Mechanics
- Building and Construction
- Electrical Installation and Maintenance
- Refrigeration and Air-Conditioning Mechanics.
It would also provide skills upgrading courses as complement to the Fund's Instructors Training Centres' (ITE) programmes.

Nature and Pattern of Training
- Full-time apprenticeship
- Time release apprentices (day, week, etc) and
- Up-grading skills of working adults.

The main characteristics of the training at the Centre are detailed in the attached Appendix III. For full-time apprentices, the centre will offer first year off-the-job training. The second year training for this category of trainees will be undertaken in industry while the third year training will be offered at the centre.

The Instructor Training Centre

The Fund's Instructor Training Centre which is a wing of the Kano Vocational Training Centre was designed to meet the following objectives:

- Provide well-trained instructors for existing and projected Fund's 'Model' Vocational Training Centres
- Assist in the training and development of competent Vocational Instructors for vocational and technical schools as well as for In-plant training situations.

Nature of Training

The Centre which is currently operating from a temporary site at the Government Technical Secondary School in Kano, offers programmes which include an appreciable amount of technical up-grading. The training offered at the centre is in three major stages.

Theoretical Training

This component will include inter alia:
- General and Trade Methodology
- Teaching and Industrial Psychology
- Instructional Methods
- Trade Theory
- Other Theoretical Subjects
- Communication Skills
- Blue Print Reading
- Industrial Safety
- Diagnostic/Trouble Shooting Techniques

Skills Up-grading

This component consists mainly of up-grading of skills of the instructor trainees. It is offered in any or a combination of the following places:
- ITF Vocational Training Centres' Workshop
- Workshops of other Vocational/Technical Training Institutions
- Through attachment to Industry
Teaching Practice

The Centre also provides supervised teaching practice for its trainees. This component which is usually supervised and organized by Fund's Instructor Training any of the undermentioned training situations:

- In Vocational Training Centre
- Through the Training of Apprentices in Firms.

Although the Centre handles trainees who have had some good measure of occupational training, most of the trainees would certainly need additional training and exposure in:

- Technical skills, up-grading, development or learning of additional related skills
- Courses in Basic and Advanced Instructional Techniques
- Practice of instruction under Guidance and Tutorial
- Experience of Training Centre operation, particularly on system-planning control of trainees
- Use and adaptation of Training Materials
- Specialized short courses on
  - Audio-Visual Aids
  - Testing System - Preparing, Testing, Interpreting

The Proposed Additional Three (3) VTCs of The ITF

The ITF has proposed to establish five (5) non-formal Vocational Training Centres by 1986. With a Centre now in operation at Ikeja and another under construction in Kano, the Fund conducted a feasibility survey to identify required occupations and the sites for the remaining three (3) Centres. The survey was also requested:

- To examine the quality and adequacy of skilled tradesmen in a selected number of industries;
- To examine the problems and constraints facing the Industries in obtaining the right type of skilled craftsmen;
- To obtain data on existing and anticipated employment growth rates of the graduates of existing vocational training centres;
- On the basis of all the above to devise alternative training strategies for skilled craftsmen and suggest ways of implementing them.

Scope of Survey and Data Acquired


The Industry-institutional survey was conducted by means of interviews and guided questionnaires. The census or complete enumeration method was used to collect data on:
Pattern and distribution of industry groups in each of the locations selected for the study;
- The total number of employees in each industrial sector;
- Performance standards and labour demand as well as supply now and in the next 2-3 years;
- The impact of technical institutions on the skilled manpower supply.

This feasibility study on both the selection of locations of Fund's (3) additional VTCs and Trades to be taught therein is now been completed and the report is awaiting the consideration and decision of the Fund's Governing Council. In the meantime, preliminary plans are prepared for their development.

In-Company Apprenticeships

The IIT non-formal vocational training scheme plans an extensive use of In-Company Apprenticeship arrangements. The need for this type of arrangement is quite obvious. There are lots of residual training facilities at the shop-floor of some companies which could be effectively utilized for training with careful planning. Furthermore, training in some occupations are better done through systematic in-company apprenticeships. These account for the Fund's interest in the National Apprenticeship Scheme.

Apprenticeship Training Manual

The IIT has prepared a draft Apprenticeship Training Manual in 1983 for use in setting up a Pilot Apprenticeship Scheme in Jos.

Training Curricula

Training curricula and learning elements both for In-Company Apprenticeships, were completed in 1983 for the undermentioned occupations:

- Mechanical Maintenance
- Electrical Maintenance
- Automotive Mechanics

Trained apprentice instructors as well as those from the Fund are currently involved in this Pilot Scheme. One important experience gained by the Fund with this pilot scheme is the need to ensure that skills standards of the "Master Craftsman" to whom apprentices would be attached are adequate. The experience so far gained indicate before the commencement of any apprentice training programme in any company, it is important to carry out skill audit of the "Master Craftsman" and to arrange immediate skills upgrading for those whose skills level are deficient. This singular need may delay the commencement of any apprenticeship programme for up to a year. There should be no fuss for such a delay as it pays up in the long run.

Use of Mobile Training Centres

The Fund is currently training some of its trainers in the design and use of Mobile Vocational Training Units. The Mobile Training Units are required to provide training in places where no fixed centres or industry training facilities are available.
Concluding Remarks

In the foregoing sections of this submission, we have attempted to analyse the conceptual frame work on which the Fund based its involvement in non-formal vocational training in Nigeria. There is no gain saying the fact that proper analysis of problems and prospects of other forms of vocational training systems operating in the country laid solid foundation to the Fund's different approach to vocational training in terms of our local economic realities.

The steps which the Fund has taken during the immediate past years included evolving a non-formal vocational system through consultation with and joint committee of all parties public and private sectors. Such steps seem original and capable of bridging the gap between the demand and supply of industrial manpower at technician and craftman levels in the near future. Thus, with Fund's existing Vocational Training Centres maturing with time through constant but purposeful reviews of programmes of action and hopefully, the National Apprenticeship Scheme coming into law, the desired base for relevant indigenous technology would be set in the country.

The modest beginning which the IFF has made will, therefore, be vigorously strengthened with the establishment of additional vocational training centres in both fixed and mobile forms, subject to the limitations of the resources available to IFF. It is equally hoped that, in no distant future, the graduates from the Fund's Vocational Training Centres and the Apprenticeship programmes would be assessed on the shop-floors of industries. Then, also, shall our prudent criteria for assessing and certifying trainees be tested for their relevance.

Finally, I do hope that Fund's approach to non-formal vocational training will provide new vistas in tackling the problem of crafts skill training in Nigeria.
### Table I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsector</th>
<th>Estimated Total Gainful Employment</th>
<th>Additional Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(No.000) % Share</td>
<td>(No.000) % Share</td>
<td>(No.000) % Share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I)</td>
<td>(II)</td>
<td>(III)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and Quarrying</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing and processing</td>
<td>5,235</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building and Construction</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,745</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: According to the estimates contained in the above Table I of the 4th National Development Plan (1981-85) Employment in the industrial sector between 1980 and 1985 will grow by approximately 1.156 million persons.
### TABLE II

**NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES**

**PROJECTED ENROLMENTS - 1981-1985**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ibadan</td>
<td>8,984</td>
<td>9,557</td>
<td>10,286</td>
<td>10,865</td>
<td>11,325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>8,967</td>
<td>9,557</td>
<td>10,242</td>
<td>10,595</td>
<td>10,905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria Nsukka</td>
<td>8,060</td>
<td>3,662</td>
<td>9,111</td>
<td>10,170</td>
<td>10,625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zaria</td>
<td>10,395</td>
<td>11,122</td>
<td>12,279</td>
<td>12,170</td>
<td>12,985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ife</td>
<td>8,771</td>
<td>9,217</td>
<td>9,620</td>
<td>10,342</td>
<td>10,675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>3,098</td>
<td>4,660</td>
<td>5,691</td>
<td>6,560</td>
<td>6,985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jos</td>
<td>3,203</td>
<td>4,135</td>
<td>5,158</td>
<td>6,045</td>
<td>6,510</td>
</tr>
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<td>Calabar</td>
<td>2,751</td>
<td>3,036</td>
<td>3,151</td>
<td>5,031</td>
<td>6,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>2,775</td>
<td>3,550</td>
<td>4,275</td>
<td>5,035</td>
<td>6,115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maiduguri</td>
<td>3,393</td>
<td>4,388</td>
<td>5,009</td>
<td>5,885</td>
<td>6,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokoto</td>
<td>1,717</td>
<td>2,532</td>
<td>3,317</td>
<td>4,217</td>
<td>4,525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilorin</td>
<td>2,932</td>
<td>2,999</td>
<td>4,201</td>
<td>5,220</td>
<td>6,215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Harcourt</td>
<td>1,975</td>
<td>2,804</td>
<td>3,155</td>
<td>3,935</td>
<td>4,830</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>600</td>
<td>800</td>
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<tr>
<td>Makurdi</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owohni</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanglot</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogun</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ALL UNIVERSITIES</strong></td>
<td><strong>66,553</strong></td>
<td><strong>77,209</strong></td>
<td><strong>88,636</strong></td>
<td><strong>99,090</strong></td>
<td><strong>108,720</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The seven (7) newly established Federal Universities of Technology.

### TABLE II B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975-76</td>
<td>11,993</td>
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<tr>
<td>1976-77</td>
<td>17,252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977-78</td>
<td>19,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978-79</td>
<td>22,980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-80</td>
<td>25,777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>31,599</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


10. ITF - "Draft National Apprenticeship Scheme"