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Non-state actors in education

## **National and Subnational Approaches to Regulating Non-state Technical and Vocational Education and Training: Comparative Insights from Asia and Africa**

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## ABSTRACT

Fast-growing cities in Africa and Asia face increasing poverty, inequality and insecurity. One way to partly address these challenges is to facilitate skilled employment for workers in cities. Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) can clearly contribute towards this objective. However, one key issue is the governance of the TVET system, which has become more complex in recent years due to the participation of both state and non-state actors. This paper focuses on the role of non-state actors, drawing on an analysis of TVET regulations and governance in seven countries across Africa and Asia: Bangladesh, China, India, the Philippines, Rwanda, South Africa and Tanzania. In particular, we look at how non-state providers of TVET are regulated and governed by states to ensure their citizens receive quality and effective training that equips them with skills and knowledge relevant for their local labour markets. Our analysis indicates that the existing governance regimes in all countries are 'statist' in nature, meaning that they are characterized by a low degree of non-state actors' engagement combined with a comparatively high degree of state commitment. To improve efficacy in the governance of non-state TVET actors in particular, we recommend that regulations are streamlined, with clear guidelines, incentives, and targeted financial and capacity-building support is provided to strengthen the non-state system. Cooperation should also be encouraged across TVET actors to serve marginalized groups and those in disadvantaged areas.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Rapid urbanization and increased migration in Africa and Asia have helped to drive economic and social development, creating jobs for the millions who call the city their home (Turok & McGranahan, 2019; UN Habitat, 2017). Yet, fast-growing cities also face increasing poverty, inequality and insecurity (United Nations, 2020). In partner countries of the Centre for Sustainable, Healthy and Learning Cities and Neighbourhoods project (SHLC) (University of Glasgow), technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is viewed as an essential tool to eradicate poverty, reduce inequalities and improve livelihoods (Nesterova & Young, 2020). Quality TVET provides opportunities for youth and adult learners to acquire relevant skills, knowledge and competencies to find decent employment, which in turn ensures the supply of a skilled and educated workforce to support countries' development.

As governments struggle to provide quality education and training opportunities to all (Dunbar, 2010; Pedró, Leroux, & Watanabe, 2015), especially to the most disadvantaged and vulnerable groups, the participation of non-state actors in TVET provision has become increasingly common. In this paper, we consider as non-state actors private for-profit actors such as industry/enterprises and commercial providers (i.e., institutions set up to charge fees for TVET, referred to in official documents as private or non-state providers); and private non-for-profit providers such as non-governmental organizations (NGOs), foundations and faith-based organizations (i.e., set up to serve disadvantaged populations free of charge). For example, in Batangas – a regional city in the Philippines – thirty out of the thirty-three TVET institutions are non-state providers. This predominance of non-state TVET institutions seems to be the norm in the rest of the country too, despite the fact that most students throughout the Philippines are still enrolled in public/state TVET institutions (54.3% in the academic year 2016/17) (University of the Philippines, 2018). Similarly, in Madurai – a regional city in India – over 90% of vocational and polytechnic institutions were private in 2011, but the majority of enrolments remain in public/state TVET institutions (National Institute for Urban Studies, 2018). In Bangladesh, private providers dominate both the number of institutions at 95% and total TVET enrolments at 75% (Khan, 2020).

In other countries, the situation is slightly different. In South Africa, 50 public TVET colleges enrol 400,000 students, while 521 registered non-state TVET providers enrol 150,000 students (Field, Musset, & Álvarez-Galván, 2014). In Rwanda, the government controls around 75.5% of TVET institutions, while the rest are owned by faith-based organizations (10.5%), commercial providers (5.3%), missionary-government assisted schools (5.3%), among other actors (Maringa & Maringa, 2013). In China, the situation is rather different, as the vast majority of students are enrolled in public TVET institutions, and only a small proportion are enrolled in privately run TVET upper-secondary school-based courses (12.4%) and post-upper-secondary courses (17.9%). However, the key provider of most TVET workplace learning (e.g., apprenticeships, internships, on-the-job training) is industry, which also provides 80% of urban employment and 90% of new jobs (Guluzade, 2019). While in China between 75% and 85% of TVET workplace learning is provided by industry, in India and Bangladesh only 16% and 25% of industries, respectively, provide work-based TVET. Further research in India shows that less than 7% of employees receive in-service training every year.

What should be noted is that, in such diverse and constantly growing systems, it is challenging to determine how many private TVET institutions operate, and how many programmes are offered in these countries, especially since many providers remain unaccredited and unregistered. Similarly, figures for student completion for non-state TVET institutions and their success in the transition to the labour market are hard to come by. Available evidence in India, for example, suggests that only around 50% of graduates of private institutions secure employment within six months (World Bank, 2007).

In terms of equality of opportunity for persons with disabilities, available data in Bangladesh suggests that there was a 50% increase in their enrolment from 2011 to 2012 (International Labour Organization, 2012). The trends are unclear in the other countries as regards to inclusion of students with special needs or any other characteristics that might disadvantage people in every specific context (e.g., race, ethnicity, religion, among others), unless for gender. Statistics for gender disparities show that women are underrepresented in TVET institutions in general. For example, our partner's research in Rwanda shows that, in 2018, of 3,027 new TVET students enrolled only 246 were women. A report prepared by OECD shows that in India, in 2016, just over 2.1% of men were enrolled in TVET programmes at secondary level compared to 0.5% of women; in the Philippines, the figures are 7% and 5.6% respectively for men and women; and in China, in 2018, they were 20.4% and 17.2% respectively (OECD, 2019). Interestingly, despite women's lower participation rate in TVET across countries, there are more women enrolled in non-state TVET. For

example, in Bangladesh between 9% and 13% of women were enrolled in public TVET versus 33% in private institutions (Douse, 2015). Figures provided by the Asian Development Bank and International Labour Organisation (2016) for Bangladesh suggest that 23.9% of women were trained in state-provided TVET in 2015 compared with 51.6% in commercial TVET and 16.8% in NGO-run TVET (figures for men were 21.7%, 62.5% and 8.6% respectively).

Gender inequalities are also evident across the SHLC countries under study when looking at TVET subjects. As pointed out by the African Union (2007), women and girls find themselves in programmes that are believed to require less capability (e.g., dressmaking, cooking, health care and beauty care), while men dominate programmes such as industrial electricity, machine operation and other such fields.

Geographical/spatial inequalities manifest in differences in access to quality TVET between provinces/regions, as well as differences at the province/region and city level. For example, China's Western provinces (such as the poorest Gansu) still have an underdeveloped system of TVET characterized by poorer quality of training, inadequate teaching staff, low participation in apprenticeships, and lack of partnerships for quality standards and enterprise-TVET cooperation, compared to the more affluent Eastern provinces (Postiglione & Tang, 2019). Similarly, in Bangladesh, in the capital city of Delhi, by 2016 about 10% of workers had received training in the previous 12 months, while in another major city, Rangpur, only 5.8% had this opportunity despite indications of a greater desire for TVET (Asian Development Bank & International Labour Organisation, 2016). At a region/province level, we can observe differences between urban and rural areas, with individuals in the latter having far fewer opportunities to access TVET, whereas those in urban areas enjoy more training and education facilities, as well as a wider range of programmes. Our research also points to spatial inequalities in accessing educational institutions at the city-level due to inaccessibility of public and private transport, poor condition of the road system to allow a smooth commute within and between neighbourhoods, and lack of safety in the evenings when TVET programmes may take place. This mostly affects residents of slums, low- and lower middle-income people (who are less likely to have an easy commute), as well as women (who face insecurities at night) and persons with disabilities (who have limited mobility).

While non-state providers might alleviate the pressure on state services, this sector also comes with a series of challenges. The principal one is the ability of states to ensure equity, inclusion and quality of education and training provided by non-state actors, as well as their alignment with a state's development priorities. Reports prepared by our partners in India and the Philippines in particular point out that there are many concerns around the quality of TVET provided by non-state actors (National Institute for Urban Studies, 2018; University of the Philippines, 2018), while our South African partners note that there is no data on their performance (University of the Witwatersrand & Human Sciences Research Council, 2018). Development plans in Bangladesh note that, so far, only 25% of non-state institutions have accepted the National Technical and Vocational Qualification Framework as the model for development, which is a key quality assurance mechanism. Thus, it is essential to examine the governance and regulation of non-state TVET to understand their ability to meet the obligations and guidelines of states towards their citizens.

TVET systems have been widely studied and characterized across the Global North (Busemeyer & Trampusch, 2012), but little is known about the governance and regulations in fast-changing environments in the Global South. The main reason for this gap is the diversity of TVET systems and objectives, as well as the lack of standardized information for comparability. This paper addresses this gap by systematically gathering and comparing policies, constitutional arrangements, development plans and legislation in seven countries across Africa and Asia: Bangladesh, China, India, Rwanda, the Philippines, South Africa and Tanzania. In particular, the focus rests on how these countries provide, fund and regulate their non-state TVET system, as well as the actors and governing bodies involved. The paper adopts a comparative approach to identify patterns, similarities and differences across the countries under study.

## 2. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

One of the most accomplished frameworks to study the governance of vocational education and training (VET) in advanced economies is the classification proposed by Busemeyer and Trampusch (2012). In their seminal book, *The Political Economy of Skill Formation*, they argue that skill formation systems are the result of a long-term interaction process between collective actors (i.e., employers, unions) and the state. They propose four key questions to understand the governance of the skill formation system: a) *Who provides VET?* – or the division of labour between the state, employers' and workers' associations, and individuals; b) *Who funds VET?* – or the division of funding arrangement between the state, employers' and workers' associations, and individuals; c) *Who controls VET?* – or the relationship between firms' autonomy and public oversight in the provision of training; and d) *How does VET relate to the education system?* – or the relationship and linkages between VET and the general education system.

Based on the exploration of these questions across advanced economies, the authors propose a typology based on two main dimensions: the degree of firm involvement and public commitment towards the governance of the skill formation system, usually measured in terms of funding (Busemeyer & Iversen, 2012). The combination of these two dimensions according to their low/high degrees results in four differentiated types of skill-formation regimes: (1) the liberal regime, characterized by a low degree of both firm involvement and state commitment, which generally translates into narrow on-the-job training (e.g., in the United States); (2) the segmentalist regime, with a high degree of firm involvement and a low commitment from the state, where the firms' self-regulation tends to be the norm (e.g., in Japan); (3) the statist regime, characterized by a low degree of firms' engagement and a high degree of state commitment, generally showing state-run training (e.g., in France); and (4) the collective regime, where the high degree of engagement from both firms and the state shows collaboration between employers' and workers' associations and the state in providing and financing skills (e.g., in Germany).

This paper employs this framework to understand the governance and regulation of non-state TVET in the seven countries under study in Africa and Asia in interaction with the state. Relying on an analysis of official government documents and in-country reports, we systematize, organize and compare available information in the SHLC partner countries, which include least developed (i.e., Bangladesh, Rwanda, Tanzania), lower middle-income (i.e., India, Philippines), and upper middle-income countries (i.e., China, South Africa), as determined by the list of countries receiving official development assistance (ODA).

Building on the questions proposed by Busemeyer and Trampusch (2012), we gathered and organized data according to the following governance dimensions: 1) key policies, constitutional arrangements and legislation regarding TVET; 2) governing bodies, their roles and responsibilities; 3) actors involved in the TVET system (e.g., non-state TVET institutions and programmes), their roles and responsibilities; 4) funding systems around TVET activities, including donor support; 5) implementation, compliance and accountability mechanisms in place; and 6) quality standards and assurance mechanisms (e.g., certification). While some of this information was readily available online (e.g., from official government websites), generally it was spread across different sources and not immediately accessible. Collaboration with the SHLC partners was key in providing inside knowledge of the different systems, as well as the ability to access and navigate documents in native languages. In the following sections we systematize this information in a comparable format to further explore similarities and differences across the seven countries.

### 3. CLASSIFICATION OF TVET GOVERNANCE AND REGULATIONS

The countries under study share similar aims for TVET, which includes creating employment, developing a skilled and educated workforce to meet the needs of their respective economies, and promoting economic development. Although TVET providers are expected to teach hands-on technical and vocational knowledge to develop technical skills, abilities and competencies, their priorities differ across countries.

The documents reviewed show that Bangladesh and the Philippines emphasize the critical role of science, technology, information technology and financial literacy; India highlights the significance of basic information technology, financial literacy and life skills; Tanzania underwent a major shift from higher education to progressive expansion of TVET to prioritize the development of knowledge and skills relevant to construction, manufacturing and agriculture; while India, the Philippines and Rwanda emphasize developing skills for entrepreneurship and self-employment.

Beyond employment and economic development, in some countries TVET is also expected to help develop other skills. China and the Philippines include vocational and work ethics as critical parts of TVET; India, the Philippines and Tanzania highlight healthy attitudes towards life and work; India places a particular focus on etiquette (i.e., socially accepted manners and behaviour) and appreciation of gender diversity; the Philippines seeks to nurture self-discipline, self-reliance, nationalism, and critical and creative thinking; Rwanda's focus is on positive work habits, teamwork, analytical and problem-solving skills, and the ability to work independently, flexibly and innovatively; and China includes politics as an essential part of TVET.

The countries also share poor reputations for TVET compared to higher education degrees, although as our ongoing SHLC research (<http://www.centreforsustainablecities.ac.uk/research/>) shows, residents in low-income neighbourhoods tend to view TVET more favourably, as its benefits are more pronounced in such circumstances. As a result, these countries' development plans stress the role of non-state TVET providers and the need to ensure that they are well equipped and resourced to provide quality training that leads to decent and well-paid employment. To attain this purpose, a strong regulatory framework and governance system are essential to validate quality programmes and support providers. This section focuses on six aspects of regulating and governing non-state TVET actors to achieve these aims in each country: (1) the regulatory framework, (2) governance bodies, (3) actors and programmes, (4) financing and financial aid, (5) provisions for implementation, compliance and accountability, and (6) quality standards and assurance.

#### 3.1 Key policies, constitutional arrangements and legislation

This subsection looks at the regulatory framework of non-state TVET actors in the seven countries. Table 1 offers an overview of what documents exist in each country to regulate different aspects of non-state TVET, while a comprehensive table that showcases all relevant documents on TVET and non-state TVET in each country is presented in Appendix 1.

At the macro-level, the countries have constitutional arrangements, development plans and general education policies with provisions for TVET and/or non-state providers of education. Constitutional arrangements for TVET are covered in three countries (China, the Philippines, Tanzania) and include the need to promote TVET, especially for the most vulnerable (the Philippines, Tanzania). Constitutional recognition of the role of and need for non-state institutions is in place in only two countries (the Philippines, South Africa) where they are required to register and be supervised. All the countries have development plans that emphasize TVET as a key tool for development, and four countries have plans devoted to skills/TVET development where they also highlight the need to engage non-state providers (i.e., Bangladesh, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania). In all SHLC countries under study there are policies and plans across all educational levels that include provisions for TVET, plus some specific provisions for the establishment and operation of non-state institutions (i.e., China, India, the Philippines, Rwanda, Tanzania).

All SHLC countries have policy documents devoted entirely to TVET, but none have separate policies drafted specifically for non-state TVET – although there are provisions for non-state providers within general education and TVET policies in all the countries. There is no sign, therefore, that non-state providers are highly or over regulated, especially in comparison to state providers. However, the high number of regulations and governing bodies for TVET and the different aspects of TVET in general show that there is not only strong control of the sector but also a tendency for overlap and contradiction for TVET governance and regulations.

Apprenticeships, on-the-job and dual training are essential parts of TVET. Provision of these types of activities are in place across all countries. India, the Philippines and Rwanda have separate comprehensive regulations for such programmes and Rwanda places a strong focus on promoting workplace learning.

Table 1 also notes the existence of official documents that regulate different operational aspects of non-state TVET providers. While in some countries, provisions for registration and accreditation of providers are mentioned in at least one document (i.e., the Philippines, Rwanda, South Africa), other countries have separate documents for this task (i.e., Bangladesh, China, India, Tanzania). All countries have qualifications frameworks, while Bangladesh, India and Tanzania have special qualifications frameworks for TVET. While quality assurance provisions are in place across all countries, Bangladesh has a stand-alone document to regulate quality assurance. Further, all countries have provisions for implementation, compliance and accountability within other TVET-related policies, and China has stand-alone regulations for implementation and compliance. As regards to financial arrangements and incentives, provisions for financing and/or providing financial support for non-state TVET and students at non-state TVET institutions are included in all the country regulations. We can find stand-alone documents in the Philippines, Rwanda and Tanzania, while preferential treatment for non-state TVET is offered in China and India.

All seven countries note the importance of developing provisions for inclusion of disadvantaged and vulnerable groups in TVET. Bangladesh and China have separate TVET regulations for persons with disabilities, while the other countries mention such provisions in at least one document. All the countries have gender equality provisions in at least one regulation, while Bangladesh has a separate policy to promote gender equality in TVET, and Tanzania focuses on girls and women with disabilities and refugees, but not gender equality in a broad sense. Each country includes provisions for the inclusion of country-specific marginalized groups (see Appendix 3 for a comprehensive list of groups targeted in the countries and measures to promote inclusion).

Partnerships, including public–private partnerships (PPPs), are essential for a range of reasons that are further discussed in section 3.3. Provisions for PPPs are in place in all the SHLC countries, with India having implemented a separate policy on dual training that details a partnership between TVET institutions and industry to improve practical and theoretical parts of TVET.

TVET regulations are heavily centralized in most countries, with very few exceptions. These include India’s subnational policy to set up TVET in areas where training is non-existent at the moment (referred to as ‘unserved’ areas); an additional separate policy for the municipality of Rizal in the Philippines; and South Africa’s National Education Policy Act (1996) that states that national education policy needs to take into account relevant provisions of any provincial law relating to education. At the subnational level countries largely rely on local authorities to implement centrally defined and designed regulations under central supervision, although the decentralization path is mentioned in several countries (i.e., Bangladesh, India, the Philippines, Tanzania).

Across all the countries, official documents outline potential measures to improve various aspects of TVET provision – including by non-state providers – based on their respective realities and needs (see further discussion in sections 3.4 and 3.5). It should also be noted that TVET is a very new development in Rwanda and that the country still lacks a fully comprehensive regulatory framework. In South Africa, engagement of non-state providers is recent, and these do not fall under many TVET/education-related regulations yet, although it is acknowledged that their registration, compliance, quality assurance and other such provisions will be made compulsory in time. For now, non-state providers in South Africa rely on an array of inconsistent and overlapping regulations for education as a whole. Evidence in India shows that non-state providers believe they are overregulated by the government.



**Table 1. Key TVET policies, constitutional arrangements and legislation**

| Focus   | Bangladesh | China | India | Philippines | Rwanda | South Africa | Tanzania |
|---|------------|-------|-------|-------------|--------|--------------|----------|
| Constitutional provisions for TVET  | N          | M     | N     | M           | N      | N            | M        |
| Constitutional provisions for private educational institutions                  | N          | N     | N     | M           | N      | M            | N        |
| TVET emphasized in development visions/plans                                    | M          | M     | M     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| Vision of TVET/skills development   | Y          | N     | N     | Y           | N      | Y            | Y        |
| General education policies with TVET provisions                                 | M          | M     | M     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| General education policies with provisions for private educational institutions | N          | M     | M     | M           | M      | N            | M        |
| TVET-focused policies   | Y          | Y     | Y     | Y           | Y      | Y            | Y        |
| Private TVET-focused policies   | N          | N     | N     | N           | N      | N            | N        |
| Apprenticeships, on-the-job training, dual training, etc.                       | M          | M     | Y     | Y           | Y      | M            | M        |
| Registration/ accreditation of training institutions                            | Y          | Y     | Y     | M           | M      | M            | Y        |
| Quality assurance   | Y          | M     | M     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| Qualifications framework  | Y          | Y     | Y     | Y           | Y      | Y            | Y        |
| Implementation  | M          | Y     | M     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| Compliance  | M          | Y     | M     | M           | N      | M            | M        |
| Accountability  | M          | M     | M     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| Financing, financial support provisions   | M          | M     | M     | Y           | Y      | M            | Y        |
| Preferential treatment of private TVET  | N          | M     | M     | N           | N      | N            | N        |
| TVET provisions, persons with disabilities                                      | Y          | Y     | N     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| TVET provisions, gender equality/ Women   | Y          | M     | N     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| TVET provisions, other vulnerable groups  | N          | M     | M     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| Partnerships for TVET (with industries, enterprises, etc.)                      | M          | M     | Y     | M           | M      | M            | M        |
| Subnational/ regional provisions  | N          | M     | Y     | Y           | N      | M            | M        |

Note: Y – yes, there is a separate document; N – no document, M – mentioned in at least one document.

Source: The authors, drawing on TVET regulations in SHLC countries.

### 3.2 Governing bodies

In this section we look at the different bodies for TVET across the seven SHLC countries. Table 2 records the formal presence of TVET governing bodies for different levels (vertical), types (horizontal) and activities (e.g., on-the-job training), which we discuss separately below. A comprehensive list of all governing bodies involved in TVET and non-state TVET in each country is presented in Appendix 2.

#### Vertical governance

One of the main observations we can extract from Table 2 is that most of the TVET systems are strongly centralized. Across the seven countries, there exists a national body to govern state and non-state TVET, either as a separate body (i.e., Bangladesh, India, the Philippines, Tanzania) or as part of a larger body (i.e., China, Rwanda, South Africa). Even when part of a larger body, a high degree of centralization is reflected in the documents (e.g., China's documentation mentions several times that the Party must have an overall leadership of TVET). China is an interesting case, as it presents a macro-governance system in which three main bodies interact (i.e., the State Council, the Ministry for Education and the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security). However, there is an ongoing push towards decentralization, with the intention to make provincial governments responsible for TVET finances and decisions. This would allow provincial government some autonomy to align TVET central guidelines to local circumstances, as well as to regional economic and social development priorities.

In contrast with China, India shows a wide spread of skill development programmes across more than 20 ministries and departments, and lacks a clear coordination and monitoring mechanism. However, we can find exceptions in a few Indian states that have created their own 'State Missions', which contrasts with a more limited presence of sub-national TVET governing bodies.

Bangladesh, India, the Philippines and Tanzania have subnational bodies to govern TVET. Generally, the intention of these bodies is to gradually decentralize implementation processes so that these can flexibly adapt to the differing needs of regions, as explicitly mentioned in Tanzania. In other cases, such as in the Philippines, the function of the regional bodies (i.e., Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA)) refers to supervising and coordinating TVET regionally. However, these regional bodies also provide technical assistance to local governments, as well as supporting the coordination and monitoring of programmes. It is surprising that larger countries with great cross-regional variation (i.e., China, Rwanda, South Africa) rely solely on national-level governing bodies. Although in some cases government offices are present across the country (e.g., China), their main function is implementing central government policies and regulations.

#### Horizontal governance

Regarding governance across different types of TVET, only the Philippines has separate bodies for formal and non-formal public and non-state TVET. In most countries, the governance of non-state TVET activities is part of a larger governing body with a more varied mandate – Tanzania is the exception, where the governance of non-state TVET is not explicitly considered as part of another body nor independently. However, being considered as part of another body does not always ensure efficiency. For instance, the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB) is responsible for non-state TVET, but lacks the capacity to fulfil this responsibility, which results in poor service delivery and limited inspections and monitoring exercises.

All countries rely on and want to expand PPPs. Bangladesh, the Philippines, Rwanda and South Africa have government-led PPPs that are integrated with another governing body, while Tanzania includes an independent government-led body. China and India have separate bodies governing PPPs. In China, this body is voluntarily formed by enterprises, institutions, social organizations and individuals, but it is still supervised by the government, whereas in India there are industry-led sector skills councils.

Interestingly, none of the countries under study formally exhibit an autonomous governing body for non-state TVET institutes nor for industries or enterprises. A partial exception is Rwanda, where we find an autonomous governing

body by industries/enterprises. The absence of these type of autonomous bodies led by the private sector might be due to either a lack of organization among these non-state actors or, possibly, due to integration and representation of these actors in other government-led and PPP bodies.

### **Governance of activities**

Four out of the seven SHLC countries have a specific body to govern activities related to on-the-job training, apprenticeships or other workplace learning programmes: these are the Philippines, Rwanda, South Africa and Tanzania. Activities in Bangladesh, China and India are not governed by a designated body.

There are three activities that we consider relevant across countries: skills qualifications, quality assurance and policy implementation. Bangladesh, India, the Philippines and South Africa have a separate body to govern skills qualifications, while governance of this activity is included in a larger body in China, Rwanda and Tanzania. We find an interesting example in Bangladesh, where there are 15 Skills Councils at the subnational level that mainly focus on standards and curriculum development.

Four out of seven countries (Bangladesh, China, the Philippines, Tanzania) include the governance of quality assurance of the TVET system as part of a larger body, while three (India, Rwanda, South Africa) have an independent body for this purpose. South Africa has more than one body (i.e., the Council of Higher Education, Umalusi Council for Quality Assurance in General and Further Education and Training, the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations), which overlap in their directives. Similarly, policy implementation is governed by an independent body in Bangladesh, India and Tanzania, while it is covered by a larger body in China, the Philippines, Rwanda and South Africa. It is worth mentioning the case of India, which has a special Policy Implementation Unit within the Ministry of Skills Development and Entrepreneurship that acts as a coordinating body across all agencies.

In most countries financing of the TVET system – including financial incentives and aid – is governed as part of a larger body. Information is lacking in Bangladesh and China, however, where it is unclear how this activity is governed.

Finally, a common challenge across the countries is the governance of inclusion (e.g., people with disabilities, women) in the TVET system. None of the countries under study has a designated body to address this area. While in Bangladesh, India and Tanzania inclusion is governed as part of a larger TVET body (e.g., Bangladesh has a Gender Working Group), in China, the Philippines, Rwanda and South Africa there is no body or working group devoted to this area. It might be that this activity is transversely considered across other governing bodies, but we have not found evidence that inclusion is a main priority in TVET governance. For South Africa, inclusion is made explicit across all documents with regards to measures to redress the apartheid legacy, with a special focus on supporting the black African community.

**Table 2. TVET governing bodies**

| Governance body  | Bangladesh | China | India | Philippines | Rwanda | South Africa | Tanzania |
|--|------------|-------|-------|-------------|--------|--------------|----------|
| <b>VERTICAL GOVERNANCE</b>   |            |       |       |             |        |              |          |
| National TVET governance for public and private TVET   | Y          | P     | Y     | Y           | P      | P            | Y        |
| Subnational TVET   | Y          | N     | Y     | Y           | N      | N            | Y        |
| <b>HORIZONTAL GOVERNANCE</b>   |            |       |       |             |        |              |          |
| Separate bodies for formal and non-formal public and private TVET  | N          | N     | N     | Y           | N      | N            | N        |
| Private TVET   | P          | P     | P     | P           | P      | P            | N        |
| PPP  | P          | Y     | Y     | P           | P      | P            | Y        |
| Autonomous governing body by private TVET institutes   | N          | N     | N     | N           | N      | N            | N        |
| Autonomous governing body by industries/enterprises  | N          | N     | N     | N           | Y      | N            | N        |
| <b>GOVERNANCE OF ACTIVITIES</b>  |            |       |       |             |        |              |          |
| On-the-job training/apprenticeships/workplace learning programmes  | N          | N     | N     | Y           | Y      | Y            | P        |
| Skills qualifications  | Y          | P     | Y     | Y           | P      | Y            | P        |
| Quality assurance  | P          | P     | Y     | P           | Y      | Y            | P        |
| Policy implementation  | Y          | P     | Y     | P           | P      | P            | Y        |
| Financing and financial incentives/aid   | NC         | NC    | P     | P           | P      | P            | P        |
| Inclusion (people with disabilities, women)  | P          | N     | P     | N           | N      | N            | P        |
| <p>Note: Y – yes, a separate body; N – no such body, P – part of a larger body with varied mandate, M – mentioned briefly; NC – not clear.</p> <p>Source: The authors drawing on TVET regulations in SHLC countries.</p> |            |       |       |             |        |              |          |

### 3.3 Typology of actors and programmes

In addition to the wide variety of ministries and other state-led boards, councils and similar institutions, each country relies on the support of a range of non-state actors to ensure sustained provision of TVET (see Appendix 4 for the typology of actors and a detailed description of roles). In all seven countries, these key actors include (1) industry/businesses/enterprises that either have their own workplace TVET or cooperate with TVET institutions, and (2) commercial TVET institutions that, with a few exceptions, are for-profit. In all countries there is also reliance on (3) non-profit TVET such as that provided by NGOs (Bangladesh, China, India, Rwanda, South Africa, Tanzania), foundations (the Philippines), religious/faith-based organizations (Rwanda, Tanzania), and community organizations/civil society (the Philippines, Tanzania). In all countries these non-profit TVET actors target marginalized and disadvantaged groups except for China, where official documents state that NGOs cater to diverse groups. Finally, (4) international development partners and donors (e.g., the European Union (EU), Asian Development Bank (ADB), World Bank, United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and a range of United Nations (UN) agencies) play a critical role in providing financial support for TVET in all the partner countries except for China and South Africa. While each country obviously has state-run TVET institutions, these are not discussed in this paper.

#### Industry

Across the study countries, there are two main tasks assumed by industry. First, contributing to the development of TVET and, second, providing workplace learning (e.g., apprenticeships, internships). In terms of contribution of the development of TVET, expectations differ across countries and include consulting and advising on TVET development (the Philippines, Rwanda, Tanzania), setting standards (Bangladesh), investing in TVET (China, the Philippines, Rwanda, Tanzania), quality assessment and assurance (China, India, Rwanda, Tanzania), curriculum design (India, South Africa), and setting up own training courses and institutions (India). Still, it is a challenge to engage industry actors for partnership with TVET institutions and other stakeholders, as the industrial sector is either too small and underdeveloped (e.g., Rwanda) or incentives are lacking. There are also regional differences in the countries that are not reflected in existing regulations (as mentioned in 3.1., only India and the Philippines have some sort of subnational regulations). For example, while China shows a more intense collaboration between the state, TVET institutions and industry, studies show that such success is primarily confined to the more prosperous and advanced Eastern region at the neglect of poorer provinces (Postiglione & Tang, 2019).

As an important part of TVET is aimed at employability skills and upskilling, demands for skills and standards are likely to be influenced or even set by employers themselves (i.e., industry) who then employ graduates. In Bangladesh and India, industry is expected to support their respective ministries in identifying skills needs and priorities to support economic development in the country. For example, this takes place through Industry Skills Councils in Bangladesh and Sector Skills Councils in India that bring together employers, workers and government representatives to discuss skills priorities in relevant sectors. Unlike in India where such Councils are part of the National Skill Development Corporation (a PPP that contributes to governing TVET in the country) and govern and regulate their own sectors, in Bangladesh they play an advisory role to the government. China combines top-down and bottom-up approaches as the government works closely with industry to swiftly respond to labour market needs. In the other four countries, it is the responsibility of state institutions to conduct research on labour market demands to determine priorities. Nevertheless, South Africa's documents mention the importance of industry in curriculum development, and in Tanzania the National Skills Development Strategy outlines the need to establish Sector Skills Councils that would determine skills priorities.

#### Commercial providers

Commercial TVET institutions have either become dominant providers (e.g., the Philippines, Rwanda) or are increasingly becoming important partners, which are usually supported and encouraged by their governments to contribute to providing a skilled workforce. In general, these are for-profit institutions that are required to fund themselves, except for in China where commercial providers are not expected to profit from their activities, although they are not legally prevented from doing so. Across countries, non-state TVET institutions generally receive financial support, whether these be subsidized for-profit institutions or non-profit NGOs that depend on donors and/or state funding. In terms of servicing particular groups, for-profit institutions charge fees, which require learners to

have financial means, although they may receive aid, loans and other types of financial support from the state (financial arrangements are discussed in more detail in section 3.4 and a list of targeted disadvantaged groups is provided in Appendix 3). NGOs commonly serve the poor and marginalized groups that are not expected to pay. However, all for-profit and non-profit providers are required to develop programmes based on national development priorities and according to state regulations.

The development plans of these countries continue to support and expand upon non-state TVET and PPPs. In particular, partnerships between non-state commercial actors and industry are expected to support the development of quality, inclusive and sustainable TVET and establish a stronger link between countries' development priorities and needs and skills training. For example, Bangladesh has a heavy focus on PPPs aiming to enhance and expand TVET, having taken the lead from India as a successful example; China expects over 80% of enterprises to participate in running their own TVET schools and encourages and supports non-state participation; and in South Africa, non-state providers have an increasing role in TVET provision and are encouraged to collaborate with public institutions and industry to improve the system. However, currently partnerships are weak across the countries and need strengthening through a concerted individual and collective effort. The development of a coordinating structure for the involvement of non-state TVET and PPPs would probably be the logical next step.

### Donors and development partners

As mentioned above, unlike the other five countries, China and South Africa (both upper middle-income countries) do not have donors involved in their TVET system. In the other countries, donors and development partners play important roles in strengthening TVET systems (e.g., in important TVET reforms in Bangladesh, supporting TVET for vulnerable groups in India). However, as some countries' development plans show, there are concerns around the sustainability of donor-supported programmes, as development aid (e.g., Rwanda) and donors' allocation of funding (e.g., the Philippines) may not be sustained over time.

### Types of TVET programme

All the countries under study have a range of TVET programmes available. One type is institution-based training, which includes short-term and long-term courses that lead to certificates and diplomas at technical and vocational schools and polytechnics. Some countries have TVET programmes that lead to degrees such as those offered by Universities of Applied Sciences in China and Bachelor of Vocational Studies in India. Learners are also required to complete professional skills training in enterprises/industries (for more details, see Table 3 and Appendix 5).

There is a strong focus on modern apprenticeship programmes in all of the SHLC countries, while a few countries also maintain traditional apprenticeships in the informal sector (i.e., the untaxed and unregulated economy) (Bangladesh, India, Rwanda) and offer internships (China, India, Rwanda), on-the-job training (China, the Philippines, Tanzania), industrial attachments and mentorship (Rwanda), and dual training programmes (the Philippines). As mentioned earlier, the concern across countries is the lack of sustained cooperation between industry and institutional TVET providers that would allow the smooth inclusion of practical training into theory-based TVET for the benefit of learners/workers, industry/businesses and economies.

**Table 3. Types of TVET programme**

| Country         | Modern apprenticeship | Traditional apprenticeship | Internship | On-the-job training | Dual training system | Industrial attachment |
|-----------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Bangladesh      | Y                     | Y                          | N          | N                   | N                    | N                     |
| China           | Y                     | N                          | Y          | Y                   | N                    | N                     |
| India           | Y                     | Y                          | Y          | N                   | N                    | N                     |
| The Philippines | Y                     | N                          | N          | Y                   | Y                    | N                     |
| Rwanda          | Y                     | Y                          | Y          | Y                   | N                    | Y                     |
| South Africa    | Y                     | N                          | N          | N                   | N                    | N                     |
| Tanzania        | Y                     | N                          | N          | Y                   | N                    | N                     |

Note: Y – yes; N – no or not clear.

Source: The authors drawing on TVET regulations in SHLC countries.

### 3.4 Financing, financial support and fund disbursement

The SHLC study countries show an increasing reliance on non-state TVET providers as public institutions are not able to support the system. However, for non-state providers to step in, states need to provide different types of financial support to incentivize their engagement and support them in sustaining and improving access and quality – whether they are for-profit or non-profit establishments.

For-profit, non-state providers are expected to self-finance, including charging fees (all countries), fundraising (China), and through capital investments (the Philippines). Still, states offer varied assistance to aid them, including financial schemes for students and for providers. Student support includes government stipends/scholarships/vouchers (Bangladesh, India, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania), scholarships from non-state providers (India), tuition waivers, hardship assistance and subsidies (China, the Philippines, South Africa), government-funded seats for disadvantaged students (India), and student micro-credit schemes and loans (all countries but China).

Government support also includes special funding frameworks (Bangladesh, India, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania), financial rewards to outstanding institutions (China), employee stock ownership in private institutions (China), preferential treatment on the use of land (China), loan/subsidy support (India, the Philippines, South Africa), and preferential funding for sectors and regions with inadequate provision (such as so-called ‘unserved areas’ in India). Additionally, special provisions are in place for non-state providers in China, the Philippines and South Africa to allow them to receive donations from the private sector (e.g., philanthropists, businesses, enterprises). In China, the private sector enjoys preferential treatment and taxation when investing in TVET, for example, when offering scholarships and loans to students. China also encourages financial institutions to offer loans to non-state providers to support their operations. Although in India the private sector is encouraged to provide such financial support, the state does not offer any preferential treatment to those who invest in TVET, which may discourage investment. It is important to note that government financial assistance is available only when providers meet all relevant conditions and requirements (e.g., they are registered and accredited).

Since for-profit, non-state institutions collect fees from their students, regulations for managing finances need to be in place for accountability purposes. However, only four out of the seven countries have such provisions. In China, providers establish financial management systems in accordance with regulations, and local governments formulate measures for fee collection. Regulations to ensure fees are used exclusively to improve teaching and learning are also in place. In South Africa, institutions keep financial records and submit financial statements in accordance with regulations. In the Philippines, there are regulations for the use of any charges collected by private institutions, and in Tanzania documents mention that providers are prohibited from charging fees as a condition of admission and attendance, unless the institution has been approved by the state.

A few countries have regulations that outline penalties or sanctions against any providers that have committed fraudulent action regarding financial support (Bangladesh, China, the Philippines, South Africa). Only two countries have provisions for preventive measures such as those against misappropriation and abuse of funds (Bangladesh, China) and embezzlement of assets (China).

Some countries identify next steps to strengthen financial support mechanisms (see Appendix 6 for details on key provisions for financing and financial support available to providers in each country). These include the need for standardized funding programmes to improve TVET quality and to increase student grants (China, the Philippines, Tanzania); adoption of a funding system that is responsive to regional needs; development of a self-sustaining loan programme (the Philippines); development of innovative financing modalities and improvement of the financial management information system (Tanzania). Rwanda is still in the process of establishing a governance and regulatory framework for TVET that currently has gaps in financing and a limited budget; most of its documents detail actions to be taken, including the introduction of a financing system for TVET (e.g., feasibility of a levy-grant system, single stakeholder financing versus co-financing) and provisions for incentives/support for private TVET.

### 3.5 Provisions for implementation, compliance and accountability

#### Implementation

As regards implementation of TVET, our analysis focuses on identifying who governs the process (i.e., control and supervision), how it is financed and, where available, provisions for capacity development and building an environment to support implementation (see Appendix 7 for a detailed description of provisions for implementation in each country).

All of the SHLC countries have bodies that oversee implementation of TVET, whether they are separate government institutions (e.g., India) or part of other governing bodies with larger/varied mandates (e.g., China, the Philippines). In addition, in the Philippines, committees are established at the industry level to oversee implementation of apprenticeship programmes.

China outlines plans, roles and responsibilities of national and subnational governments for effective implementation of TVET, including measures to supervise local governments' implementation process; in India, the Policy Implementation Unit has a detailed outline of roles and responsibilities in relation to implementation of TVET and is assessed by a third party to ensure accountability; the Philippines has relevant departments that oversee, monitor and evaluate implementation and issue operational guidelines, rules and regulations for effective implementation of key policies. Tanzania has an institutional structure for implementation at the national, regional, county and local levels, with policies and development plans that outline the mandates, roles and responsibilities of implementing structures at all levels. Further, Tanzania appoints supervisors for implementation, defining responsibilities for each sector and strengthening partnership and coordination of the process.

Of particular importance is the implementation of a country's certification and qualification systems, as these set standards and assure quality of education and training. Provisions for the implementation of national qualifications frameworks to ensure the integrity of TVET systems (i.e., control and supervision) are available in all of the study countries except for Tanzania.

As regards financing implementation, only the Philippines' provisions mention that accredited institutions should receive financial support for implementation, but this is only relevant for the implementation of its dual training system. China is the only country that mentions the need to improve public opinion to support implementation of TVET and to encourage the public to supervise implementation, while no country has provisions for building the capacity of stakeholders to enable smooth and effective implementation of education and training.

Some countries outline necessary next steps, including developing a detailed, timebound action plan with performance measures (Bangladesh), strengthening the implementation mechanism for TVET (China), establishing subject-wide implementation committees with detailed implementation plans and annual reviews (India), establishing a solid implementation structure (Rwanda), and developing procedures to implement quality management and to monitor implementation (South Africa).

#### Compliance

Compliance with rules and regulations (e.g., registration, accreditation, audits of institutions, etc.) is essential for quality assurance in TVET programmes. As things stand, non-state providers are required to comply with all TVET-related regulations and norms in China, India, the Philippines, South Africa and Tanzania. Bangladesh only mentions the need to comply with the national quality assurance system and quality standards, while Rwanda's documents only mention the need to comply with particular standards. Only India and Tanzania explicitly mention provisions for compliance with safety regulations, although Bangladesh, China and Rwanda stipulate compliance with standards for infrastructure and equipment.

It is expected that actions will be taken by respective governments in the following instances: when non-state providers violate provisions of any relevant law, policy or regulation (China, India, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania); misuse qualification titles (Bangladesh) and/or funds (China); forge or falsify licences and/or other official information (China, India, the Philippines, South Africa); mismanage the institution and operate inefficiently or without authorization (the Philippines); charge fees without approval (Tanzania); fail to display certificate of registration (South Africa); and commit other types of malpractice (e.g., damage equipment or relocate without approval, India; dishonesty, South Africa; operate without registration, Tanzania). Actions include penalties and fines (China, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania); withdrawal of licences and/or accreditation (China, the Philippines, South Africa,



Tanzania); debarring (India); closure, administrative and criminal sanctions and liabilities (the Philippines); learner achievements being nullified and imprisonment (South Africa).

Provisions are in place in all seven countries for auditing/inspection of TVET providers to ensure compliance with regulations and standards. While China assigns local governments with the responsibility of conducting audits/inspections, in India it is the role of district- and school-level authorities based on criteria developed at the central and state levels, and in the Philippines regional and provincial offices are in charge. The other countries do not stipulate which authority is responsible for compliance with TVET rules and regulations. As regards to next steps to improve compliance, only the Philippines acknowledges the need to intensify and improve auditing.

For a more detailed account of provisions for compliance in each country, see Appendix 8.

## **Accountability**

We identify nine key provisions that are in place across the seven countries to ensure states and providers are accountable to the public, particularly to students and other partners that private TVET providers engage with (Appendix 9 offers a detailed description of these provisions in each country).

1. The rights of learners in non-state institutions are protected by law in some countries (China, the Philippines) while non-state providers are also entrusted with safeguarding learners' rights and interests (China, India, the Philippines). This includes signing detailed agreements between TVET institutions and industry (India, the Philippines), industry and students (the Philippines), and TVET institutions and students (South Africa). In India, students are required to give written acknowledgement that they are familiar with the requirements and expectations of trainings. While Rwanda does not have such provisions currently, it plans to develop student welfare and academic support guidelines and establish contractual relationships between stakeholders to protect students. When private institutions close, they may be obliged to compensate enrolled students (China) or to complete the training of enrolled students (India).
2. Across all the countries, non-state providers are required to register with appropriate state authorities. This ensures that TVET providers are assessed against particular standards, norms and orders – especially in relation to accessibility and quality – when they wish to establish and operate programmes. Such provisions allow students to make informed decisions about education and training.
3. In China, non-state providers are obliged to abide by all laws of the country, whether these are specific to education and/or TVET or more general in nature.
4. Non-state providers are evaluated on their capacity to deliver training and offer students adequate learning and training conditions (e.g., infrastructure, equipment, teacher–student ratio, qualified teachers, curriculum) (Bangladesh, China, India, Tanzania); having an organizational structure with rules and regulations (China); managing institutions effectively and efficiently (Philippines); having requisite funds (China); and satisfying all obligations to students (South Africa). In China, reports on non-state providers are published and made available to the public.
5. In China non-state providers are required to form decision-making and supervisory bodies composed of expert stakeholders with education/teaching experience. This is to guarantee relevant expertise among the members in charge of decision-making that affects stakeholders and to oversee the work of principals. In South Africa, regulations outline the role of college councils in providing student support and consulting with student councils on matters relevant to their learning and training; however, it is unclear whether this provision is relevant for non-state providers.
6. In some countries, learners are allowed to petition the state when they feel their rights are infringed upon by non-state providers. In China, such matters are required to be dealt with without delay, and in South Africa providers are instructed to give students all the information necessary to protect their rights.
7. Technical support is offered to non-state providers in some countries to ensure they maintain quality training and education for the benefit of students (China, the Philippines, Rwanda). This includes providing guidance to schools regarding teaching and other education matters (China) and helping institutes to develop the capacities necessary for effective operations (the Philippines).

8. Non-state actors' rights are also protected in certain countries. For example, in South Africa, authorities cannot revoke providers' registrations unless an accepted procedure has been undertaken and all conditions are met. Providers can appeal the authorities' decisions in South Africa and Tanzania, but only in Tanzania is it assured that the teams who evaluate providers are composed of experts with relevant experience in education, leadership, planning and research, among others.
9. Finally, in China, a system is in place to protect the rights and interests of teachers in non-state institutions. For example, non-state providers are required to guarantee the payment of teachers' wages, welfare benefits and to protect other rights enjoyed by teachers in public schools. China also outlines potential next steps in improving accountability, including strengthening coordination, planning, management, supervision and evaluation of non-state TVET providers by state education departments.

### 3.6 Quality standards and quality assurance

Each SHLC country has some degree of minimum quality standards and a quality assurance framework that non-state providers have to comply with to ensure that the education/training and assessment they offer are of consistent quality (see Appendix 10 for a detailed description of the provisions for quality standards and quality assurance in each country).

In particular, each country has a national qualifications system. This is key to maintaining and standardizing a country's qualifications and ensuring their worth is understood by students and employers (Dunbar, 2010). Non-state providers are required to follow their respective qualifications system, although in Rwanda the quality standards and assurance system will only become fully operationalized by 2022. In some countries, there are specific frameworks for TVET qualifications, such as those in Bangladesh, India and Tanzania, and they are fully integrated within national qualification systems. Bangladesh also has the Skills Quality Assurance System, under which non-state providers need to be registered to be accredited and audited for compliance.

Apart from the qualification frameworks that include arrangements such as registration, accreditation and validation of standards, quality standards also include the quality of facilities, equipment, knowledge and skills of staff (Bangladesh, China, Tanzania) and assessments of whether stakeholders' needs and expectations are met (Bangladesh, India) (this is partly discussed in section 3.5 on accountability). China, Rwanda and South Africa also have teacher quality improvement plans and evaluation in place to ensure teachers' qualifications are appropriate and well matched to the relevant curriculum and standards.

As regards to quality assurance bodies, all seven countries have a centralized control system in place. State bodies develop, assess and approve national qualifications and accreditation guidelines; they also regularly review the registration of qualifications and audit providers. For example, state authorities conduct regular supervision and evaluation of training quality in China, including issuing public reports, and tracking post-skilling employment in India. In South Africa, the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations oversees all aspects of quality assurance; and in Tanzania, quality assurance is conducted by the Schools Quality Assurance Division. In Bangladesh, South Africa and Tanzania, providers are required to implement a continuous improvement approach to quality management by establishing internal quality promotional mechanisms and by conducting quality evaluations of their programmes.

Finally, some countries identify gaps and further steps to improve quality standards and assurance. This includes engaging industry and non-state providers in improving quality assurance mechanisms (China, Tanzania); detailing skills qualification frameworks for each vocation and setting occupational standards (India); devising quality assurance for apprenticeships (Rwanda); strengthening the accreditation system/TVET quality assurance (the Philippines, Tanzania); unifying and standardizing assessment and certification to remove duplicity (India); increasing the quality of curricula, inspections, assessments and accreditations, as well as increasing capacity to maintain the quality assurance system (Tanzania). Rwanda, which is in the process of establishing a TVET system, is working on timebound measures to enhance the capacity of officers to inspect and mentor providers, is developing a results-based reporting policy for providers to authorities, and is updating assessment and verification systems. One concern for the development of TVET in Rwanda is that there are no plans to create a qualifications authority; still, the country has tightened its existing licensing and accreditation regulations.

## 4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Drawing on the four key questions proposed by Busemeyer and Trampusch (2012) to understand the governance of the skills-formation system – which is outlined in section 2 of this paper – we observe the following similarities across all the countries under study:

- a) *Who provides TVET?* There is increased reliance on non-state providers to offer TVET, including South Africa, where TVET and non-state provision are new trends.
- b) *Who funds TVET?* Non-state providers rely on self-funding for their activities, even though state financial support is in place across all countries under study.
- c) *Who controls TVET?* There is strong, centralized state control of the TVET system, with limited but growing opportunity for non-state actors to supervise and influence various aspects of their respective TVET systems. These opportunities arise through, for example, skills councils that are already in place in Bangladesh and India, as well as PPPs that are encouraged and institutionalized by the states under study to support TVET development.
- d) *How does TVET relate to the rest of the education system?* TVET is increasingly integrated into the broader education system, with TVET qualifications becoming part of national qualifications frameworks and quality assurance systems.

As stated in the official documents, in all seven countries there is a heavy reliance on industry/enterprises and other non-state providers to offer training opportunities, but state control is still strong. This suggests that the countries under study might want to build a collective regime with a high degree of engagement between the state and non-state actors (e.g., industry, commercial institutions, non-profit organizations). However, the current regimes in all of the countries resemble a ‘statist regime’ characterized by a low degree of non-state actors’ engagement in governance and regulation (although non-state provision and financing of TVET are increasing across the contexts), combined with a comparatively high degree of state commitment (as measured by Busemeyer and Iversen, 2012). None of the countries seem to be heading towards a ‘segmentalist regime’, which implies a high degree of non-state involvement combined with a low degree of state involvement and self-regulation of providers.

As for the gaps and barriers in current regulations, our analysis suggests that, despite the emphasis on TVET and non-state TVET actors in all countries, there are still substantial gaps in official documents that limit efficacy and efficiency in the provision and regulation of TVET. This affects the governance of not only non-state TVET actors, but also of state TVET actors.

In terms of governance, the main issue across most countries (except for Rwanda, which is still in the early stages of developing a TVET system) is the engagement of multiple government bodies at various levels. It seems that actors at different levels are competing for the same activities and responsibilities, and it is unclear, at times, who oversees each mandate and whose interests they serve. Similarly, some regulations across the countries overlap. In many cases, the information provided in official documents is not detailed enough, which leads to action plans that are written in a confusing and unclear way. Additionally, although countries rely on PPPs and non-state TVET providers, they are offered limited technical and financial support or other incentives. This happens despite the awareness shown in the documents of some countries that industry is unwilling to engage and cooperate with other actors, and that the quality of education and training offered by non-state providers is not on par with stated standards and requirements.

Of concern too are implementation mechanisms across countries. Only a few provisions are made in some countries with regards to the various aspects that support implementation of TVET. Generally speaking, it is unclear who finances implementation, to what extent those in charge of implementation have the capacity to manage it (if at all), and how the social and institutional environments can be redesigned to make them more conducive to change. As a result, we see varying degrees of TVET implementation and success across and within regions/provinces/states.

As regards to equity and inclusivity, on the one hand, the statist regime of skills formation in TVET can prove conducive to such efforts, since state regulations are largely applicable to non-state providers. Consequently, these are likely to enforce compliance and accountability with state provisions for promoting inclusion of and equity for persons with disabilities, girls and women, residents of slums and other disadvantaged populations. On the other hand,

however, the absence of specific policies, guidelines, governing bodies and capacity-building efforts around the inclusion of disadvantaged groups makes the objective unattainable. This is especially relevant for regulating commercial providers that have to balance their reliance on profit for sustainability with supporting the achievement of wider national development goals and guiding vulnerable students who seek to improve their livelihoods through skills development (Akoojee, 2016). Further, the lack of targeted support towards non-profit providers such as NGOs and charitable organizations in existing regulations and governance leaves such providers largely unregulated and unsupported. This is especially true when funding for their work is drawn from donors, with the financial sustainability and operability of non-profit providers being compromised when funding is reduced or cut.

## 5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the above analysis, we present a number of recommendations to policy-makers at different levels that are applicable equally to least developed through to upper middle-income countries.

1. **Simplify the governance structure of TVET in general, and non-state TVET actors in particular.** In most countries, governance of the TVET system involves multiple governmental ministries and levels of governance. Their mandates, roles, responsibilities and interests are usually not clearly outlined, and they overlap or compete in several areas. A simpler and more efficient governance system would improve the efficiency of national TVET systems.
2. **Streamline TVET regulations and develop clear guidelines with and for non-state actors.** Setting clear, timebound, realistic and goal-oriented objectives for each aspect of national TVET systems is crucial to ensure efficiency. This has to be done in partnership with relevant non-state actors to ensure their engagement and effective participation in the governance system.
3. **Incentivize for-profit, non-state actors to participate in the TVET system.** For-profit, non-state providers – in particular industry and PPPs – are increasingly viewed as key actors in TVET. However, some states are still reluctant to explicitly support them with a range of incentives. While specific loans and grants are in place for these actors in most countries, additional incentives such as special taxation, opportunities to receive guidance, mentorship and other capacity-building training and technical support would encourage participation from more of these actors in the development of national quality and inclusive TVET systems, as well as collaboration between these actors.
4. **Provide targeted financial and capacity-building support to non-profit, non-state actors.** Non-profit, non-state actors (e.g., NGOs, foundations, faith-based and charitable groups) need sustained support to make sure that effective and quality TVET is available to marginalized and vulnerable populations. Targeted funding for this type of non-state actor and capacity-building activities (e.g., mentorship, guidance) would strengthen these organizations and their programmes and prevent their current reliance on inconsistent funding from donors. In sum, it will ensure the sustainability of TVET programmes to support the most vulnerable groups. Cost-sharing between the state, businesses and other actors to support non-profit providers is one option to alleviate financial pressure on the state.
5. **Encourage cooperation across actors to serve the most marginalized and vulnerable groups.** Cost-sharing for non-profit TVET actors can offer opportunities for businesses/enterprises to become involved with communities in need. The Philippines is one example of this, where inclusive businesses help community-level organizations/NGOs with funding, but also provide technical assistance, training and support for capacity-building. Cooperation between and among actors has also led to the establishment of social enterprises that immerse themselves in communities to improve the quality of life of their workers.
6. **Focus on developing and strengthening the non-state TVET system in more disadvantaged areas.** Currently, existing regulations and governance systems overwhelmingly focus on the national aspect of TVET. As there are gaps in the availability of TVET and prosperity and development at the province/region and even city level across countries, specific, subnational and city-level policies and regulations need to be developed from the bottom-up to ensure the needs of each locality are met (even at the smallest level, such as a neighbourhood). Similarly, state financial and technical support should be based on the actual needs of each province/region and city to close existing gaps.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1. Key policies, laws, plans regulating private TVET

| Country    | Document  | Purpose/TVET Provisions  |
|------------|---|--|
| Bangladesh | Constitution (1972)   | Provisions for compulsory education, no clauses for TVET or private educational institutions   |
|            | Vision 2021 (2007)  | Measures to achieve development goals (e.g., develop an efficient, accountable, transparent and decentralized system of governance and a skilled and creative human resource). Increasing the access to world-class quality vocational training through scholarships is one of the measures  |
|            | 7th Five-year Plan 2016-2020 (2015)   | Development trajectory for GDP growth acceleration, employment generation and poverty reduction and empowering citizens to participate in and benefit from the development process. Greater emphasis is placed on TVET   |
|            | Perspective Plan of Bangladesh 2010-2021  | Road map for accelerated growth and approaches for eradication of poverty, inequality, and human deprivation; a milestone includes better access to, and quality of, TVET  |
|            | Skills Vision 2016  | Vision for a quality TVET/skills development to ensure decent work for all   |
|            | National Skills Development Policy (2011)   | Direction for skills development, setting out reforms for the government to implement in partnership with industry, workers, and civil society   |
|            | National Skills Quality Assurance System (2012)   | Ensures nationally consistent and high quality training and assessment services: includes accreditation of nationally recognised units of competency, qualifications and course specifications; registration of public and private training providers; accreditation of learning and assessment programmes leading to nationally recognised units of competency and qualifications; auditing of training providers for compliance against quality standards and validation of assessment tools against units of competency |
|            | National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (2008)                         | Part of the quality assurance system; uses competency standards to recognise skills acquired in the informal sector and qualifications offered in formal education and training, workplace training and all other training, whether the provider is officially recognised or not   |
|            | National Education Policy (2010)  | Outlines aims, objectives, goals and principles for developing a well-planned, science-oriented education system of high quality, including to ensure skills development/vocational education of high standard   |
|            | National Strategy for Inclusion of Persons with Disabilities in Skills Development (2013) | <i>The Strategy cannot be found on the internet. From the available reports, it states the following:</i><br>Actions to strengthen disability inclusion in the sector (e.g., MOUs between TVET institutions and Disabled Persons Organizations to reach the 5% enrolment target for persons with disabilities)   |
|            | National Strategy for Promotion of Gender Equality in TVET (2012)                         | Framework with priorities, targets, performance accountability mechanisms, and actions and activities to increase women's participation in TVET (e.g., increased participation, increased quotas for female teachers and staff, attitudinal shifts regarding gender, gender-friendly environments)   |
|            | Accreditation of Qualifications and Units of Competency on the National Technical and     | Description of the processes, criteria and documentation for Accreditation of Qualifications and Units of Competency on the NTVQF; details the processes and criteria for the definition of industry skills, the development and approval of units of competency and qualifications, and the inclusion of the qualifications and units of competency on the NTVQF  |



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|       | Vocational Qualifications Framework (2012)  |  |
|       | Registration of Training Organizations and Accreditation of Learning and Assessment Programs (2012)                                     | Describes the systems that provide assurance to the quality of learning and assessment programmes that lead to achievement of Units of Competence and Qualifications on the NTVQF; details the processes and criteria for the Registration of Training Organizations and Accreditation of Registered Training Organizations  |
| China | 宪法<br>Constitution (1982, amended through to 2018)  | Promotion of vocational education and encouragement of the establishment of educational institutions of various types by different actors according to law (Art. 19), including education for persons with disabilities (Art. 45)  |
|       | 中华人民共和国国民经济和社会发展第十三个五年规划纲要<br>The 13th Five-year Plan for Economic and Social Development of The People's Republic of China (2016–2020) | Includes the plan to improve TVET (including its infrastructure) through the cooperation of industry and TVET educational institutions for training models to achieve applied expertise and improved technical skills; developing production-oriented majors, class content, and teaching methods; promoting mutual recognition and vertical mobility between vocational education and regular education   |
|       | 教育法<br>Education Law (1995, amended through to 2015)  | General provisions for the country's education system (including financing, financial support, vulnerable groups); calls for measures to develop vocational education and training by the state, enterprises and institutions (Art. 19); obliges to establish educational institutions according to law and not for profit (Art. 25); encourages cooperation between enterprises, institutions, public and social organizations, and vocational schools (Art. 46)  |
|       | 面向21世纪教育振兴行动计划<br>Action Scheme for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century (1998)  | Actions for an education reform to improve the quality of the nation and enhance its innovative capacity; guidance and measures to develop and invigorate TVET to motivate various sectors of society to run educational institutions, including non-state and private (e.g., reform of certification, curriculum, teacher qualifications, employment, mechanism of operation); assigning high degree of autonomy to tertiary vocational education; developing policies of preferential treatment to attract non-state/private funds into education and facilitate the development of non-state/private institutions |
|       | 国家中长期教育改革和发展规划纲要 (2010-2020年)<br>National Plan for Medium- and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020) (2010)            | Strategy to modernise education, including through regulations that promote school-enterprise cooperation, establishment of vocational schools by industries and enterprises, and increased investments in vocational training by enterprises (Art. 15); acceleration of TVET development in rural areas, including by placing responsibility on provincial and municipal governments, and by strengthening coordination and utilisation of resources (Art. 16); improvement of policies to support vocational education (Art. 17); expanding autonomy of vocational schools (Art. 39)                               |
|       | 职业教育法<br>Vocational Education Law (1996)  | General provisions on TVET's functions and duties; details on the processes and structure of the vocational education system; covers supporting conditions including financial resources, quality assurance and special measures to support the TVET in rural areas, for disabled people and women   |

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| <p>国家职业教育改革实施方案<br/>National Vocational Education Reform Implementation Plan (2019)</p>   | <p>Plan for the implementation of Vocational Education Law (1996) to create a national system of vocational education that covers most industries and meets international standards; includes efforts to improve the framework of the national vocational education system, enhance secondary vocational education, build the national standard of vocational education, initiate the work of vocational skill level certification system, build a quality TVET evaluation system, improve educational fund investment mechanisms and evaluation and supervision system of TVET, strengthen Party leadership of TVET, ensure the recognition, accumulation and conversion of learning achievements</p> |
| <p>职业资格证书规定<br/>Regulations for the Certification of Vocational Qualifications (1994)</p>   | <p>Calls to implement the Vocational Qualification Certification System as the state's way to recognise applicants' professional knowledge, skills, and abilities, strengthen scientific labour and personnel management, protect public interests, and maintain the occupational order</p>  |
| <p>职业技能等级证书监督管理办法 (试行)<br/>Supervising and Managing Measures of Vocational Skill Level Certificates (2019)</p>                        | <p>Measures for supervision and management of vocational skill level certificates in order to strengthen the TVET system, build a national qualifications framework, promote national vocational standards, and encourage non-state sectors to participate in TVET</p>   |
| <p>中等职业教育督导评估办法<br/>Measures for the Supervision and Evaluation of Secondary Vocational Education (2011)</p>                          | <p>Supervises the development of secondary vocational education with each district having a standardized supervision and evaluation system that considers regional needs; ensures that local governments fulfil their duties of developing secondary vocational education; outlines indexes and standards for the evaluation system of secondary vocational education with quantifiable standards (points-based system); outlines supervision and evaluation procedures</p>  |
| <p>现代职业教育质量提升计划资金管理暂行办法<br/>Fund Management Measures of Modern Vocational Education Quality Improvement Programme (2015)</p>          | <p>Provisions standardize and strengthen the management of funds for improving TVET quality and the efficiency of fund use; the fund is mainly established to increase student grants, reconstruction and expansion of facilities, teacher training and cooperation between schools and industries</p>   |
| <p>中华人民共和国民办教育促进法<br/>Law on the Promotion Of Non-state Schools of the People's Republic of China (2002, amended through to 2016)</p> | <p>Provisions for sound development of non-state schools, the promotion of quality in non-state schools, and safeguarding their lawful rights and interests; includes sections on organization and activities of schools, school assets and financial management, administration and supervision, legal liability, and other such provisions</p>   |
| <p>现代职业教育体系建设规划 (2014-2020年)<br/>Modern Vocational Education System</p>   | <p>Sets out the duty of the TVET system in developing a highly qualified workforce, promoting career development, and developing competitive skills and talents; outlines general requirements, structure, key tasks of the system, as well as the way towards a reliable system and innovation; supports the involvement of other stakeholders in providing and developing TVET</p>   |

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|       | Construction Plan (2014-2020) (2014)  |   |
|       | 关于加快发展残疾人职业教育的若干意见<br>The Guideline on Accelerating the Development of Vocational Education for the Disabled (2018) | Guidelines to accelerate the development of vocational education for persons with disabilities, including expanding expand their opportunities to receive vocational education, improving school conditions and quality of vocational education to accommodate them, strengthening employment guidance, assistance, and leadership to accommodate for persons with disabilities   |
|       | 2020年技工院校学生资助工作的通知<br>Notice of Student Financial Aid for Technical Colleges in 2020 (2020)                         | Guidance on providing financial aid for students in technical colleges during the pandemic and throughout the year and on ensuring the basic learning and living needs of students with financial difficulties, including evaluating students' eligibility for financial aid (Art. 5)   |
| India | Constitution (1950, amended through to 2020)  | Non-discrimination clause for admission to educational institutions that are maintained or aided by the state (Art. 29.2), for granting state aid to educational institutions run by minorities (Art. 30.2); promotion of educational interests of the weaker groups (Art. 46)  |
|       | Twelfth Five Year Plan 2012-2017 (2013)   | Country's development plan, last five-year plan; recommended expansion and re-designing of vocational education and improvement of its quality, in particular employment-orientation with hands-on training, curriculum revision, certification by accrediting agencies, linkage with industry; importance to align with secondary schooling  |
|       | National Education Policy (2020)  | Provides a comprehensive framework to guide the development of education in its entirety, including TVET, to improve education quality in order to promote national progress, strengthen national integration, and meet the challenges of the times   |
|       | National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship (2015)  | The objective of the policy is to meet the challenge of skilling at scale with speed, standard (quality) and sustainability; provides a framework to all skilling activities to align them to common standards, lays down the objectives and expected outcomes, identifies the overall institutional framework to reach the expected outcomes, identifies key stakeholders for skills development   |
|       | Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education (2011)  | Provisions to revamp vocational education framework, introduce vocational education at the secondary stage as a distinct stream to prepare students for identified vocations, includes provisions for financing, performance linked incentives  |
|       | Policy Guidelines for Dual System of Training (DST) (2016, amended through 2019)                                    | Encourages Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) (theoretical training) and industry (practical training) partners to adopt/participate in dual system of training to strengthen industry connect and impart quality, industry relevant training, objective is to enable industries and establishments to partner with Government and Private ITIs for training programmes; provides comprehensive guidelines for ITIs and industries work on DST, including on courses/curriculum, duration of training, admission, assessment, and certification of trainees/learners, MOU between ITIs and industries, roles and responsibilities of ITIs and industries, and other relevant aspects |
|       | Affiliation Norms for ITIs (2018)   | Procedure for seeking affiliation*: details out requirements for affiliation and accreditation of ITIs (e.g., infrastructure, tools and equipment, staff strength, power requirement etc.) to reach an internationally acceptable   |

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|             |  | <p>level (not a legal document and is made to serve the users for smooth implementation of norms)</p> <p>*affiliation is a process of establishing competence of ITIs in delivering the requisite elements of vocational training with ability to carry out evaluation of competence acquired by the trainees</p>  |
|             | Guidelines for the Scheme of Setting up of Multi Skill Training Institutes in Unserved Blocks (2019) | The document is for the establishment of institutions in unserved blocks - areas across the country that do not have a functioning ITI so that people from those areas have to travel to/reside in far locations for TVET  |
|             | National Skills Qualification Framework (2013)   | Quality assurance framework for a transparent, accountable and credible mechanism for skill development across various sectors - a nationally integrated education and competency based skill framework that provides for multiple pathways within vocational education and among vocational education, general education and technical education, to enable a person to acquire desired competency levels, transit to the job market and return for acquiring additional skills to further upgrade their competencies                                       |
| Philippines | Constitution (1987)  | Pledges to protect and promote the right to quality education at all levels for all citizens (Art. 1); establish a financial support system (scholarships, student loan programmes, subsidies, other incentives for deserving students in public and private schools) (Art. 2.3); provide adult citizens, persons with disabilities, and out-of-school youth with training in vocational efficiency (Art. 2.5); recognises the role of private institutions in the educational system and exercises reasonable supervision and regulation of them (Art. 4.1) |
|             | Philippine Development Plan 2017-2020  | Vision for the country for which government to formulate policies and implement programmes and projects, in particular: to build a prosperous, predominantly middle-class society where no one is poor; promote a long and healthy life; become smarter and more innovative; and build a high-trust society  |
|             | Education Act (1982)   | Provisions for the establishment and maintenance of a complete, adequate, and integrated system of education relevant to the goals of national development; applies to and governs formal and non-formal systems in public and private schools in all levels, including to train the nation's manpower in the middle-level skills for national development (Art. 4.2)  |
|             | National Technical Education and Skills Development Plan (2018-2022) (2018)                          | Serves as a compass to orient TVET actors (industries, labor sector, government units, educational institutions, and NGOs) in coming up with responsive policies and implementing programmes for the sector to achieve quality TVET for all and thus boost the development of the human capital resources  |
|             | Technical Educational and Skills Development Act (1994)  | Obliges the State to provide relevant, accessible, quality and efficient technical education and skills development to support the development of quality middle-level manpower; encourages active participation of private enterprises in providing technical education and skills development opportunities  |
|             | Dual Training System Act (1994)  | Outlines the introduction and implementation of a dual training system in accredited vocational and technical schools by public and private TVET providers, in cooperation with accredited establishments (e.g., industries, businesses); the dual system is a preferred route to create a pool of well-trained operators, craftsmen and technicians for the economy   |
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|        | TESDA CY 2018 Planning Guidelines   | Provides guidelines for the planning of every aspect of TVET in the country, including quality assurance, implementation, and other aspects   |
|        | Apprenticeship Training System Act (2017)   | Establishes an apprenticeship programme to ensure the availability of qualified human resource in critical, in-demand occupations through the participation of employers, workers, and government and non-governmental agencies; calls to enhance standards for the training, development, and employability of apprentices, recognises the indispensable role of private enterprises in training and development (Art. 3)  |
|        | Universal Access to Quality Tertiary Education Act (2017)   | Aims to establish the tertiary education subsidy (TES) and student loan programme and strengthen the unified student financial assistance system, including for access to private institutions  |
|        | Unified Student Financial Assistance System for Tertiary Education Act (2015)   | Provisions for adequate funding and other such mechanisms to increase the participation of all socioeconomic classes in tertiary education; unifies all modalities of publicly-funded Student Financial Assistance Programs (StuFAPs) Scholarships, Grants-in-Aid and Student Loans for tertiary education; rationalises the allocation, utilisation, and client-targeting of government resources and improves access to quality TVET  |
|        | Implementing Rules and Regulations of Republic Act 10815 "Rizal, Occidental Mindoro TESDA Training and Accreditation Centre Act" (2017) | Establishes a Technical Education and Skills Development Centre in the Municipality of Rizal, Province of Occidental Mindoro, under the supervision of TESDA; the Centre provides technical and vocational training and skills development programmes to students from low-income families and out of school youth in the Province; serves as the assessment centre for acquired competences in TV skills in the Province   |
|        | The Philippine Qualifications Framework (2017)  | Describes the levels of educational qualifications and sets the standards for qualification outcomes; quality assured national system for the development, recognition, and award of qualifications based on standards of knowledge, skills and values acquired in different ways and methods by learners and workers; ensures that training and educational institutions comply with specific standards and are accountable for achieving corresponding learning outcomes  |
| Rwanda | Constitution (2003; amended through to 2015)  | No clauses for TVET or private educational institutions   |
|        | Vision 2020 (2012)  | Outlines the country's development visions, regarding TVET: highlights the need for matching skills to labour market needs and for entrepreneurial mindset shift with major emphasis being placed on TVET; stresses gender equality   |
|        | Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (2013)   | Outlines challenges, opportunities, and focused and coordinated strategies for the country's development, with the focus on the reduction of poverty and inequalities, improvement of public and private sectors, rural development, youth employment, capacity building, gender equality   |
|        | TVET Policy (2015)  | Provide a purpose, direction, and supporting framework for all those involved in TVET, including strategic alignment with TVET's vision, policies, and strategies; justifies and explains the focus on TVET, the aims of the government in the sector, and how they will be achieved; identifies weaknesses in the system including a lack of horizontal and vertical integration (disjointed TVET system and lack of progression paths for students), capacity constraints within TVET system (lack of capacities for quality assurance, planning, understanding regulatory issues, managing funds, project management, understanding new legislation) |

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| Education Sector Strategic Plan (2018/19-2023/24)                         | Framework for a holistic sector-wide approach to the development and delivery of education services to support national priorities and goals; promotes access to education at all levels for all, improving the quality of education and training, strengthening the relevance of education and training; emphasis on skills development and strengthening of TVET, especially of improvement of governance and management through the introduction of adequate legal and regulatory frameworks, capacity building, and innovative financing, clearly defined roles and responsibilities for good leadership, organizational management, planning and facilities management  |
| Rwanda Polytechnic Strategic Plan (2019-2024) (2019)                      | Guiding strategic document for effective delivery of quality TVET education and modernising the technical workforce for national development; 12 strategic areas and objectives, including Legislative, Regulatory, and Policy Framework; Oversight and Governance; Curriculum; Teaching and Learning; Student Support; Infrastructure and Resources; Human Resource Development; Partnerships; Management Information and Statistics; Perception of TVET; Access; states the need to establish and approve the law regulating TVET and to develop and approve a planning framework for Rwanda Polytechnic's Colleges and Technical Schools  |
| Workplace Learning Policy (2015)  | Goal: create systems, institutional structures, standards, regulations that ensure the full use of the country's potential of training and learning at the workplace; highlights the importance of TVET for creating a competent, motivated and adaptable workforce; need to strengthen the participation of the private sector in TVET, including thorough tax incentives. Broad objectives: develop a modern, recognised, sustainable apprenticeship system in partnership with companies, improve systems and management of attachment and internship programmes, develop an institutional framework for the coordinated promotion, facilitation and implementation of workplace learning with strong private sector influence, create sustainable incentive structures for companies |
| Law Establishing Rwanda Polytechnic (2017)                                | Establishes the Polytechnic higher learning institution and determines its mission, powers, organization, and functioning  |
| Law Governing Student Loans and Bursaries (2015)                          | Governs student loans and bursaries, including for private TVET, where bursaries are a non-refundable amount of money disbursed by the government and loans are money that the Government lends to students to enable them to meet the costs of education  |
| TVET Quality Management Handbook (2019)                                   | Presents to TVET providers a guideline and a range of instruments, methods and tools to use to develop a quality culture within their organizations; provides a comprehensive and practical tool for institutions to follow to improve quality and all relevant procedures and strategies  |
| Private Sector Development and Youth Employment Strategy 2018-2024 (2017) | Outlines strategies and interventions for the development of the private sector and to unlock youth potential and enhance youth employment; one priority is promotion of workplace readiness programmes including internship, mentorship and on-job training programme   |
| Rwanda TVET Qualification Framework (2012)                                | Framework for TVET qualifications to support the provision of quality education and training; specifies occupational levels and standards, indicating the learning outcomes in terms of what a learner is able to do as a result of the learning process; ensures that TVET qualifications are equated with other forms of education, and that they open career pathways   |

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| South Africa | Constitution (1996, amended through to 2012)  | Reasonable measures taken by the State to ensure everyone's right to further education (Art. 29.1); promotes everyone's right to establish independent educational institutions that (a) do not discriminate on the basis of race; (b) are registered with the state; and (c) maintain standards not inferior to standards at comparable public educational institutions (Art. 29.3)   |
|              | National Education Policy Act (1996)  | Policy to transform the education system to serve the needs and interests and uphold the fundamental rights of all; provisions for the establishment of bodies for the purpose of consultation, publication and implementation of the policy, planning, financing, staffing, coordination, management, governance, programmes, monitoring, evaluation and well-being of the education system; requires to take into account the competence of the provincial legislatures and the relevant provisions of any provincial law (Art. 3.2) |
|              | Continuing Education and Training Act (2006)  | Provisions for regulation of further education and training, of relevance to private TVET - registration of private further education and training colleges and promotion of quality in further education and training, promoting co-operative governance and promotion of programme-based vocational and occupational training  |
|              | National Development Plan 2030 (2013)   | Outlines development objectives. Chapter 9 focuses on improving education, training, and innovation. Key points: requires quality skills development sector/further education, further education should expand moderately, private providers continue to be important partners in the delivery of education and training, coordination/partnerships between the different role-players is important, clear linkages between education and training and the world of work   |
|              | Regulations under South African Qualifications Authority Act (1995)   | Establishes the National Qualifications Framework (NQF); outlines provisions related to it regarding: creation of an integrated national framework for learning achievements; facilitation of access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths; enhancement of the quality of education and training; acceleration of the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities   |
|              | Policy for Verification of Trades and Occupational Qualifications (2019)  | Promotes consistency and transparency in the verification of certificates; outlines the approach to the responsibilities associated with the verification of certified learner records; forms the basis for developing a cooperative relationship between stakeholders; determines standards for the verification of certified candidate records for trades, occupational qualifications, and part qualifications and to comply with the requirements  |
|              | Policy for the Certification of Learner Achievements for Trades and Occupational Qualifications Sub-framework (OQSF) (2019) | Promotes consistency and transparency in the certification of occupational qualifications/trades; provides for an integrated and transparent framework for the recognition and certification of learner achievement for occupational qualifications; ensures that qualifications meet appropriate criteria and are of acceptable quality; forms the basis for developing a cooperative relationship between stakeholders   |
|              | Assessment Quality Partner Quality Assurance Policy (2018)  | Informs all constituents, skills development providers, and staff of the policy and principles of the Education Development Practices Sector Education and Training Authority (ETDP SETA) Quality Assurance; applies to all processes conducted by ETDP SETA related to the accreditation of assessment centres and registration of assessment sites for specific NQF registered occupational qualifications within the accreditation scope of the ETDP SETA   |

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|          | Policy for the Post School Education and Training Central Application Service (2016)          | Provisions for an easy to understand application process, giving applicants access to multiple institutions covering the entire post-school education and training sector; facilitates planning for and reporting on the entire sector   |
|          | Adult Education and Training Act (2000, amended through 2010)                                 | Provisions for the registration of private adult learning centres, quality assurance and quality promotion in adult education and training, transitional arrangements; applies to any adult education and training offered in the country  |
|          | South African Qualifications Authority Act (1995)   | Provisions for the development and implementation of a National Qualifications Framework and the establishment and matters of the South African Qualifications Authority   |
|          | Skills Development Act (1998, amended through 2010)   | Framework to devise and implement national, sector and workplace strategies to develop and improve the skills of the workforce; integrates those strategies within the National Qualifications Framework; provisions for learnerships that lead to recognised occupational qualifications, the financing of skills development by means of a levy-financing scheme and a National Skills Fund; provisions/regulations for employment services  |
|          | Skills Development Levies Act (1999)  | Provisions for the imposition of a skills development levy on employers  |
|          | General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act (2001, amended through 2011) | The object of the Act is to enhance the quality of general and further education and training; provisions for the establishment, composition and functioning of the General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Council; for quality assurance in general and further education and training; for control over norms and standards of curriculum and assessment; for the issue of certificates at the exit points; for the conduct of assessment. Applies to all education institutions established or registered under the Further Education and Training Colleges Act, 2006 or Adult Basic Education and Training Act, 2000 |
|          | National Qualifications Framework Act (2008, amended through 2019)                            | Provisions for the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), the principal instrument through which national education and training qualifications are recognised and quality-assured; objectives of the NQF are to create a single integrated national framework for learning achievements; facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within, education, training and career paths; enhance the quality of education and training; accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities (Art. 5)  |
| Tanzania | Constitution (1977, amended through to 2005)  | Obliges the State to ensure that everyone is afforded equal, sufficient opportunity to pursue vocational training in all levels of schools and other institutions of learning (Art. 11.3)  |
|          | Tanzania's Development Vision 2025  | Vision for the country's development; targets include transforming into a middle-income country through a well-educated and learning society and transforming the economy from agricultural to diversified and semi-industrial   |
|          | Vocational Education and Training Act (1994, revised in 2006)                                 | Provision for the regulation of the training of apprentices and other persons in industry; established an autonomous government agency to be known as the Vocational Education and Training Authority  |
|          | Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) (2016/17-2020/21)                                    | Policy shift away from higher education into progressive expansion of TVET as a key initiative; equitable access to and improved quality of training; sets performance indicators for TVET with strategies including promoting public-private partnerships, accountability, harmonisation of regulations and guidelines, strengthening of capacities, coordination, communication, cooperation, monitoring and evaluation  |



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| Second Five Year Development Plan (FYDP II) 2016/17–2020/21                             | Emphasis on skills development, strategic interventions to address the skills gap, especially of soft and behavioural skills (incl. work ethics, teamwork, care for others, social justice, solidarity, compassion) and science and mathematics; promotion of self-employment (thus of entrepreneurial skills); calls to develop a National Skill Development Strategy (suitable for market demand, working cultures, self-employment), a strong labour market information system, practical training, removal of cultural barriers to TVET, strengthened capacities of all stakeholders (quality assurance, teaching, policy formulation, planning)   |
| Education and Training Policy (2014)  | Guidelines for the management of education and training to improve their quality, accessibility, make procedures flexible, improve management and administration of training, develop sustainable financing modality   |
| National Education Act (1978, amended 1995 and 2002)                                    | Provisions regarding the establishment of non-public schools, including the need for approval by the Commissioner if the school provides training in technical fields of learning (Art. 15.1), application should comply with Ministry's regulations and directions (Art. 16.1, Art. 24.1), establishment of private schools allowed only when they provide education in technical fields of learning (Art. 23), registering private schools under this Act (Art. 24), private school premises should not present any danger or risk and should be sanitary and suitable; school should conform to all regulations of the Act, qualifications and experience of teachers should be adequate, terms and conditions of service of teachers should be adequate, premises and equipment should allow effective tuition, should not be affiliated to/controlled by/connected to a foreign government or a political group (Art. 28) |
| Education Fund Act (2001)   | Establishing the Fund and the Board to oversee the Fund's functions of setting policies and procedures for the use of the Fund, appointing auditors for auditing the Fund, securing adequate and stable financing of education, monitoring the use of funds disbursed, equitable distribution of Fund's resources, mobilising resources from the public, and contributing to the raising of the quality of education and increasing access and equality and the promotion of education and training  |
| National Council for Technical Education (National Technical Awards) Regulations (2005) | Outlines regulations/provisions for National Technical Awards which are competence or outcomes-based standard awards established to be conferred on graduates of TVET institutions upon successful completion of the respective studies offered by technical institutions  |
| National Qualification Framework (2010)   | Comprehensive framework covering all sectors of education and training, includes the sub-framework for TVET; defines a national effort to integrate education and training into a unified structure of recognised qualifications; seeks to ensure effective comparability of qualifications and credit across the national education training systems  |
| National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty II (2010)                         | Goal 2 ensures the expansion of enrolment to, improvement of quality and relevance of TVET to prepare skilled and competent professionals in various trades and ensure labour force is prepared for entrepreneurship, the job markets and employment at large (including through the expansion of apprenticeship schemes and mentoring systems in strategic partnership with the private sector)   |
| National Skills Development Strategy 2016-2027  | First comprehensive skills development strategy for Tanzania; vision of a skilled competitive Tanzanian workforce capable of contributing to an inclusive and sustainable socio-economic growth; focuses on skills development through targeted set of interventions at both system and service  |

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|  |   | delivery levels; addresses both formal and informal sector skills needs at all levels of education and training   |
|  | National Council for Technical Education (Accreditation and Recognition) Regulations (2001)           | Explanation of the process of application for accreditation and recognition; rules for accreditation and recognition of TVET institutions, where accreditation means approval or certification granted by a relevant authority representing the interest of the public and student, to an institution, on account of having programmes and a quality assurance system that ensures provision of set qualification(s) and educational standard(s) for a particular period of time and recognition means certification of capacity of a department in an institution to deliver a curriculum devised by NACTE |
|  | National Council for Technical Education (Registration of Technical Institutions) Regulations (2001)  | Outlines requirements and procedures for TVET institutions to register and to follow to be able to offer TVET programmes  |
|  | National Council for Technical Education (Requirements to Offer Degree Programmes) Regulations (2005) | Outlines requirements and procedure for TVET institutions to fulfil and to follow to be able to offer degree programmes   |
|  | National Council for Technical Education Act (1997)   | Establishes the National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) and outlines its responsibilities, powers, function, and procedures  |

## Appendix 2. Bodies governing private TVET

| Country    | Governing Body   | Duties and Responsibilities  |
|------------|--|--|
| Bangladesh | Directorate of Technical Education (DTE) (Ministry of Education) | Provides directions, policies, standards, monitoring and evaluation, managing human resources and improving their capacities, preparing training plans, programmes, and projects, labour market research, introducing emerging technologies; Disability Inclusion Advisory Group guides policy on disability budgeting and the implementation and monitoring of disability inclusion measures in DTE's TVET institutions   |
|            | Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB)                      | Sets quality standards; quality assurance; overall development of TVET (e.g., curriculum development, exit examinations, recognition/accreditation of training providers, certification); implementation and periodic review of the National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF); regulates private TVET programmes, but lacks the capacity to fulfill those responsibilities, resulting in poor service delivery; has an inspection and monitoring cell, but it is not fully staffed, which affect the frequency of inspection and service delivery by private training providers |
|            | National Skills Development Council (NSDC)                       | Main body for the national skills development agenda, including conducting national skills surveys, working with industry to promote workplace learning, overseeing and monitoring all activities of public and private TVET providers; responsible for the approval and implementation of all governance, regulatory and legislative provisions related to human resource development and training (headed by the Prime Minister)   |

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|       | Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training                         | Ensures a coordinated approach to skills development for expatriate workers, including an assessment of the existing training infrastructure and coordination of international demand data  |
|       | Industry Skills Councils   | 15 throughout the country; have standards and curriculum development committees; local ISC representatives connected to the management of 100 technical training centres/polytechnics throughout Bangladesh   |
| China | State Council  | Planning, coordination and macro-control of TVET: establishes mechanisms for cooperation between relevant administrative departments involved in TVET; formulates laws and regulations, major policies and overall plans for TVET development   |
|       | Ministry of Education  | Provides guidance for the development and reform of employment-oriented vocational education; formulates curriculum catalogues for secondary vocational education, documents to guide teaching, standards of teaching assessment; improves occupational counselling   |
|       | Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security                    | Guides the development of TVET, the training of teaching staff and development of teaching materials; formulates vocational classifications and vocational skills standards   |
|       | The Chinese Society for Technical and Vocational Education (CSTVE) | Supervised by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Civil Affairs; national, academic and non-profit social group, formed by enterprises, institutions, social organizations and individuals engaged in TVET; extensive role in TVET governance, including providing suggestions for decision-making, setting quality standards, project evaluation, research, certification, developing cooperation among schools, industries and enterprises  |
|       | China Employment Training Technical Instruction Centre (CETTC)     | Under the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security; provides technical guidance on employment and vocational training work, organizing occupational skill testing; undertakes technical guidance for national vocational training; research, development and promotion of vocational training technical equipment, of teaching method reform, and of curriculum; supervises and evaluates key national technical schools; keeps record of any legal documents, application or other relevant files submitted by technical educational institutions |
| India | Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (MSDE)          | Coordinates skill development efforts, including developing a skill development framework (standards for inputs/output, funding/cost norms, third party certification and assessment costs); connecting demand for, and supply of, skilled manpower; up-grading skills and building new skills; implementing the National Policy for Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015   |
|       | Policy Implementation Unit (PIU) (under MSDE)                      | Reviews the implementation and progress of the various initiatives under National Policy for Skill Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015; regularly consults with stakeholders to get feedback and enable improvements; identifies all agencies involved in skill development, coordinates their work, helps them devise outlines and timelines for the implementation of the initiatives assigned to them, supports them to enhance their efficiency; conducts monthly review of the action points and nudge them if the progress is not as expected    |
|       | Director General of Training                                       | Sets up framework for structure of courses, assessment, curricula creation, affiliation and accreditation of institutes; develops national standards on syllabi, equipment, scale of space, duration of   |

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|             |  | courses and methods of training; advises on training policy in its network of training institutes; coordinates functioning of ITIs; provides technical support to vocational education; operationalises training schemes through ITIs and Vocational Training Providers   |
|             | National Skill Development Agency (NSDA)                                     | Operationalises and implements the NSQF to ensure that quality and standards meet sector specific requirements; establishes and operationalises a quality assurance framework embedded in NSQF to improve consistency of outcomes in the skills landscape (includes a framework for training, assessment and certification processes and agencies in the country); sets up professional certifying bodies in addition to the existing ones; facilitates capacity building; conducts policy research in the skills space; develops national protocols for registration and accreditation of private training providers   |
|             | National Skill Development Corporation                                       | Public Private Partnership: promotes and encourages private sector participation in skilling via innovative funding models (a combination of debt, equity and grants to the private sector to build capacity); implements skills voucher programme; drives engagement with industry and businesses; initiates and incubates Sector Skills Councils  |
|             | National Skill Development Mission   | Implements and coordinates all skilling efforts in the country towards the objectives laid down in National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship, 2015  |
|             | State Skill Development Missions (SSDM)                                      | State-level institutions; coordinate development functions with local SSCs/industry/trade association and other stakeholders for the implementation of NSQF   |
|             | National Skills Qualification Committee (NSQC)                               | Approves the accreditation norms developed by the concerned Sector Skills Councils for training providers in the sector; prescribes guidelines for ensuring that implementing agencies, including training providers, address the needs of disadvantaged groups; responsible for all matters requiring cross-sectoral approach (e.g., credit accumulation and transfer, recognition of non-formal learning, apprenticeship, establishing and maintaining high standards for skill training in each sector)  |
|             | Sector Skills Councils (SSCs)  | Industry-led national partnership organizations for all stakeholders from their respective sectors; determines skills/competency standards and qualifications gets them notified as per NSQF; sets up and standardizes affiliation, accreditation, examination and certification process in accordance with NSQF for their respective sectors; develops the National Occupational Standards and Qualification Packs for job roles in their sectors, and align them to the NSQF, with standards and packs being examined and reviewed by NSQC; provides inputs to the Central and State level implementing agencies in developing the curriculum packages, capacity building of institutions and training providers, and assessment and certification of the skills imparted |
| Philippines | Department of Education (formerly Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports) | Formulates general education objectives and policies and adopts long-range educational plans; promulgate rules and regulations necessary for the administration, supervision and regulation of the educational system.<br>Its regional offices: formulate the regional plan of education based on the national plan taking into account the specific needs and  |

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|  |  | special traditions of the region; implement education laws, policies, plans, programmes, rules and regulations in the regional area; provide education services in the area  |
|  | Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA)         | Develops and oversees matters of TVET: formulates, coordinates, integrates technical education and skills development policies, plans, and programmes (with equal participation of representatives of industry groups, trade associations, employers, workers and government to ensure that needs and recommendations are addressed; improved linkages between industry, labor and government for formulation of any national-level plan); approves trade skills standards and trade tests as established and conducted by private industries; establishes and administers a system of accreditation of public and private institutions; determines and approves funding schemes; plans, sets standards, coordinates, adopts, monitors and evaluates dual training system (DTS), allocates resources to support it; establishes, implements, periodically reviews, and amends the DTS accreditation scheme and/or its attendant operational guidelines to improve DTS implementation; ensures that a Memorandum of Agreement (MOA) between the TVI and partner Establishment is executed and stipulates essential terms and conditions of DTS programmes; ensures that these Rules are properly implemented and applies appropriate sanctions and penalties within its power whenever warranted; evaluates and approves training plans jointly prepared by the TVI and partner Establishment; conducts regular compliance audit of DTS-accredited TVI and Establishments |
|  | Skills Standards and Certification Office                            | Develops and establishes a national system of skills standardization, testing and certification in the country; establishes and implements a system of accrediting private enterprises, workers' associations and guilds and public institutions to serve as skills testing venues   |
|  | Office of Formal Technical Vocational Education and Training         | Provides policies, measures and guidelines for effective and efficient administration of formal TVET programmes; establishes and maintains a system for accrediting, coordinating, integrating, monitoring and evaluating formal TVET programmes vis-a-vis the approved national technical education and skills development plan   |
|  | Office of the Non-Formal Technical-Vocational Education and Training | Provides direction, policies and guidelines for effective implementation of non-formal, community-based TVET; accredits, coordinates, monitors and evaluates non-formal TVET programmes  |
|  | Office of Apprenticeship   | Provides direction, policies and guidelines on the implementation of the Apprenticeship system; accredits, coordinates, monitors and evaluates all apprenticeship schemes and programmes implemented by various institutions and enterprises   |
|  | Regional TESDA offices   | Provide effective supervision, coordination and integration of technical education and skills development programmes, projects and related activities in their respective jurisdiction; develop and recommend TESDA programmes for regional and local-level implementation within the policies set by TESDA; serve as policy recommendatory body on TVET at the local levels   |

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|        | Provincial Offices under TESDA   | Serve as Secretariat to Provincial TESDA Committees; provide technical assistance particularly to local government units for effective supervision, coordination, integration and monitoring of TVET programmes within their localities   |
|        | Technical Education and Skills Development Committees                        | Coordinate and monitor the delivery of all skills development activities by the public and private sectors  |
|        | Unified TVET Programs Registration and Accreditation System (n.d.)           | Regulatory mechanism in which TESDA assures the quality of TVET programmes; ensures compliance of TVET institutions with the minimum requirements prescribed under the promulgated training regulation, including: curricular programmes, faculty and staff qualifications, physical sites and facilities, tools, equipment, supplies and materials and similar requirements prior to the issuance of the government authority to offer or undertake TVET   |
|        | TVET Competency Assessment and Certification System                          | Evaluation of TVET graduates and skilled workers to determine whether they meet the required competence to perform tasks in line with the required standards of the workplace, based on defined competency standard; this mechanism demonstrates whether compliance to standards and competency requirements had been achieved  |
|        | Philippines Qualifications Framework National Coordinating Council (PQF-NCC) | Harmonises and promotes a seamless education and training system; including rationalising the quality assurance mechanisms (especially in the areas of qualifications register, quality assurance, pathways and equivalences, information and guidelines)   |
| Rwanda | Ministry of Education  | Policy formulation, educational planning, coordination and regulation through setting norms and standards for the education sector, monitoring and evaluation at the national level. In relation to TVET specifically: puts in place a legal and regulatory framework for apprenticeship training and attachments; ensures that TVET institutions are appropriately resourced to undertake their functions; monitors pilot apprenticeship programmes; participates in the process of developing legal instrument for a long-term private sector-driven institutional framework and the introduction of the levy-grant system for sustainable financing of workplace learning; leads regulation and certification including the alignment of apprenticeship programmes to the TVET Qualification Framework; participates in the monitoring of workplace learning policy implementation |
|        | Ministry of Public Services and Labour                                       | Puts in place and revises the legal and regulatory framework for workplace learning (internships and apprenticeship training); leads the development of policy and legal instruments for putting in place a private sector-driven institutional framework; participates in reviewing of TVET curriculum; leads the preparation of capacity building programmes to address gaps in implementing the Workplace Learning Policy; participates in the monitoring of the implementation of the Policy  |
|        | Rwanda Polytechnic   | Under the Ministry of Education; implements TVET skills development in the country by offering TVET courses; has responsibility for teaching, TVET curriculum development and research; coordinates all TVET programmes   |
|        | Workforce Development Authority  | Overall supervisory and quality standards body with functions including developing TVET training standards; ensuring compliance   |

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|              |   | with standards by providers of apprenticeship training; policy dissemination; advisory role to all TVET implementers; participates in putting in place legal and regulatory framework for workplace learning (attachment and apprenticeship); participates in monitoring of the Workplace Learning Policy implementation; mobilises resources for activities envisaged in the Policy; leads accreditation, assessment and certification in collaboration with the Private sector  |
|              | Skills Development and Workplace Learning Unit  | Coordinates and oversees workplace learning activities, including leading coordination and development of workplace learning, overseeing the development of a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation framework to track implementation of activities; leading monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the Workplace Learning Policy; leading the coordination of implementation of professional internship programmes in private and public organizations; facilitating the operations of apprenticeship, attachments and internships; participating in putting in place legal and regulatory framework for workplace learning; participating in developing legal instrument for putting in place a private sector-driven institutional framework and the introduction of the levy-grant system for financing of workplace learning |
|              | Sector Skills Councils  | Leads the development of occupational standards for apprenticeship training programmes in the formal and informal sectors; participates in the monitoring and evaluation of the Workplace Learning Policy in their respective sectors; participates in assessment and certification of the graduates of workplace learning schemes  |
|              | Private Sector Federation   | Participates in putting in place legal and regulatory framework for workplace learning; participates and owns the process of developing the legal instrument for putting in place a private sector-driven institutional framework for workplace learning; participates in design and implementation of the levy-grant system for financing of workplace learning; participates in monitoring and evaluation of the Workplace Learning Policy  |
| South Africa | Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET)                                    | Policy and legislative matters supporting the establishment and operations of the Central Application System (CAS); ensures that necessary policy and legislative structures are in place to ensure compliance with the implementation and operating requirements of the CAS. Participation by private institutions will in time be compulsory, and could be enforced through the registration requirements in the applicable Regulations   |
|              | Umalusi, the Council for General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance | Quality council for general and further education and training; performs the external moderation of assessment of all assessment bodies and education institutions  |
|              | South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)   | Art. 5.1: the Authority shall (a) (i) oversee the development of the National Qualifications Framework; and (ii) formulate and publish policies and criteria for aa. the registration of bodies responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications; and bb. the accreditation of bodies responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of such standards or Qualifications; (b) oversee the implementation of the National Qualifications Framework, including  |

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|  |   | <p>i. the registration or accreditation of bodies referred to in paragraph (a) and the assignment of functions to them; ii. the registration of national standards and qualifications;</p> <p>iii. steps to ensure compliance with provisions for accreditation; and</p> <p>iv. steps to ensure that standards and registered qualifications are internationally comparable; d. be responsible for the control of the finances of the Authority.</p> <p>Art. 6.1: The executive officer shall be the accounting officer of the Authority charged with accounting for moneys received, payments made and movable property purchased by the Authority (South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995)</p>   |
|  | Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO) | <p>Advances the objectives of the NQF; oversees the development and implementation of the NQF; advises the Minister on matters of policy concerning occupational standards and qualifications; establishes and maintains occupational standards and qualifications; oversees quality assurance of occupational standards and qualifications and learning in the workplace; designs and develops occupational standards and qualifications and submits them to SAQA for registration on the National Qualifications Framework; ensures the quality of occupational standards and qualifications and learning in and for the workplace; liaises with the National Skills Authority on the suitability and adequacy of occupational standards and qualifications and on the quality of learning in and for the workplace</p>  |
|  | Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA)  | <p>Develops a sector skills plan within the framework of the national skills development strategy; implements its sector skills plan by establishing learning programmes, approving workplace skills plans and annual training reports, allocating grants in the prescribed manner and in accordance with prescribed standards and criteria to employers, education and skills development providers and workers, and monitoring education and skills development provision in the sector; promotes learning programmes by identifying workplaces for practical work experience; supporting the development of learning materials; improving the facilitation of learning; registers agreements for learning programmes; collects the skills development levies, and disburses the levies in its sector; liaises between education and skills development providers and the labour market.</p> <p>Skills Development Act (1998) acknowledges that it has poor governance, inadequate human resources, poor administration and financial management, no proper M&amp;E system</p> |
|  | National Skills Authority                         | <p>Advises the Minister on a national skills development policy, a national skills development strategy, guidelines on the implementation of the national skills development strategy, the strategic framework and criteria for allocation of funds from the National Skills Fund, and any regulations to be made; liaises with SETAs on the national skills development policy, the national skills development strategy, and sector skills plans; reports to the Minister on the progress made in the implementation of the national skills development strategy; conducts investigations on any matter arising out of the application of the Skills Development Act (1998)</p>  |



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|          | National Artisan Moderation Body   | Monitors the performance of accredited artisan trade test centres; moderates artisan trade tests; develops, maintains and applies a national data-bank of instruments for assessment and moderation of artisan trade tests; develops and maintains a national data-base of registered artisan trade assessors and moderators; determines appeals against assessment decisions; recommends the certification of artisans to the QCTO  |
| Tanzania | Ministry of Education, Science and Technology  | Overall provision of education at all levels, including determining education policies and direction   |
|          | Technical and Vocational Education and Training Development Division                   | Ensures quality and effective development of TVET's policies and resource mobilisation to enhance access, quality, and equity; conducts TVET skills audit; promotes high quality teaching and learning; provides inputs in developing, monitoring, evaluating plans and reviewing implementation of TVET policies; monitors and evaluates the implementation of TVET development programmes and projects; facilitates the development of quality and relevant TVET and related skills-sets; prepares and submits periodic reports  |
|          | Technical Education and Training Section and Vocational Education and Training Section | Facilitates operationalisation of the Education and Training Policy and TVET Development Programme; supports the development, monitoring, evaluating and reviewing implementation of education policies on TVET, including financing; facilitates operationalisation of regional and international instruments on TVET; promotes public awareness on TVET opportunities, cost sharing, loan recovery, financing and investment policies, strategies, action plans; prepares and submits progress reports to inform policy; initiates and mobilises resources for TVET; promotes programmes for collaboration between TVET institutions, industry and businesses  |
|          | Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA)                                     | Autonomous government agency under the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; establishes a TVET system to meet the needs of the formal and informal sectors; regulates the provision of TVET (regulating institutions, accreditation, setting standards, curriculum development, auditing for compliance, assessment, certification); ensures the system is based on demand (labour market surveys), cost effective, gradually decentralized to give implementation authority to regions for greater relevance and resource use; promotes access for disadvantaged groups; secures adequate and stable financing (finances and manages VET Fund); raises the quality of TVET; coordinates approval and control of the quality of vocational training  |
|          | National Council for Technical Education (NACTE)                                       | Registers and accredits technical institutions; registers technical teachers and other qualified technicians; assists technical institutions in the transmission of knowledge, principles and training in the field of technical education and training; assists technical institutions in the development of the quality of education they provide and to promote and to maintain approved academic standards; establishes and makes awards in technical education which are consistent in standard and comparable to related awards in Tanzania and internationally; ensures that the quality of education required for the awards is met and maintained throughout the duration of the delivery of the course; assists technical institutions in their development by introducing and developing policies and procedures to help them attain greater autonomy in the delivery |

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|  |   | of courses; advises the government on the planning and development of technical education including on manpower planning, staffing, budgetary and capital provision, the efficiency of the sector and the development of the curriculum; reviews technical education and training policies; advises the Minister on the grant of autonomy to any accredited technical college  |
|  | National Vocational Education and Training Board  | Develops TVET policies and supervises their implementation at national level; sets policies and procedures for the use of TVET Fund, including allocation criteria and budget norms for regional centres and providers, appointment of external auditors for auditing the accounts of fund receivers, approving plans and annual budgets, approving regulations and guidelines for regional boards - syllabi, examinations, registration, certification, etc., approving registration of TVET centres according to standards and regulations |
|  | Regional Vocational Education and Training Board/ Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre | Develops, supervises, and implements TVET policies at regional level, including coordination of TVET activities, supervision/governing of regional centres, guidelines/supervision of budget preparations, evaluation of budget proposals, determining regional priorities, inspecting TVET centres according to regulations, advising on potential improvements   |

### Appendix 3. Vulnerable and disadvantaged groups targeted for TVET

| Target group              | Countries and provisions   |
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| Girls and women           | All the countries have this target group with similar aims to promote gender equality, to ensure equality of opportunities, to empower women, to encourage participation of women in TVET, and to promote their roles in non-traditional skills (i.e. scientific services, technical areas)<br><br>Relevant measures are similar: offering gender-friendly programmes, raising public awareness of the benefits of skills development for women, encouraging employers to employ women graduated from TVET institutions, providing rewards to TVET institutions with higher enrolments of girls  |
| Persons with disabilities | All the countries provide support to this target group with similar aims to ensure equal opportunities and their participation in TVET.<br><br>Similar measures: upgrading institutional facilities to provide access to training, training instructors and managers on how to work with students with disabilities, developing customised curriculum and teaching methods according to their needs, providing access to counselling, increasing investment in TVET, increasing the funding for disabled students receiving TVET, strengthening employment guidance and assistance for the disabled  |
| Youth                     | All the countries have supportive measures to the target group of youth in order to encourage the access and participation of young people, to provide help with their skill development, and hence to improve their employability. It consists of different categories of young people, including working adolescents, youth in poor families, and general young persons<br><br>Supportive measures: providing counselling and guidance to the youth on skilling programmes and opportunities, spreading awareness about skill development and identify local needs for the youth, courses specifically designed to cater for the needs of working adolescents to gain meaningful employment, financial aid |
| School leavers            | <b>Bangladesh, Rwanda, Tanzania</b><br><br>These three countries all mention the target group of school leavers. Bangladesh states that school leavers can be turned into competent manpower by providing evening and short TVET courses. Including school leavers as a group of the youth, Rwanda emphasises on TVET in the fields of technology, engineering and management for the youth. Regarding school leavers as a disadvantaged group, Tanzania increases access to post-basic  |

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|  | learning opportunities through non-formal education and greatly expanded provision of skill training   |
| The elderly  | <b>Bangladesh, South Africa</b><br>Regarding elderly people as potential manpower, Bangladesh advocates providing evening and short courses of vocational or diploma curricula with the use of the facilities of vocational education institutes. By contrast, in order to promote lifelong learning, South Africa promotes a post-school system to provide a range of accessible options for older peoples and encourage post-school institutions to accept students who are academically less prepared and provide them with targeted support  |
| Less developed areas/geographically disadvantaged and marginalised | <b>Bangladesh, China, India and Rwanda</b><br>The above four countries cover the remote and hard-to-reach area, but their support measures vary. To increase participation of these disadvantaged groups, the Bangladesh government sets an overall target of enrolments for people from the less developed, rural and remote areas. China encourages to adopt measures to develop vocational education in rural areas and remote border areas. India advocates special steps to cater to the needs of rural and tribal student and taking care of the skilling needs of the socially and geographically disadvantaged and marginalised groups. Rwanda calls for particular attention to ensuring coverage in rural and hard-to-reach areas  |
| Ethnic/racial minorities/ Indigenous people/refugees               | All the countries have the target group of vulnerable and marginalised groups, though with different terms and measure to support the target group. Bangladesh advocates for special measures for the development of education of the backward classes of the country including the street-children. China provides various forms of financial aids to help students from poor families and students with special economic difficulties and calls for supporting the development of vocational education in ethnic minorities and the poor households. The Philippines calls for enhancing the capabilities of the vulnerable and the marginalised sectors in order to enable them to access and benefit from employment and development opportunities. It offers beneficiaries to indigent families and those under the next lower poverty level. India calls for equalisation of the scheduled castes with the non-scheduled-castes population. South Africa encourages equal opportunities and helping all South Africans to realise their full potential, especially black people, women and people with disabilities. Tanzania emphasises the focus on vulnerable groups in enhancing capabilities for improved quality of life, including refugees and the poorest |
| Minor offenders  | China was the only country that has a target group of minor offenders, stakeholders expected to create conditions for them to receive education  |

#### Appendix 4. Key actors involved in TVET

| Country    | Industry  | Commercial providers  | Non-profit providers (NGOs/Foundation)   | Donors/Development partners   |
|------------|---|---|--|---|
| Bangladesh | Sets skills standards and provides skills training; establishes Industry Skills Councils to define skill needs for each sector and the economy, gathers information on job specifications, workplace operations, changes in technologies; provides hands-on training through a work placement | Divided into (1) publicly subsidised institutions that receive partial salary support for staff and teachers; need to be approved by the Technical Education Board (BTEB) and follow its curriculum, and (2) commercial/for profit institutions that self-finance, mostly from charging substantial student fees; many are affiliated | NGOs offer a variety of courses to poor and underprivileged people, and mostly focus on non-formal TVET to provide skilled workforce to industry; no sufficient data on the work of NGOs | Reliance on funding from donors for NGOs to operate; play a critical role as they have been supporting important reforms in the sector to improve access, inclusiveness, relevance, and quality of TVET; donor support includes financial and technical assistance from the Euro- |

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|             | scheme in cooperation with TVET institutions   | with BTEB or other government agencies; no sufficient data on the work of commercial providers   |  | pean Union, Asia Development Bank, the World Bank  |
| China       | Key provider of TVET (about 60 percent are private): provides placements for internships and other types of workplace learning; encouraged to invest in TVET through full ownership, shareholding, and joint ventures with TVET providers and to participate in education quality assessment; some are reluctant to cooperate with TVET institutions     | Not expected to operate for the purpose of making profit but for-profit ventures are allowed; encouraged to support industry and enterprises to ensure placements and to meet the needs of industry and nation's development | State encourages NGOs to run vocational institutions under the general government's guidance to meet the needs of diverse groups   | N/A  |
| India       | Involvement of industry is recent, hence gaps between sectoral needs and availability and competency of the workforce; expected to co-design curricula and occupational standards, provide apprenticeship opportunities, and participate in assessment; industry clusters expected to set up training institutes in their regions to meet skilling needs | Important source of supply of skilled workforce; encouraged to work with industry to improve placement, apprenticeships, and training opportunities; supported by the government to do so in PPP mode                        | NGOs have a role to run centres that mobilise and impart skills for local employment and livelihoods to marginalised groups; they receive mentorship and other state support to scale and create sustainable models for skill development and to design innovative practices | TVET of vulnerable groups is supported by donors such as GSRD Foundation while existing institutions are upgraded with support of the World Bank |
| Philippines | Expected to partner with them to offer apprenticeships and encouraged to advise the state on TVET development; inclusive businesses help communities directly with funding, technical assistance, training, organizational building and marketing  | Dominate the market in providing TVET  | Foundations work with businesses/social enterprises and act as social entrepreneurs designing and developing community development programmes; community organizations provide skills training for marginalised groups   | Support TVET development (International Labour Organization, Asia Development Bank, OPEC, the World Bank), donors determine the use of funds     |

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| Rwanda       | Valuable for skill development and as a means to obtain additional funds and technical advice; expected to participate in quality assurance, become integral part for policy directions and decision-making regarding quality; its participation is limited due to small scale and lack of infrastructure and lack of industry's enthusiasm in offering on-the-job training | Dominate the market and are expected to increase collaboration with industry to expand access to work-based placements   | NGOs and religious organizations are involved in TVET as development partners and/or private providers   | Partnered with major donors to develop TVET (African Development Bank, the World Bank, USAID, UN agencies, faith-based and charitable organizations) |
| South Africa | Workplace training providers; needs to build a relationship with TVET colleges; expected to play significant role in curriculum development, providing opportunities for practical training, and teaching in TVET colleges  | Important partners in TVET as they provide occupational learning, mostly focusing on short courses, but suffer from bad reputation due to the low rate of employment, lack of adequate capacity, efficiency, and resources | Documents mention the involvement of NGOs in TVET but do not provide details   | N/A  |
| Tanzania     | Key actor for its sector expertise but little collaboration between industry, state, and private providers; documents call to strengthen to improve governance, quality of inputs, processes, assessments, inspections, and to attract greater investment in TVET   | Call for more government-approved and accredited private institutions  | Involvement of civil society, NGOs, and faith-based organizations, but no details on the existing state of their involvement or what is expected of them | Works closely with development partners such as UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank, SIDA, USAID, and others  |

#### Appendix 5. TVET programmes

| Country    | Modern apprenticeship   | Traditional apprenticeship   | Country-specific programmes |
|------------|---|--|-----------------------------|
| Bangladesh | Known as enterprise-based training operated by enterprises and corporations | Focus on training for the informal sector undertaken by a master craftsperson who trains their assistants; based on an informal agreement, and that is, as of now, the | N/A                         |

|             |   | principal means for creating most of the skills  |   |
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| China       | Talent training model that combines work and learning and depends on school-enterprise cooperation. In 2019, 366 apprenticeship pilot enterprises, institutions, industries and associations were selected  | N/A  | Internships: arranged or approved by TVET provider and are encouraged by the state through preferential policies for enterprises and on on-the-job training conducted by employers or training institutions to improve technical skills of their workers (enterprises are obliged to provide vocational education in a planned way for their employees and shall bear the expenses)                                       |
| India       | Presently insignificant, the state works to make them an integral part of skills training and development, particularly through PPP   | Major scheme in vocational education and training and includes craftsman training scheme   | Internships with local industry, businesses, and crafts persons   |
| Philippines | Relies on cooperation between employers, workers, government and non-government agencies, and involves a contract between an apprentice and approved and registered employer. It is noted that standards for such training need to be enhanced                              | N/A  | Dual training system: cooperation between duly accredited TVET schools and agricultural, industrial, and business establishments. Within the system, learning alternates between TVET school (40%) and industry (60%). Learnerships: include short (up to three months) and practical on-the-job training for approved occupations  |
| Rwanda      | Number of apprenticeships is significantly low; no system to facilitate and implement the modern apprenticeship system in the formal sector and to systematically recognise competences acquired, although development of a sustainable and recognised system is a priority | Accessible traditional apprenticeship programme for poor young people is still in place in the informal sector as donors have increased access to it | Internships: programmes run by companies and training providers are unrecorded, regulated by the Workplace Learning Policy. Internships used to be implemented with donor support but stopped when funding ended. Mentions of industrial attachments, on-the-job training, and mentorship schemes, but there are no details in any of the documents, except for one document mentioning that attachments need improvement |

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| South Africa | Referred to as learnership in respect of a listed trade; include a trade-test administered by an accredited centre to obtain a qualification, based on a learnership agreement between a learner employer and TVET provider, and lead to recognised occupational qualifications | N/A | N/A   |
| Tanzania     | Involve learning an occupation under approved standards; requires improvement in collaboration with industry as there are not enough opportunities due to unwillingness of companies to take apprentices on voluntary basis   | N/A | On-the-job/in-service training although opportunities are rare, and teachers expected to pay for their participation in the qualification courses without financial support from school |

#### Appendix 6. Provisions for financing and financial support

| Country    | Key provisions  | Document   |
|------------|---|--|
| Bangladesh | Private providers encouraged through financial support and necessary resources/materials; measures against counterfeit institutions abusing government funds; stipends for students who discontinued school after secondary education; finances to be audited annually  | National Education Policy (2010)   |
|            | The government supports student micro-credit schemes, actively support private sector and individuals to establish training institutions (Art. 15.2); funding framework funds training of disadvantaged groups, incentivize providers to improve quality, strengthen partnerships (Art. 19.2); outcomes-based funding model with clear performance targets (Art. 19.9)  | National Skill Development Policy (2011)                                 |
| China      | Preferential treatment to attract non-state funds to facilitate the development of private institutions; fund to commend private institutions for outstanding contribution to TVET  | Action Scheme for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century (1998) |
|            | Local governments may set aside special sums to support TVET (Art. 30), including rural TVET (Art. 31); students with financial difficulties and with disabilities to have partial or full tuition waiver; local governments formulate measures for tuition fee collection; stakeholders encouraged to set up scholarships and loans for students based on merit and/or financial need (Art. 32); financial institutions encouraged to support TVET development by offering loans (Art. 34) | Vocational Education Law (1996)  |
|            | Private schools responsible to raise funding, governments at all levels provide appropriate support   | Education Law (1995)   |
|            | Encourages employee stock ownership in private TVET colleges (e.g., mixed ownership of private TVET colleges); subsidy policy for poor students (Art. 17); support for industries and enterprises in developing TVET (Art. 46)  | Modern Vocational Education System Construction Plan (2014-2020) (2014)  |

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|             | Outstanding private institutions to be rewarded (Art. 6); fees collected by private TVET to be used to improve teaching and learning (Art. 37); special government funds, financial aid for financing and support of private schools, preferential taxation policies (Art. 44-46), allowed to get donations in accordance with relevant laws (Art. 47), financial institutions encouraged to provide loans to private institutions (Art. 48); preferential treatment on the use of land for construction/expansion of private schools (Art. 50)  | Law on the Promotion of Non-public Schools (2002)  |
|             | Educational administrative departments to establish financial, accounting, asset management systems for private institutions according to law, prevention mechanisms to prevent misappropriation of funds and embezzlement of assets (Art. 44)   | National Plan for Medium- and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020)         |
|             | Need for standardized and strengthened Fund to improve quality of TVET (incl. facilities) and increase student grants; funds to be used in accordance with regulations, responsibility mechanisms to be established, improvement plan funds not to be used to balance budgets, repay debts, pay interests, Ministry of Finance’s local bureaus to supervise the funds (Art. 17)  | Fund Management Measures of Modern Vocational Education Quality Improvement Programme (2015) |
|             | Governments at all levels to establish financial investment system to support training costs and quality, formulate and implement per-student funding standards for vocational colleges; funds to be tilted toward TVET;   | National Vocational Education Reform Implementation Plan (2019)                              |
|             | TVET students are excluded from national tuition-free and bursary policy (Art. 5); extremely poor and students with disabilities receive special hardship assistance for TVET (Art. 6); approval of funding applications to be standardized (Art. 7)   | Notice of Student Financial Aid for Technical Colleges (2020)                                |
| India       | Government to support the use of infrastructure by private domain through equity, grant, loan support, to offer preferential empanelment and funding to training providers for sectors and geographies with inadequate capacity, to encourage entrepreneurs to provide funding support to TVET (Art. 4.2.2); to incentivize training providers (Art. 4.2.7); scholarships, rewards, Skill Vouchers for funding of training costs at accredited institutions (Art. 4.7.5); industry to earmark at least 2% of its payroll for skill development initiatives and companies – at least 25% of Corporate Social Responsibility funds (channelised through, e.g., National Skill Development Fund (NSDF)) (Art. 6.13); Credit Guarantee Fund for skill development set up to support loans for skilling (Art. 6.16) | National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship (2015)                           |
|             | Centrally sponsored scheme to make available nonrecurring and annual recurring financial assistance to private un-aided and NGO-led schools to set up, operate TVET programmes; 25% of seats in private vocational schools to be government funded for socio-economically weaker groups; qualified, registered NGOs to receive financial assistance for vocational education   | Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education (2011)                                       |
|             | Private providers to be encouraged to offer large numbers of scholarships to students  | National Education Policy (2020)   |
| Philippines | Private schools to be funded from their capital investment or equity contributions, tuition fees, other school charges, loans,   | Education Act (1982)   |



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|              | grants, subsidies, income from other sources (Art. 40); government financial institutions may aid private institutions that meet their requirements/standards through grants, scholarships, loans (Art. 41); use of charges collected by private institutions required to be authorised subject to regulations, rules (Art. 42); recognised private institutions allowed to receive grants, donations, gifts, to engage in enterprises to generate income to finance their operations (Art. 43) |   |
|              | Accredited institutions to receive grants for personnel, equipment, consumables, infrastructure, other resources to participate in dual training system and implement the Act (Art. 1)  | Dual Training System Act, 1994)   |
|              | Generous government financial support: TESDA provides various scholarships and offers incentives to TVET institutions   | National Technical Education and Skills Development Plan (2018)               |
|              | TESDA to adopt a system of allocation and funding of scholarship grants to be responsive to different regions; institutions receiving financial assistance to formulate annual technical and skills development plans in line with national plan, budget to be subject to review and endorsement by TESDA (Art. 21); TESDA to develop and administer incentive schemes for private sector to provide high quality TVET (Art. 27), including through TESDA Development Fund (Art. 31)            | Technical Educational and Skills Development Act (1994)                       |
|              | Tertiary education subsidy established to support the cost of TVET (e.g., tuition/school fees, allowances for books/supplies/transportation, room and board allowance, allowance for disability) (Art. 7); subsidy and loan programme for studying in private TVET institutions registered under TESDA (Art. 8); need to strengthen student financial assistance system   | Universal Access to Quality Tertiary Education Act (2017)                     |
|              | To institute a unified, improved, expanded scholarship programme (Art. 2.6) including for poor and marginalised students (Art. 2.6); development of a self-sustaining loan programme with short- and long-term assistance (Art. 2.8)  | Unified Student Financial Assistance System for Tertiary Education Act (2015) |
| Rwanda       | Considers what financing system is better: one stakeholder financing or co-financing/cost-sharing; calls to engage private sector to improve financial security of TVET   | TVET Policy (2015)  |
|              | Calls to provide support/incentives to private TVET to cover costs related to industrial attachments, to study the feasibility of introducing the levy-grant system   | Workplace Learning Policy 2015)   |
|              | Gaps in financing TVET; limited budget; need to review TVET funding model   | Rwanda Polytechnic Strategic Plan (2019)                                      |
|              | Right of students to loans and bursaries (Art. 3) managed by government-approved financial institution (Art. 4), including to study at private institutions (Art. 7)  | Law Governing Student Loans and Bursaries (2015)                              |
| South Africa | Provisions for financing skills development by means of levy-financing scheme and National Skills Fund: a. any registered skills programme may apply for a grant or subsidy (Art. 20.2), granted only when complied with SETA and other relevant national requirements (Art. 20.3); b. National Skills Fund may fund only   | Skills Development Act (1998)   |

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|          | skills development projects identified as national priorities (Art. 28.1)  |  |
|          | Provisions for the imposition of skills development levy on employers: every employer pays skills development levy (Art. 3.1) that then go to SETA and National Skills Fund (Art. 8.2)   | Skills Development Levies Act (1999)             |
|          | Subsidies to registered private centres based on national norms/standards and when they comply with conditions (Art. 29)   | Adult Education and Training Act (2000)          |
|          | Institutions keep records of income, expenditure, assets, liabilities, submit financial/income/expenditure statements/balance sheets, in accordance with accepted principles and procedures (Art. 34.1); education institutions may receive financial support and equipment from donors (Art. 40.1)                                  | Continuing Education and Training Act (2006)     |
|          | Need to provide funding certainty to colleges to attract/retain staff, to provide qualified students with access to loans and bursaries to cover all costs, to extend financial aid to qualifying students in registered private colleges  | National Development Plan 2030 (2013)            |
|          | Funding of skills development projects identified as national priorities   | National Skills Development Strategy (2015-2020) |
| Tanzania | Insufficient financial resources for skills development, need to allocate revenue from skills development levy to skills development   | FYDP II (2016/17-2020/21)                        |
|          | Provision of grants, scholarships to learners in programmes in core priority areas; calls for timely and sufficient disbursement of allocated budgets, to develop innovative financing modalities, to improve financial management information system  | ESDP (2016/17-2020/21)                           |
|          | The Fund to be used to improve the quality, access, and equality of education at all levels (Art. 4.3)   | Education Fund Act (2001)                        |
|          | National budget for education to allocate funds for loans and grants for students (Art. 3.6); need to strengthen the financing of education and training, including loans and grants (Art. 3.6.1), to establish a system of fees and contributions in private institutions   | Education and Training Policy (2014)             |
|          | Skills development levy to be paid by employers to the Vocational Education and Training Fund; the Fund to be supported through national and international grants and donations  | Vocational Education and Training Act (1994)     |
|          | Skills Development Fund for accredited private TVET to support strengthening of skills of low (vocational) and medium skilled (technical) workers; for private employer-based training to support upgrading of skills (i.e., apprenticeships, internships, other work-based placements) (for NGOs, companies, industry associations) | National Skills Development Strategy 2016-2027   |
|          | No fees or contributions to be charged, levied, or collected as a condition of admission into or attendance at private schools except when approved; Minister may make regulations to prescribe conditions for grants-in-aid (amount, time, method) and grant of scholarships (Art. 60)  | National Education Act (1978)                    |

## Appendix 7. Provisions for implementation

| Country     | Key provisions  | Document  |
|-------------|---|---|
| Bangladesh  | Implementation of National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (NTVQF) includes controls on the use of qualification titles to maintain integrity of the new system (Art. 15.4); action plan to be developed by National Skills Development Council (NSDC) with timebound targets and performance measures for implementation of the Policy (Art. 20.16)  | National Skills Development Policy (2011)   |
|             | Along with the NSDC structures for implementation, Gender Working Group to be established to oversee implementation of the Strategy in TVET (Art. 7.5)  | National Strategy for Promotion of Gender Equality (2012)                                   |
| China       | Calls to establish the implementation mechanism (i.e., strengthen organizational leadership, improve support policies, create a favourable environment, strengthen monitoring and evaluation, encourage all sectors of society to supervise implementation)   | Modern Vocational Education System Construction Plan (2014)                                 |
|             | Measures to supervise whether provincial governments fulfil their responsibilities of developing secondary vocational education   | Measures for the Supervision and Evaluation of Secondary Vocational Education (2011)        |
|             | Regulations for implementation of vocational qualifications certification system  | Regulations for the Certification of Vocational Qualifications (1994)                       |
|             | Implementation of the Plan is the duty of party committees and governments at all levels; all regions and departments to outline, clarify their tasks and responsibilities, propose implementation plans (organized in stages and steps), formulate practical and operational supporting documents; to conduct monitoring, evaluation, inspections on the implementation of the Plan; to create a positive social environment and good public opinion to support implementation | National Plan for Medium- and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020) (2010) |
| India       | National Skills Qualification Committee to implement NSQF   | National Skills Qualification Framework (2013)  |
|             | Policy Implementation Unit to be responsible for policy implementation, impact assessment by a third party of policy, again after five years based on learnings from implementation   | National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship (2015)                          |
|             | Subject-wise implementation committees to be set up at central and state levels to develop detailed implementation plans for the Policy, with yearly reviews of implementation progress by designated teams (Art. 27.3)   | National Education Policy (2020)  |
| Philippines | TESDA to issue operational guidelines for effective implementation of the Act and its implementing Rules; accredited institutions to receive financial support to implement the Act   | Dual Training System Act (1994)   |
|             | TESDA in charge of implementation of apprenticeship programme; review of implementation four years after the Act is in effect; Apprenticeship Committees at enterprises to be established to monitor programme implementation (Art. 8);   | Apprenticeship Training System Act (2017)   |

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|              | TESDA to issue rules and regulations for effective implementation of the Act   | Technical Educational and Skills Development Act (1994)    |
|              | Joint Congressional Oversight Committee created to oversee, monitor, evaluate the implementation of the Act; to promulgate rules and regulations for effective implementation  | Universal Access to Quality tertiary Education Act (2017)  |
|              | Rules and regulations for implementation to be issued within ninety days   | Philippine Qualifications Framework (2017)                 |
| Rwanda       | Calls to put in place solid governance and implementation structure to enable effective implementation arrangements  | Workplace Learning Policy (2015)                           |
|              | To implement a framework for effective implementation of TVET system by 2024   | Rwanda Polytechnic Strategic Plan (2019)                   |
| South Africa | Procedures to be outlined to implement quality management, to monitor implementation   | Assessment Quality Partner Quality Assurance Policy (2018) |
|              | Authority to oversee the implementation of National Qualifications Framework (e.g., registration of national standards and qualifications, compliance with provisions of accreditation) (Art. 5.1; 13.1)   | South African Qualifications Authority Act                 |
| Tanzania     | Calls to define mandates, roles, responsibilities of central, regional, local implementation structures, to reformulate coordination/partnership management to strengthen implementation, to develop sector-wide communications strategy to share sufficient, accurate, timely information to implement reforms  | ESDP (2016/17-2020/21)                                     |
|              | To set up procedures to appoint supervisors for implementation for the Policy at all levels (Art. 3.5.2); responsibilities of each sector to be clearly defined for implementation (Art. 4.1); national level – Ministry of Education and Vocational Training has an institutional structure for implementation (Art. 5.2); regional level – Regional Education Officer (Art. 5.3); county level – Ward Education Officer (Art. 5.5); school and college level – principals of TVET schools, internal structures for approval and control at this level (Art. 5.6) | Education and Training Policy (2014)                       |

#### Appendix 8. Provisions for compliance

| Country    | Key provisions   | Document  |
|------------|--|---|
| Bangladesh | Actions to be taken against private training organizations that inappropriately use the NTVQF qualification titles (Art 5.12)  | National Skill Development Policy (2011)  |
|            | TVET providers to comply with National Skills Quality Assurance System, seek registration and accreditation through BTEB; auditing of providers to ensure compliance against quality standards | Registration of Training Organizations and Accreditation of Learning and Assessment Programmes (2012) |
| China      | Institutions that violate provisions of this Law to be penalised   | Vocational Education Law (1996)   |
|            | State to adopt educational inspection, assessment system (Art. 25)   | Education Law (1995)  |

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|             | Fund-using institutions that violate laws and regulations when utilising funds to be held accountable in accordance with relevant regulations (Art. 19)  | Fund Management Measures of Modern Vocational Education Quality Improvement Programme (2019) |
|             | Private schools that violate relevant laws in conducting educational activities to be penalised in accordance with relevant provisions (Art. 61); outlines violations that lead to revocation of licence (e.g., forging/renting/lending its license, falsification of information, deception) (Art. 62)  | Promotion of Non-public Schools (2002)   |
|             | Schools to cease their operations if fail to meet relevant regulations and receive authorisation (Art. 64)   | Law on the Promotion of Non-public Schools (2002)  |
|             | Local governments to set up standardized supervision and evaluation systems based on regional needs  | Measures for the Supervision and Evaluation of Secondary Vocational Education (2011)         |
| India       | Policy Implementation Unit to take measures in case of non-compliance with regulations (Art. 14)   | National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship (2015)                           |
|             | ITIs to comply with affiliation norms, statutes, provisions, orders, notifications; in case of violation, appropriate action to be initiated (Art. 1.5); debaring when it is violate affiliation norms or malpractice (e.g., forged documents, demobilised equipment, relocation without approval) (Art. 4.1.5); compliance with safety regulations (Art. 4.2.2) | Affiliation Norms for ITIs (2018)  |
|             | Schools to be inspected every year, evaluation studies and surveys to be conducted regularly at district, school levels with evaluation criteria evolved at central and state levels (Art. 4.5.2)  | Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education (2011)                                       |
| Philippines | Operation without authorisation/in violation of terms of recognition is punishable (Art. 28); administrative sanctions for mismanagement, inefficiency of personnel, fraud/deceit in application for permit/recognition, failure to comply with rules and regulations, unauthorised operation of school/course (Art. 69)   | Education Act (1982)   |
|             | TESDA regional and provincial offices do regular compliance audit of TVET institutions; audit needs to be intensified, fortified   | National Technical Education and Skills Development Plan (2018)                              |
|             | To be accredited, programmes need to comply with TESDA registration requirements with annual review of compliance (Rule VIII); industrial coordinators provisions in agreements are complied with (Rule X); when provisions are violated, accreditation to be revoked (Rule XVI)   | Dual Training System Act (1994)  |
|             | TESDA to assess, evaluate training programmes to ensure efficiency, effectiveness (Art. 25)  | Technical Educational and Skills Development Act (1994)                                      |
|             | TESDA to conduct regular compliance audit of registered apprenticeship programmes: closure of unregistered apprenticeships; administrative, criminal, civil liabilities for fraud/deceit in application for opening of programme and failure to comply with rules and regulations (Art. 25)  | Apprenticeship Training System Act (2017)  |

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| Rwanda       | Institutions to comply with standards of infrastructure; providers to be monitored for compliance with standards  | Education Sector Strategic Plan (2018/19-2023/24)  |
| South Africa | Failure to comply with provisions on displaying certificate of registration and registration number to result in liability to a fine (Art 48.4)   | Continuing Education and Training Act (2006)   |
|              | Providers monitored to ensure standards are adhered to (Art. 5); zero tolerance to fraudulent, corrupt practices (Art. 11.3); acts of dishonesty by providers to result in learner achievement being nullified (Art. 11.4); complaints about fraudulent certificates to be investigated (Art. 12); certification process to be monitored (Art. 13)  | Policy for the Certification of Learner Achievements for Trades and Occupational Qualifications Sub-Framework (2019) |
|              | Submitting false/forged documents, obtaining documents by fraud, furnishing false information constitute an offence (Art. 33), may result in a fine, imprisonment (Art. 34)   | Skills Development Act (1998)  |
|              | Private institutions to be monitored to ensure compliance with the policy; failure to comply after notification to lead to withdrawal of accreditation (Art. 25)  | General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act (2001)  |
|              | Qualifications declared fraudulent by court of law to be referred to relevant professional body, record in the register (Art. 13)   | National Qualifications Framework Act (2008)   |
| Tanzania     | Private sector to comply with laws, regulations, procedures, guidelines when implementing the Policy (Art. 4.1)   | Education and Training Policy (2014)   |
|              | Schools to be inspected to ensure compliance with the Act, report to be prepared (Art. 41); inspectors to enter premises when noncompliance is suspected, request and remove for further examination any relevant information (Art. 42); establishing school without approval/registration and/or charging fees without approval is an offence liable to a fine and/or imprisonment (Art. 59) | National Education Act (1978)  |
|              | Granted certificate to be cancelled where provider fails to observe imposed conditions (Art. 20); operating without registration constitutes an offence, liable to a fine (Art. 22)   | National Council for Technical Education (Registration of Technical Institutions) Regulations (2001)                 |
|              | Contriving provisions of the Regulations is an offence liable to a fine, award conferred to the institution to cease to be recognised (Art. 42)   | National Council for Technical Education (Accreditation and Recognition) Regulations (2001)                          |

#### Appendix 9. Provisions for accountability

| Country    | Key provisions   | Document  |
|------------|--|---|
| Bangladesh | All institutions to be registered with appropriate authority, fulfil prerequisites (e.g., administrative/infrastructural structure, fees/salaries, number of students/teachers, financing, curriculum)   | National Education Policy (2010)                  |
| China      | Protection of the rights and interests of learners of private schools (Art. 5, 32); private schools need to meet the requirements of relevant laws and regulations, conform to the same standards as government-run schools (Art. 10); establishment | Law on the Promotion of Non-public Schools (2002) |

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|       | of private schools is subject to examination and approval by the department of labour and social security (Art. 11); upon approval, private institutions receive a licence to operate (Art. 17) and issue certificates (Art. 25); private schools to form decision-making bodies composed of sponsors, representatives, with at least five years of education/teaching experience (Art. 19, 20)   |  |
|       | Schools to safeguard rights and interests of learners, charge fees according to state prescriptions, to obey the law and regulations, practice state standards, guarantee quality (Art. 30)   | Education Law (1995)   |
|       | Private institutions should abide by the law, should not be profit-seeking; level of education and management should be constantly improved through relevant regulations, incl. stricter requirements for school establishment, perfecting management system, strict financial auditing (Art. 40)   | Action Scheme for Invigorating Education towards the 21st Century (1998)             |
|       | Teachers to possess approved teaching qualifications (Art. 28); teachers wages, welfare benefits, social insurance to be guaranteed (Art. 30); have the same rights as teachers in public schools (Art. 31); education departments to supervise, guide private schools regarding teaching, teacher training, education matters (Art. 39, 40); public bodies to assess education quality of private schools, announce results to the public (Art. 40); learners to petition relevant departments when their rights are infringed upon by private providers, petition to be handled without delay (Art. 42); unauthorised private schools to be ordered to close, compensation paid (Art. 64) | Law on the Promotion of Non-public Schools (2002)                                    |
|       | Providers to be evaluated on infrastructure/equipment, teacher-student ratio, teacher qualifications, satisfaction rate, operating conditions, etc.   | Measures for the Supervision and Evaluation of Secondary Vocational Education (2011) |
|       | Providers to have organizational structure, rules, regulations, qualified teachers/staff, premises/facilities/equipment in accordance with standards, funds (Art. 24)   | Vocational Education Law (1996)  |
|       | Private education to be managed according to laws, coordination, planning, and management of private institutions to be strengthened, private schools to establish/improve their decision-making mechanisms (Art. 41) and supervisory systems including control over principals' exercise of powers and participation of teachers/staff in management, supervision; private education to be managed according to law; educational administrative departments to strengthen their coordination, planning, management, supervision, evaluation of private education, regulate their registration (Art. 44)  | National Plan for Medium- and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020) |
| India | Officials to verify infrastructure at TVET institutions/enterprises, monitor progress of training as per guidelines; ITIs to sign MOU with industry for training, familiarise trainees with expectations, requirements, receive their written acknowledgement, monitor their progress (Art. 12.1)   | Guidelines for Dual System of Training (2016)  |

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|             | Officials to monitor and evaluate performance of ITIs (Art. 1.3); despite de-affiliation/closure, all trainees to complete training (Art. 3.6.1)  | Affiliation Norms for ITIs (2018)                                  |
|             | Registration, accreditation of providers to be done through a mechanism determined by concerned Ministries in consultation with industry; assessment, certification to be done by respective government agencies and private sector in accordance with NSQF; ensure that providers have capacity to deliver training that meets quality requirements (Art. 4.3.2)   | National Skills Qualification Framework (2013)                     |
|             | Consolidated guidelines for accreditation of providers based on training capabilities, infrastructure, trainers, ties with industry to help students make informed choices (Art. 4.3.6)   | National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship (2015) |
| Philippines | Protection of citizen's rights to quality education at all levels (Art. 1)  | Constitution (1987)  |
|             | Right of students to receive quality education, be issued official certificates/diplomas/transcripts (Art. 9); school administrators to be accountable for efficient, effective school administration/management, maintain adequate records (Art. 17); schools to be established in accordance with law (Art. 25); rules, regulations, conditions for recognition prescribed by the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sports (Art. 27); recognised schools to issue certificates/diplomas (Art. 28) | Education Act (1982)   |
|             | Providers to undergo registration process, checks for compliance with necessary requirements  | National Technical Education and Skills Development Plan (2018)    |
|             | TESDA to administer training programmes to develop providers' varied capacities (Art. 23)   | Technical Educational and Skills Development Act (1994)            |
|             | Accredited providers to sign agreements with trainee/parents/guardians stipulating conditions, duties, responsibilities, rights, privileges in training; trainees to undergo competency/performance assessment upon completion, receive certificate; industry and providers to have notarised agreement with training plan, objectives of training, competencies to acquire, training hours, allowances, rights and obligations, insurance, etc. (Rule XIV)   | Dual Training System Act (1994)                                    |
|             | Apprenticeships, including systematic training plan, to be approved, registered with TESDA (Art. 10); providers to ensure no violation, impairment, abuse of rights occurs (Art. 7), apprentices to be protected from physical, moral danger (Art. 10); signed contracts between apprentices and enterprises in accordance with TESDA rules (Art. 13, 14)   | Apprenticeship Training System Act (2017)                          |
| Rwanda      | Minimum eligibility criteria for companies employing apprentices to be stipulated (scope of work, facilities, qualifications of supervisors), capacity development for companies by authority in charge of apprenticeships; apprenticeship legislation to be devised to regulate contractual relationships between partners (e.g., duration, finances, roles, responsibilities)   | Workplace Learning Policy (2015)                                   |



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|              | To develop, approve student welfare and academic support guidelines by 2024  | Rwanda Polytechnic Strategic Plan (2019)   |
| South Africa | Private institutions should be registered with the state, maintain standards not inferior to public institutions (Art. 29.3)   | Constitution (1996)  |
|              | National Skills Authority can enter, question, inspect (Art. 5.2); learners, employers, and accredited TVET providers enter a learnership agreement prepared in a prescribed form and registered with SETA (Art. 17)   | Skills Development Act (1998)  |
|              | College councils determines, provides student support in consultation with student representative council (Art. 5.2); only registered private colleges can provide further education and training (Art. 28); registration requires proving financial capability to satisfy obligations to students, ability to maintain acceptable standards, compliance with requirements (Art. 30); ensure annual audit in accordance with standards (Art. 34.2); must provide all required information for inspection by any person to protect their rights (Art. 45.1) and by government departments (Art. 45.2); anyone who contravenes provisions on registration of private colleges to be liable to a fine and/or imprisonment (Art. 48.3); offering a registered training qualification that is not registered to be treated as fraud (Art. 48.5) | Continuing Education and Training Act (2006)   |
|              | Private providers to be registered when standards are met and can be maintained, registration regulations are complied with (Art. 26); no withdrawal of private centre's registration is valid unless certain conditions are met, private centre can appeal against withdrawal of the registration (Art. 28); information to be made available to any person to protect their rights, and to education departments for quality control (Art. 35)   | Adult Education and Training Act (2000)  |
|              | Open, equitable, transparent, simple, cost-effective, efficient processes, determines potential for quality, continuous improvement, best practice, conducted in a fair manner with fair interpretation of evidence  | Assessment Quality Partner Quality Assurance Policy (2018)   |
|              | Providers to be registered by law and accredited to provide education, training towards qualifications, ensure qualifications comply with regulations (Art. 3.3, 13)   | National Qualifications Framework Act (2008)   |
| Tanzania     | Providers to register for craft-level and technician-level courses; qualifications to be registered after meeting quality requirements with Tanzania Qualifications Framework  | National Qualification Framework (2010)  |
|              | Private schools to be registered (Art. 24); teachers allowed to teach when they are certified, licenced or registered (Art. 44), professional misconduct, incompetence, conviction of offence are grounds for cancelation of registration (Art. 48)  | National Education Act (1978)  |
|              | Providers to be registered with authorities (Art. 3), physical verification/inspection of providers to ensure requirements for registration are met (e.g., infrastructure, equipment, information resources, support services, teaching staff qualifications, funding, curricular, assessment/examination regulations) (Art. 12); accreditation to be applied for within five years after registration (Art. 15)   | National Council for Technical Education (Registration of Technical Institutions) Regulations (2001) |

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|  | Providers to be accredited, their departments recognised (Art. 3), with evidence shown they meet eligibility criteria (Art. 7) and standards (Art. 8); evaluation team composed of educators experienced in leadership, academic staff, staff with expertise in planning, research, evaluation, etc. (Art. 9); full accreditation for five years (Art. 17); right to appeal, its procedure (Art. 24-28); providers to ensure clear admission criteria and procedures are publicised (Art. 35); providers may appeal authorities' decisions regarding registration, recognition (Art. 41) | National Council for Technical Education (Accreditation and Recognition) Regulations (2001)           |
|  | Providers to follow national system of certification of awards (Art. 3), each level of qualifications framework to have competence descriptors (Art. 9)  | National Council for Technical Education (National Technical Awards) Regulations (2005)               |
|  | Providers required to follow requirements to offer degree programmes (Art. 3), including full accreditation, registration, quality control and assurance system, validated curriculum, examination administration system compliant with requirements, adequate human, physical, financial resources (and strategic plan to sustain them), proven ability to design/develop/monitor/evaluate/review training programmes, evaluation every five years (Art. 4)   | National Council for Technical Education (Requirements to Offer Degree Programmes) Regulations (2005) |

#### Appendix 10. Provisions for quality standards and quality assurance

| Country    | Key provisions  | Document  |
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| Bangladesh | Providers to implement continuous improvement approach to quality management to meet clients' needs, this to be linked to (re-)registration requirements; Skills Quality Assurance System introduces national quality standards to ensure consistent, quality training and assessment of learners, deals with registration of private providers, develops recognised units of competency/qualifications, accreditation of programmes, auditing of providers for compliance (Art. 7); new system of training/certification of trainers to be introduced to ensure common standards, qualifications to increase quality, national network of instructor training centres to be established, prerequisite for instructors to be reviewed, private sector trainers to be certified including through an incentives system (Art. 10); providers must meet minimum quality requirements (quality of facilities, knowledge and skills of staff, competency standards of programmes), must be registered and accredited under the Skills Quality Assurance System (Art. 15.3) | National Skills Development Policy (2011)   |
|            | Quality is fitness for purpose and meeting clients' needs; BTEB to approve units of competency, national qualifications, course accreditation guidelines; registration of qualifications to be reviewed regularly   | Accreditation of Qualifications and Unites of Competency on the National Technical and Vocational Qualifications Framework (2012) |
|            | Monitoring and regulation of private training activities for quality control to be set  | Perspective Plan of Bangladesh 2010-2021  |

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|             | Programmes of learning must be quality assured (assessment by accredited centres), go through accreditation process to ensure they have a system of quality assurance and can meet competency standards, includes on-site audit   | Registration of Training Organizations and Accreditation of Learning and Assessment Programmes (2012) |
| China       | Establishment of educational institutions subject to requirements: organized institution/constitution, qualified teachers, teaching/learning rooms, facilities, equipment that meet standards, funds for operation, source of capital injection; go through examination, approval, registration according to state regulations (Art. 27)  | Education Law (1995)  |
|             | To recruit high-skilled talent teachers with corporate experience and higher vocational education certificate, not recruit fresh graduates; state to implement teacher quality improvement plan (Art. 12); regular supervisions and evaluation of training quality, with public reports, quality evaluation and supervision mechanisms to be improved, participation of industry, enterprises, providers to be encouraged, to implement rewards/penalties (Art. 17) | National Vocational Education Reform Implementation Plan (2019)                                       |
| India       | Multiplicity in assessment and certification leading to inconsistent outcomes, confusion (Art. 2.10); need to set occupational standards, operationalise a quality assurance framework for certification and assessment with minimum standards and guidance for assessment (Art. 3.3.1, 4.3.3); employment tracking for post-skill training to assess quality (Art. 4.3.14)   | National Policy for Skills Development and Entrepreneurship (2015)                                    |
|             | National Skills Qualification Framework to be detailed further for each discipline vocation/profession, standards aligned with international standards (Art. 16.8)  | National Education Policy (2020)  |
|             | Courses/programmes, skill training to be organized in alignment with NSQF (Art. 4.3.3, 13)  | National Skills Qualification Framework (2013)  |
|             | Accreditation programme to ensure ITIs meet quality standards and expectations of stakeholders, foster excellence, build effectiveness in delivering competency-based training/education, continuously improve (re-affiliation every five years)  | Affiliation Norms for ITIs (2018)   |
|             | ITIs in such areas have no constraints as regards to land, facilities (Art. 3), must have equipment, instructors as per general norms (Art. 5)  | Guidelines for the Scheme of Setting up of Multi Skill Training Institutes in Un-served Blocks (2019) |
| Philippines | Quality assured system for development, recognition, award of qualifications: describes levels of educational qualifications, specific training standards aligned with industry standards, ensures training and educational institutions comply with them, are accountable for achieving corresponding learning outcomes  | Philippine Qualifications Framework (2017)  |
|             | TESDA to develop DTS accreditation system/standards and operational guidelines to ensure TVET quality (Rule VII); provider and industry to develop training plan together based on regulations (Rule IX); regular communication, coordination, and feedback mechanisms established with industrial coordinators who are in charge of all aspects of training (Rule XI); providers submit reports on accomplishments to TESDA (Rule XIV)                             | Dual Training System Act (1994)   |

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| Rwanda       | To improve TVET quality assurance system, quality assurance standards to become fully operationalised by 2022; to enhance capacity of quality assurance officers to inspect, mentor, coach TVET institutions managers; quality assurance and monitoring and evaluation systems to be integrated; trainers to have training according to qualifications framework, to be certified, competent in occupational-related subject and pedagogical skills  | Education Sector Strategic Plan (2018/19-2023/24)   |
|              | Need for systems, structures, regulations to foster, manage workplace learning, for minimum quality standards; to develop, approve a results-based/performance reporting policy for providers by 2022; to review/update competency-based assessment, verification procedures/guidelines by 2024  | Rwanda Polytechnic Strategic Plan (2019)  |
|              | Apprenticeship legislation to be devised to address quality assurance issues, assessment, certification  | Workplace Learning Policy (2015)  |
|              | Qualifications framework with special quality assurance arrangements: registration, accreditation of providers, validation of occupational standards, courses, ruled for TVET qualifications, trained group of assessors/verifiers, reliable and valid assessment, registration of teachers, trainers; no Qualifications Authority to provide a regulatory framework and policy within which providers can operate (no decision whether it will be established) – existing licensing/accreditation regulations have been tightened | Rwanda TVET Qualification Framework (2012)  |
| South Africa | College's academic board to establish internal academic monitoring and quality promotion mechanisms, ensure requirements of accreditation are met (Art. 15.1); lecturers, support staff subject to continuous evaluation of their performance (Art. 35.2), code of conduct, disciplinary procedures (Art. 36); Minister may prescribe minimum norms, standards for further education/training (Art. 43.1); quality assurance to be conducted by Umalusi (Art. 43.2)  | Continuing Education and Training Act (2006)  |
|              | Certification process is linked to assessment and quality assurance of the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations responsible for development, maintenance, quality assurance of qualifications, ensuring continued credibility of certificated through verification processes   | Policy for Verification of Trades and Occupational Qualifications (2019)  |
|              | Quality Council to develop and implement policy for quality assurance, ensure integrity and credibility of quality assurance, accredit providers that comply with requirements (Art. 27)   | National Qualifications Framework Act (2008)  |
|              | Standards for qualifications, certification require ongoing quality assurance and monitoring of quality assurance partners; QCTO to quality assure occupational qualifications ensuring learners receive valid, credible certificates (Preamble); appropriate certification system to be developed to determine the norms and standards for certification, outline certification process, ensure compliance of assessment data for certification with relevant regulations (Art. 5.2)  | Policy for the Certification of Learner Achievements for Trade and Occupational Qualifications Sub-framework (2019) |
| Tanzania     | Sub-framework for TVET integrated with the education and training system into unified structure; providers to undergo rigorous quality assurance audits; quality assurance centres on  | National Qualification Framework (2010)   |

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|  | setting and validating qualification standards, curricula, ensuring appropriateness of assessment/examination system   |   |
|  | Private school premises not to present any danger or risk, be sanitary and suitable, conform to all regulations, qualifications and experience of teachers to be adequate, equipment to allow effective tuition (Art. 28)  | National Education Act (1978)   |
|  | To enhance quality, need to raise quality of curricula, school inspections, assessments, accreditation, relevant authorities, in collaboration with stakeholders government to strengthen management, certification, quality control, to review curriculums, supervisions and assessment of implementation of curriculums, to ensure relevant teaching and learning tools/resources/equipment are sufficient, to set up learner assessment and evaluation structure that adheres to recognised criteria (Art. 3.2)   | Education and Training Policy (2014)  |
|  | Need to strengthen quality assurance of TVET, accreditation of private providers   | National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty II (2010)                             |
|  | Resources required for providers: appropriate, adequate physical resources, library facilities/information resources (Art. 32), qualified, experienced staff, teacher-student ration, staff development and training policy (Art. 33); providers to conduct comprehensive quality evaluation of the programme, have evidence of evaluation/methods used/people involved (Art. 34) ; provisions for the quality, clarity of content (curriculum, programme, delivery methods) providers need to ensure (Art. 36); field experience to be supervised by trained staff, assessed (Art. 38); providers that fulfil criteria after evaluation by authorities to be recognised (Art. 39, 40) | National Council for Technical Education (Accreditation and Recognition) Regulations (2001) |
|  | Schools Quality Assurance Division to inspect, monitor quality of educational provision; need to improve capacity to maintain quality assurance systems (data capturing, processing, reports generation), to review and improve the management information system for quality assurance; need to develop a new quality assurance system, including minimum standards and routine competency-based learning assessments   | ESDP 2016/17-2020/21  |