Towards establishment of maritime education and training for an independent Namibia

Eddy I. Kadhila

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TOWARDS ESTABLISHMENT OF MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING

FOR AN INDEPENDENT NAMIBIA

BY

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NAMIBIA
GMA 90

A paper submitted to the WORLD MARITIME UNIVERSITY in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the award of a Master of Science degree in:

GENERAL MARITIME ADMINISTRATION

The contents of this paper reflect my own personal views and are not necessarily endorsed by the World Maritime University or the International Maritime Organization.

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The railways, ports and major roads of Southern Africa
I wish to express my heartfelt thanks and sincere appreciation to my government and specially to SWAPO of Namibia for giving me the opportunity to undertake this two year fellowship at the World Maritime University.

I also owe my sincere gratitude and thanks to all those who provided me with information, guidance, encouragement and advice which made it possible for me to complete this thesis.

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Last but not least to my family who encouraged me during my two year absence from home while studying at the World Maritime University.
ABSTRACT

This project proposes some procedures for the establishment of a Maritime Education and Training System in Namibia. In this proposal a manpower study approach was used, which entailed a survey of the maritime industry to arrive at an estimate of the fleet size, its structure, operation, projected development and the associated manpower supply and demand.

The returns of the survey, although they have been analysed as being not significantly definitive when viewed together, individual sectors of the industry are however, indicative of certain specific general directions towards the education and training needs, in terms of quantity and quality of seafarers, within the limitations and constraints which have been identified.

In the application of the survey findings to the task in hand, and taking into account certain assumptions based on observations of the state of today's world shipping, suggested objectives have been hypothesised. These have provided the basis for devising a philosophy, deciding a process and identifying the type of infrastructure necessary to implement the system.

In more specific terms, it has been recommended that:

a) In the short and medium term, Namibia should not embark directly into education and training of seafarers for the higher level certificates of competency for the international trade.
It should seek to have this group of personnel educated and trained where facilities are already available in other countries (developing countries) such as Ghana, Tanzania, Nigeria plus some developed maritime nations eg. United Kingdom, federal Republic of Germany, Sweden, Norway, etc.

b) Namibia, in the long run (say short and medium terms) should lay more emphasis on the upgrading and education and training of personnel for local operations and needs.

c) In the specification of objectives, the maritime industries should be considered together.

d) In formulating a philosophy and process there should be an integration of the maritime education and training system and the general education system.

e) At the implementation stage, although a pivotal institution has been identified and defined, due consideration should be given to the complementary and supportive roles which can be played by existing institutions, organizations and agencies appropriate outside Namibia.

f) The concept of establishment of an institute of maritime education and training suitable for the region (excluding Apartheid South Africa).
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgement

Abstract ................................................ i

CHAPTER I NAMIBIA

1.1 Historical Background ............... 1
  1.1.1 Economy ......................... 5
  1.1.2 Mining ......................... 5
  1.1.3 Fishing ........................ 6
  1.1.4 Agriculture ................... 6

1.2 General Education System .......... 7
  1.2.1 Education Development .......... 7

CHAPTER IIIMO REQUIREMENTS FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF SEAFARERS

2.1 STCW Convention-1978 ............... 12
  2.1.1 The Contents of the STCW
    Convention .......................... 17
  2.1.2 Objectives ..................... 18
  2.1.3 Relationship to Industries ... 20
  2.1.4 Procurement of Equipment ..... 20

CHAPTER III PROPOSED ESTABLISHMENT OF MARITIME EDUCATION
AND TRAINING INSTITUTION

3.1 Introduction .......................... 22
3.2 National Legislation Requirement .. 23
3.3 Development of Maritime Training Facilities ............................................. 25
3.3.1. Objectives ........................................... 30
3.3.2. National Maritime Education and Training ........................................ 32
3.3.3. An Approach Towards Maritime Education and Training in Namibia ........ 32
3.3.4. Development of a Maritime Education and Training System on the Basis of a National Manpower Plan ......................... 40

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION ........................................... 55

BIBLIOGRAPHY ............................................................ 66
CHAPTER I

1.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The country: Namibia is a vast, sparsely populated country on the South Atlantic coast of Africa. Namibia is bordered by Botswana and Zimbabwe in the East, South Africa in the South and Angola and Zambia in the North. The capital city of Namibia is Windhoek.

Namibia is mainly arid or semi-arid, with the Namib desert, the oldest in the world, extending along the entire coast line. The Kalahari desert forms its south-eastern border with Botswana. The country's only perennial rivers are on her borders: the Orange river in the South and the Kunene, Kavango, Zambezi and the Kwando Lilyanti rivers in the north.

Land Area: 824 125 Sqkm

Highest mountain: (Brandberg) 2 579 m

Average temperature: (Windhoek)

July: 13.4 C

December: 23.6 C

Population: Namibia has an estimated population of 1.5 - 2.5 million people (UN estimation).
an annual population growth of 3% and a population density of 1.5 persons per square kilometer. There are eleven ethnic groups: Among them Damaras, Namas, Hereros, Owambo, Karango, Kапривиан, Basters, Coloured (mixed race) and Whites.

**Official language**: English, Afrikaans, although German and a variety of African languages are also spoken.

**History**: Namibia, Africa's last colony, got her independence on 21st March, 1990, after 105 years under foreign rule. Namibia became a German protectorate in 1884. In 1945 the Germans surrendered "German South West Africa" (as Namibia was called) to South African forces. On December 7, 1920 the League of Nations entrusted Namibia as "C" mandate territory to South Africa.

The United Nations, which replaced the League of Nations after the 2nd World War, rejected the South African request in 1946 to incorporate Namibia into South Africa. South Africa in turn, refused to place Namibia under United Nations guardianship.

This led to an international dispute with cries for the independence of Namibia growing stronger in the sixties. The petitions of the South West African National Union (SWANU), the Herero Council and the South West Africa Peoples Organisation (SWAPO) at the United Nations...
Nations, a drawn-out court case in the international court and a National Liberation struggle in Namibia led by South West Africa Peoples Organization (SWAPO) led to international discussions on the future of Namibia.

In 1978, the so called Western Contact Group - Britain, Canada, France, F.R of Germany and the United States of America, submitted a proposal to settle the Namibian Problem, to the United Nations.

The Western Five drew up an independence plan for Namibia. The settlement plan, general known as Resolution 435, was accepted by South Africa and SWAPO (Parties to the dispute) and other internal political groupings, who in the meantime had been involved in a number of transitional dispensations to administer Namibia, and the Front Line States. Now, after 40 years and 20 United Nations resolutions on Namibia, the country has finally got her independence.

Resolution 435 provides for a peaceful transition to independence after free and fair elections for a constituent assembly, under United Nations supervision and control.

In accordance with Resolution 435 the Administrator General, Adv. Luis Pienaar, an appointee of South Africa was to administrate Namibia during the transitional period. He
was responsible for the maintenance of law and order and the organising of the elections.

The implementation of the independence plan by the South African appointee Administrator General was overseen by the Special Representative of the Secretary General of the United Nations, Mr. Martti Atitisari (a Finish diplomat). He was assisted by the United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG).

UNTAG consists of a military component of over 4,426 people, a police component of over 1,500 people and a civilian component of 437 people, from a total of 109 countries.

The first stages of the peace plan, which have already been implemented, include the partial withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola, the withdrawal of South African troops from Namibia, the demobilisation of South West Africa Territorial Force (SWATF) Namibian military units, the return of exiled Namibians registered with the UN High Commissioner for Refugees, the release of political prisoners, the repeal of all discriminatory or restrictive laws, the registration of voters and the elections.

A total of 97 per cent of the registered voters voted in the election for the Constituent Assembly in November 1989. The 72
seats in the Assembly were allocated proportionally. SWAPO won 41 seats, the DTA (Democratic Turnhall Alliance) a pro-South African political group won 21 seats. The UDF (United Democratic Front) a tribal political group won 4 seats. ACN won 3 seats and FCN, NNF and NDF won 1 seat each.

1.2 Economy

The economy of Namibia was based on exploitive use of resources. The export of un-refined goods and the import of most consumer goods were the norm. Seventy per cent (70%) of the population is directly or indirectly, dependent on agriculture. Total budgeted expenditure for 1989/90 R 2 238 899 000, and also according to the Department of Governmental Affair the GDP 1989/90 R 3 747 300 000.


Total Imports R 2 427 million R 1 713 million

Per capita income R 2 668 

Consumer price index 261.4 (1980 = 100)

General sales tax 10 %

1.2.1 Mining

Namibia is one of Africa's premier mining countries, particularly of lead, zink, uranium, diamonds to mention but a few. A total of 200 minerals has been identified in
Namibia, of these 30 are unique to Namibia. New projects include low-yield goldfields near Karibib and the exploration of marine gasfields near Luderitz. Mining is the largest contributor to the GDP, R 1 051.8 million in 1988/89.

Minerals exported in 1988

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total value</th>
<th>R 1 542 600 000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diamonds</td>
<td>R 653 500 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.2 Fishing

The Namibian coast line is one of the richest fishing grounds in the world. Namibia does not have an international recognised 200 mile fishing zone. It is estimated that foreign trawlers catch/about R 1.5 billion of fish in these waters every year without receiving any income from it.

Value of own catch in 1988/89

- Pelagic fish      R 182 700 000
- Cray fish         R 53 298 968

1.2.3 Agriculture

Although agriculture contributed only 8.8% (R 328.3 million) to the GDP in 1988/89, approximately 70% of the
population is dependent, directly or indirectly, on agriculture for their livelihood. The market-oriented sector accommodates some 16% of the total labour force, whereas in certain communal areas or subsistence farming communities, up to 90% of the population is engaged mainly in farming. There are three types of land tenure in Namibia:

- Government (mainly diamond area and nature reserves) $\pm 15\%$
- Communal areas 41\%
- Private owned land 44\%.

1.3 GENERAL EDUCATION SYSTEM

1.3.1 Education Development

Development of African Education from 1948-75

The education of Africans in Namibia can be said to have gone through three successive phases during 40 years. That is Pre-Bantu education up to 1962. Bantu education 1962-76, Post-Bantu education for Africans. The three phases of education for Africans could be said to have accomplished a general pattern of political, and socio-economic periodisation of Namibian society. In a way, each phase in the development of education for Africans was a part of a new political and socio-economic conjuncture.

As stated earlier, prior to 1948 the South African, and Namibian societies were dominated by the interest of
mining capital. The mining industry has been relaying on the supply of skilled labour from Britain. Africans were needed as cheap labour. Therefore, the government did not develop the education of Africans during that period. The education of Africans was left in the hands of missionaries.

The post 1948 expansion of the economy (described earlier) increased the demand for African labour and African participation in the colonial economy in general. The increase in the number of migrant labourers from the northern zone (NZ) (See Moorson 1979, p 106) testifies to this demand. As part of the new political and socio-economic reality, Bantu Education was introduced to train Africans for the low positions assigned to them within the labour market. Bantu education was introduced in South Africa in 1953 and extended to Namibia in 1962.

The architect of Bantu education, Dr. Verwoerd, spelled out the objectives of the system as follows:

- The natives will be taught from childhood that equality with Europeans is not for them. People who believe in equality are not desirable teachers for the natives. Education must train and teach people in accordance with their opportunities in life according to the sphere in which they live. (Quoted in Tabata 1980, p 6)

Indeed, Dr. Verwoerd made no secret of the very idea behind introduction of Bantu education as an element of the apartheid policy. Africans were only needed as cheap labour. Hence, they were to be given a type of education that would prepare them for that. This aspect was
expressed by the South African Minister of Bantu Educa-
tion, Dr. Verwoerd, in the following statement:

- My department's policy is that education should
  stand with feet in the reserves and have its roots
  in the spirit of Bantu Society. There Bantu
  education must be able to give its real service.
  There is no place for him in the European Community
  above the level of certain forms of labour... for
  that reason it is of no avail for him to receive a
  training which has its main absorption in the
  European Community. Until now he has been subjected
  to a school system which drew him away from his own
  community and misled him by showing him the green
  pastures of European society in which he is not
  allowed to grace.

(Quoted in Tabata 1980, p 6)

The education of Bantu Education in Namibia was
 proceeded by a commission of Enquiry into non-European
 education in South West Africa (Namibia) of 1958 whose
 purpose was to make the necessary adjustment to the report
 of Eislen commission to suit Namibian Conditions. The
 commission of enquiry into Non-European education
 recommended that Africans were to be equipped with the
 following skills and aptitudes:

a) religious knowledge and good manners,

b) literacy in his native tongue as a means of
   preserving pride in his national traditions,

c) literacy in the official languages as a means of
   communication with the Europeans, as an aid in
economic matters and in gaining knowledge of the outside world.

d) knowledge of hygiene for the protection of health.

e) knowledge of technical skills,

f) social patterns of behaviour and values which make one a good parent and useful citizen.

(Quote in O'Callaghan, pp 104-105)

The substance of the recommendations of the commission laid bare the functionality of education in the economic system. If one takes a look at the six points recommended by the commission it will become clear that:

(a) involved an ideological reproduction. For through religion Africans were not only to be trained in order to become good servants, they were also to be taught to conform to the existing order. Missionaries taught Africans not to participate in politics or to struggle for their rights. Instead, they were told to comply while awaiting the Lord to solve all their problems. (b) Served to consolidate the strategy of divide and rule, there by undermining the unity of the Namibian people. (c) Aimed at making Africans receptive to the propaganda of the regime, to address while in the right way, and to be able to sign documents whose contents they would not understand as the instructions they would get in the European languages would not be enough. (d) Served to facilitate the reproduction of the system as it could not flourish without the input of African labor. (e) Involved maximization of profit by the capitalist as the high productivity of African labour would not accompanied by a
rise in wages. (f) Involved ideological reproduction, accepting of the existing order as normal and inevitable, and working to the maximum for the minimum reward, without having to demand one's rights.
CHAPTE R I I

IMO REQUIREMENTS FOR EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF SEAFARERS

2.1 STCW CONVENTION 1978

Before discussing the global significance of the Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers 1978, it is necessary to give a brief background account of how the International Maritime Organization (IMO) came into existence.

By the beginning of the 20th Century, international merchant shipping had expanded tremendously gathering momentum from the beginning of the 19th Century when the great industrial revolution triggered an explosion in world trade.

It was clear by that time that some sort of international actions ought to be taken in safety matters. As the United Kingdom was by then the largest maritime nation in the world with the longest history of maritime legislation and training for safety at sea, her government played a leading role bringing other maritime nations together for the purpose of including various international conventions relating to maritime safety and pollution prevention such as the International Conference of Safety of Life at Sea in 1913-14 (following the sinking in 1912 of the Titanic with a loss of 1489 persons), safety at sea conferences of 1929 and 1948 (again as the result of the disastrous fires on the Monro Castle, L'Atlantique and Normande - lessons in safety at sea seemed always to be learned the hard way), the international conference in respect of Load Line 1930.
(it was the government of the UK that in 1906 took the power for the first time to apply British Load Line Laws and other safety regulations to foreign vessels in British ports) and the International Conference for the Prevention of Pollution at the Sea by Oil 1954. (35)

As it would appear that the world noticed and, indeed appreciated the selfless and rentless efforts of the government of the UK in the area of international maritime safety and pollution prevention, the United Nations soon after the war recognized the need to create a specialized agency to deal solely with maritime matters. Accordingly, the U.N. maritime conference was convened in Geneva in 1948 and concluded the convention on the International Maritime Organization (IMO).

The Convention formally came into force in 1958 and the existence of IMO came into being the same year. Since its modest start with 21 member states, the organization has steadily grown and its membership at present totals 126 members with one associated member, Hong Kong. Therefore it is to all intents and purpose a universal maritime organization with its membership open to all member nations of the United Nations interested in shipping.

The objectives of IMO, as provided for in Article 1 of its Convention are, inter alia:

1. To provide machinery for cooperation among governments in the field of governmental regulations and practices related to technical matters of all kinds affecting shipping engaged in international trade; to encourage the general
adoption of the highest practicable standards in matters concerning maritime safety, efficiency of navigation and the prevention and control of marine pollution from ships and to deal with legal matters related to the purpose set out in the article;

2. To encourage the removal of discriminatory actions and unnecessary restrictions by governments affecting shipping engaged in international trade, so as to promote the availability of shipping services to the commerce of the world without discrimination, assistance and encouragement given by a government for the development of its national shipping and for the purposes of security does not in itself constitute discrimination, provided that such assistance and encouragement are not based on measures designed to restrict the freedom of shipping of all flags to take part in international trade.

3. To provide for the consideration by the organization of matters concerning unfair restrictive practices by shipping concerns;

4. To provide for the consideration by the organization of any matters concerning shipping that may be referred to it by any organ or specialized agency of the United Nations.

5. To provide for the exchange of information among governments on matters under consideration by the organization.

IMO cooperates with a number of other United Nations
Organizations having parallel and sometimes overlapping responsibilities in the field of shipping economics, labour and specialized matters. Such specialized bodies like the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and other UN agencies, such as the International Chamber of Shipping (ICS), the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFT), and the International Association of Lighthouse Authority (IALA). Both ILO and IALA send representatives to all important and appropriate meetings of the organization to attend and offer their long outstanding expertise to it (organization).

IMO has no power of enforcement for the ratified conventions. rather, its unbending strength lies in its arduous functions of providing the forum and preparing the ground work for the adoption of legal and technical provisions of a convention by an International Conference convened under its aegis. It is only the governments of the various countries of the world that can ensure through national legislation that the legal and technical provisions of international conventions and effectively enforced.

Since the inception of IMO in 1978, the STCW Convention can be said to be the only convention specifically focus on human factor of safety at sea. Disasters which occurred during the last two decades and which were attributed to an overwhelming extent to human errors, clearly highlighted the need for such a
convention. Statistics did show that the greatest single factor leading to marine casualty was human flexibility and furthermore that the human element was responsible for at least 80 percent of all tankers accidents. Thus, there is a growing awareness and logical thinking within and outside the industry that the provision of the finest in equipment and technology is of little use if masters and crews are not thoroughly trained properly experienced, well disciplined and adequately motivated.

The development of the STCW Convention started with the adoption at the IMO first International Conference in 1960 on Safety of Life at Sea of a recommendation aimed at furthering maritime training in cooperation with the International Labour Organization (ILO), pursuant to that recommendation, a joint IMO/ILO committee on training was established. The committee had its first meeting in 1964 and prepared the "Document for 1964, this document gave guideline on guidance" the education and training of masters, officers and seamen in the use and operation of aid to navigation, life-saving appliances, devices for the prevention, detection and extinction of fires and other ships equipment contributing to safety at sea.

In 1971, IMO Council decided that further measures were still needed to strengthen and improve standards of training and certification.

Also the IMO assembly which met the same year decided to convene a conference to adopt a convention on the subject. The document was subsequently amended and expanded by the joint committee in 1975 and 1977.

Soon after another conference met in 1978 and was
attended by delegates from 72 countries. It was the largest conference ever held by IMO and was the first attempt to establish global minimum professional standards for seafarers.

Previously the standards of training, certification and watchkeeping of officers and ratings were established by individual governments usually without reference to practices in other countries.

As a result, standards and procedures vary widely even though shipping is the most international of all industries. The convention unanimously passed in the same year and by 27th April 1983 the requirement for entry into force was met. On the 28th April 1984, the convention officially and finally entered into force for countries who are parties to the convention.

The convention prescribes minimum standards which countries are obliged to meet or exceed. In the majority of established maritime countries, standards are often higher than those stipulated in the convention. In some countries, however standards are not so high and by ratifying or accepting the convention, governments of such countries undertake to implement and enforce its requirements.

2.1.1 The contents of the STCW Convention

The aim of the STCW Convention is to establish, for the first time, internationally acceptable minimum professional standards for seafarers. The Convention is not designed as a model on which all nations should
ecessarily based their crew requirements because in many countries the requirements may be higher than those laid down in the convention. Rather the convention typifies and reflects a compromise not only between the standards in developed and developing countries, but also between the various systems followed by the more advanced maritime countries. Most of the provisions lay down principles only and these provide flexibility for the administration which become parties to the convention.

2.1.2 Objective

The main objectives of the convention is the elimination of inadequacies in all areas and matters affecting the training, certification and watchkeeping for seafarers with a uniform set of unanimously accepted requirements.

The implementation of the convention to a satisfactory effective degree calls for a close cooperation of a number of persons and agencies owing to the inter-related nature of the provisions of the articles and the technical annex which are in no small measures aimed at contributing to the smooth flow of international seaborne trade under conditions of safety and protection of the marine environment.

The convention also imposes certain obligations and responsibility on the seafarers, the shipowners and the administrations.

The convention is made up of seventeen (17) articles, and annex subdivided into six (6) chapters and 23
resolutions. The articles contain legal provisions of the annex. The resolutions are nor mandatory instruments but are, nevertheless linked to the convention and are designed to backup the articles and the annex of the convention. Thus, governments can use the resolutions in any way they want, in whole or in part provided it is in the spirit of the convention.

While it is not my intention to write copiously on the general aspects of the convention, I would like to confine myself in highlighting only few areas of the legal and technical provisions of the convention which should attract more attention. One specially important feature of the convention is that it will apply to ships of non-party states when visiting ports of states which are parties to the convention. This singular article has indirectly established firmly the legal authority of enforcement world wide.

From the technical provisions of the Annex of the convention and regulation 1/4 deals mainly with procedures and elaborates the same and the regulation in question gives mandates to party states to check certificates of personnel and assess their abilities (seafarers) to maintain the standards in certain eventualities (eg. collisions, grounding, discharge of an illegal substance, etc.).

Failure to hold a valid document (certificates) the ship or ships will not sail unless and until requirements are met.
2.1.3 Relation to Industry

Since maritime colleges are established to train marine personnel for shipping and shipping related industries, it is just a matter of common sense that those industries should be actively involved in the formulation and design of the education and training of marine personnel.

The increasing complexity of the modern ships require not only training in purely statutory obligations of safety at sea, but also far beyond the range of training that marine personnel should undergo. The shipping industries interests should feel free to indicate areas where the college should carry out research programs.

The best way to maintain such a vital relationship between industries and the college is to appoint some representatives of industries as members of the governing council and academic board members. This will no doubt keep either side abreast of issues of current concern to the other and will permit quick and effective adaptation to important changes and development.

2.1.4 Procurement of Equipment

What really makes a good Nautical School "tick" is the ability to conduct successfully special mandatory courses (eg. radar courses, simulator courses, fire-fighting, navigational aid/computer training, etc).

Thus, there should be a careful selection of necessary equipment needed to "augment" the special training courses
in conformity with the STCW Convention 1978 and beyond. The equipment should bear serious relevance to the particular courses or training offered by the college. The equipment should also have wider application and beneficial in training the generality of students. As new trends in ship design tend to focus on integrated automation to reduce manning which technical developments in shipping have already achieved, type and make of such equipment to be used in the college should play a very complimentary role and assist in further research.

I am convinced that students should be encouraged to use libraries as reservoir of knowledge in storage. It is a reference place for the past, the present and the future. Some distinguished scholars think that a good library is better than a teacher. In fact many academicians reach their highest eminence through studying from the library(ies).

The importance of a well up-to-date library cannot, therefore be over-emphasised. A good library augments teaching, it encourages thinking, broadens the wisdom of individuals and it enriches his/her knowledge and creates a disciplined mind. Thus, the set up of a library at an assumed maritime college/institute should be given priority.
CHAPTER III

PROPOSED ESTABLISHMENT OF MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING INSTITUTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Namibia is a maritime developing nation. Namibia has two harbours. The main ones are Walvisbay and Luderitzbay. There are also small ones alongside the west coast. Being a maritime nation it needs trained personnel in the field of maritime related activities.

Since the colonial period up to this present day, Namibia has no maritime institution to train Namibians on maritime related activities.

Before independence, the colonial administration neglected Namibia and even denied them basic education of any kind for human development. Namibians were denied access to enter some sensible aspects of education system, apart from basic nursing and teaching programmes.

Namibia has virtually no maritime legislation of her own. The single noteworthy exception is the territorial waters of Namibia Proclamation No. AG 32 of 1979, which extends the territorial waters on April 1, 1981, in terms of South African Proclamation AG 21 of 1981.

The principal S.A. statute governing commercial shipping is the Merchant Marine Act, No. 57 of 1951, as amended. This law is entirely administered from Pretoria. It is at present unclear whether if any other S.A. laws in maritime affairs are in force in Namibia. It is obvious
that the Namibian government is busy drafting new laws governing maritime activities without relationship to that of South Africa.

When national legislation is established it should provide for the interest of the nation, and should also sound for the international instruments as set forward by IMO. It is equally important to mention that the government of Namibia should be advised to ratify some (if not) all of the IMO Conventions and seek membership of IMO.

3.2 NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE REQUIREMENTS

The law establishing the institution has to be passed by the appropriate arm of the government. Generally legislative requirements fall into two broad categories: 1) National and 2) International.

In the latter case guidelines and or specifications may be laid down for the final adoption and implementation by the national administration through legal procedures. In the case of the STCW Convention (1978) guidelines to education and training requirements and the minimum standards of competency to be demonstrated by most of the ships crew are dealt with in some detail.

It may sometimes be found that the education and training programme instead of being designed for the needs of the operator and individual and taking into account safety and other legislative requirements, the reverse is the case. I assume that the government of Namibia is going to ratify most of the IMO conventions and other international conventions related to maritime activities. And thus the administration should lay down quite
carefully and in detail the education and training requirements. It may be found that even with the best of intentions these requirements can either go beyond or fall below what is needed to ensure safety.

The shipping industry can find itself in a curious situation whereby a large part of its education and training is dictated by a national administration which has no day to day experience of the operating constraints, practices and opportunities of merchant ships, whereas those who have that operational experience may have only marginal input into the final education and training requirements. However these shortcomings can be overcome by adding various items to the administration syllabus or unilaterally imposing additional requirements in the form of short courses and other types of training on board ship or ashore for its own personnel.

Notwithstanding the above observations, the very nature of shipping as an international activity needs to have regulations and guidelines for safety purposes and the national administration must ultimately be responsible. This should include the competence of seafarers through their education and training and the design and equipment of the ship.

The degree of emphasis on shore versus sea based education and training is another consideration in the education and training process. Each sector has its advantage in the making of a properly trained and efficient seafarer. There is a need for an intensive period of training at an establishment/institute and also there is a need for adequate practical experience at sea to determine the competence of the seafarer. The
combination of these two components needs regular review as education and training techniques strive to keep due regard to changing maritime technology.

These factors mentioned above may not be all exhaustive; nevertheless, they serve to demonstrate the various considerations, some of which are not necessarily always compatible but have to be taken into account in the process of establishing and maintaining a maritime education and training system.

3.3 DEVELOPMENT OF MARITIME TRAINING FACILITIES

According to Professor P.S. Vanchiswar in his Volume 1 "Establishment/Administration of Maritime Affairs" with particular reference to developing countries, said "The most abundant resources available in most developing countries are human resources. Even economists of late have come to believe that national economical development is closely link to human resources development connection in the maritime sector".

He stated that, "... the lead role and primary responsibility in harnessing such human resources and utilizing them appropriately to maximum national advantage in the maritime (shipping) field, including benefits to the national seafarers themselves and the national shipping industry, have to be assumed by the government (Maritime Administration) in a developing country".

The main reasons for the same are as follows:

a) The political, social and economic philosophies of the government as regards labour matters in general are
also bound to affect maritime labour seafarers in spite of the latter's special characteristics.

b) In the interest of the country's maritime development it is the national government which has to: 

- make assessment as regards the man-power needs in the maritime sector.
- plan for and ensure the availability of such man-power both in quantity and quality, and
- the optimum utilisation of such man-power to national advantage.

It is the national government which ensure national merchant shipping act, applicable to the marine personnel (seafarers) is such as to suit their extraordinary working and living environment.

Since shipping is an international industry maritime labour from a developing country may be subject to international pressures in various forms, and the government may be better equipped than the shipping industry and the national seafarers themselves to deal with such pressures in the context of national interest.

The national government is in the best position to:

a) Monitor international developments affecting existing and or future marine personnel.

b) Evaluate such development when they emerge.

c) Adopt policies compatible with national interest.

The national government has international obligations as regards to International Maritime Conventions which
have to be met, including international standards for the competency/proficiency of its seafarers.

In view of the said roles, responsibilities and functions of the government as regards to their marine personnel need to cover the following:

a) Matters affecting marine personnel in general.

b) Examination and certification of seafarers.

c) Manning of ships.

d) Maritime training.

In short items a, b, and c above have already been dealt with. Item d, viz "maritime training" will be dealt with below.

The great importance of the development of maritime training facilities in developing countries has been mentioned earlier. Maritime training, examination/certification of seafarers and manning of ships are three vital and inseparable links in a chain which determine the standards of safety and efficiency of the operation of ships.

The roles and functions of the maritime administration as regards matters relating to examination and certification of seafarers and manning of ships. In this area as mentioned earlier it appears inevitable that the maritime administration of a developing country take the lead role.

In assuming such role, the maritime administration shall no doubt have to act in concert with shipping industry/companies, representative of national seafarers,
relevant professional institutions (if any) or other educational institutions. Whether such concerted action is taken through suitable consultative procedures or through establishment of a merchant training board in which all interested parties are represented and which can serve as a Collective Advisory Body, is a matter for the government to examine and decide. The types of maritime training facilities/courses needed for seafarers can be summarised as follows:

1) Ratings

1.1 Deck Department

a) Pre-sea training for the new entrant, which needs to include "personnel survival techniques"

b) Subsequent refresher training for rating with appropriate sea-service, so as to meet the mandatory minimum requirements for a rating forming part of navigational watch as specified in the STCW Convention (1978). It is most desirable that such training leads to the "Efficient seek hand certificate" or its equivalent and the "proficiency in survival craft certificate".

c) Fire-fighting training (as mentioned elsewhere in this paper).

d) Training in basic First Aid (same).
1.2 Engine-room Department

a) See 1.1 a) above
b) See 1.1 b) above
c) See 1.1 c) above
d) See 1.1 d) above

1.3 Catering Department

a) See 1.1 and 1.2 above
b) Either as part appropriate sea-service, the trainees, who are to become cooks on ships need to be so trained as to be eligible for "Certificate as ship’s cook".

The above mentioned points are some of the maritime training courses that need to be arranged for its seafarers by any maritime country which has (or intends to have) ships of a size of 200 grt and above and with propulsion power of 750 Kw and over engaged in international trade, and which intends to man such ships with its own nationals.

In developing countries' governments which are yet to develop such maritime training facilities to meet the minimum international standards, both present and future requirements, there would be a clear need to take the following steps:

a) A man-power study to be undertaken to make an assessment of the man-power needs of the shipping industry (present and future) for a period of ten (10) years.
b) Based on the above-mentioned man-power study, manpower planning should be made for the next ten year period on an annual basis.

3.3.1 OBJECTIVES

The principal and general goal should be that education and training for basic and higher shipping education are arranged on a permanent basis for developing nations worldwide.

- Within the nation's own domestic education system.
- To be prepared, upgraded by the international organizations for servicing developing countries (e.g. Namibia and others) on request.
- To be offered by international institutions and academies for application by students from developing nations.

The targets can best be reached by cooperation between national and international organizations e.g. ILO, UNCTAD, IMO and others.

There are three (3) aspects in order to consider and measure the needs for commercial shipping education and training.

1. **Quantity**: to increase the number of qualified and capable persons to meet the national intentions and the shipping industry's requirements for development and take over of initiatives.
2. **Quality:** to improve the capacity of personnel and organizations and to increase specialized skills.

3. **Organizational:** to upgrade and rebuild organizations and administration for efficient and economical performance and to fully and wholly receive and make use of personnel know-how and to maintain and develop the same in the organizations and the nation's best interest.

Strong efforts have been made to improve the developing countries' import/export operations and techniques focussing on procurement, marketing and sales techniques and the need for education and training in these areas.

Sea transport procurement and operations being an integrated and vital part of import and export operations are now widely recognised as an area for subsequent updating and improvement by education and training.

One of the main objectives of education and training on import/export operations and techniques is to place the developing countries in a position where they will be equipped and skilled enough to take the initiatives and establish their own trade, i.e. buying goods and selling either FOB, CIF or other similar terms of trade (ref. incoterms). This automatically implies take over of initiatives and responsibilities for finding and arranging suitable sea transport means and thus creating a need and demand for improving organizational and personnel back-up
PROPOSED ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

GOVERNING COUNCIL

DIRECTOR

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

DIRECTOR/RECTOR

CHIEF EXECUTIVE

ACADEMIC REGISTRAR

Evaluation

Policies

Curriculum

Academic

Standing Committee of The Council/Board

VICE RECTOR

DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Navigation

Engineering

Physical Education

Course Development

Librarian

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER

Administrative

Accounting

Employment

Procurement

Catering Services
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Course</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upper Secondary School</td>
<td>Basic Course in Marine Subject or Some Industrial Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical College</td>
<td>Training on Board, Practical Course 1.5y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nautical Marine Engineering College</td>
<td>Training on Board, Practical Course 0.5y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrician</td>
<td>Training on Board, Practical Course 0.5y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine Engineer</td>
<td>Training on Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navigation Officer</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
and skills in all sectors related to shipping.

3.3.2. NATIONAL MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The intentions and development here mean that education and training must be arranged without delay, as the situation may require additional know-how that already prevails. Also the changes and development in shipping occur on a weekly or monthly basis rather than yearly. This is fully recognised by many developing nations all over the world. They now send their personnel to the existing maritime institutions in Scandinavian countries, Northern Europe, the U.K. and the USA for studies. This takes care of only the immediate and basic needs and is not by far sufficient with regard to the number of persons receiving education. For the necessary increase of numbers for more advanced and special education for education to fit a nation's special needs and for education as an integrated part of a government reorganization and development plan, education and training must be arranged locally.

3.3.3 AN APPROACH TOWARDS MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN NAMIBIA

Proposals for an establishment of maritime education and training in Namibia are considered in the light of the limitations.

Most, if not all developing countries may entertain ideas of providing the entire range and levels of education and training for its maritime personnel; however, in realistic terms there may be limitations and
restrictions which dictate otherwise and compromises would result.

In Namibia these limitations and restrictions may continue to exist. While in the long run there may be a need to educate and train the highest level of international maritime personnel required, in the short and medium term this does not seem advisable when the man-power demands in the area are examined closely. This presumption is assumed based on the indications of limited numbers and levels of high qualified maritime personnel requirements, the corresponding predicted low trainees throughput, the inexperience in maritime education and training to include the shortage of trainers and other supporter personnel and the attendant cost of personnel, facilities and equipment among others.

The general direction interpreted from the information and data gathered would suggest that a reasonable and realistic approach for Namibia in her initial stage of the advent into maritime education and training would be to make provisions towards satisfying the requirements for nationally based operations. Even in so doing the approach should be rather broad to encompass the different sectors of the maritime industry. In addition, assumption should be made which would indicate some extended programmes as a priority.

The apparent needs are being presumed on the grounds that there is an absence of formalised education and training, lack of syllabus and examination requirements and procedures to meet modern day guidelines and standards, as well as an absence of maritime legislation so as to put the STCW Convention into effect.
In addition to the proposed programme approach to maritime education and training in the light of this study, the following proposals are suggested. The implementation of the programme:

- Academic entrance qualifications for maritime personnel to maritime education and training institutions/training programme should be closely linked to the general education system as is the case with other industries. This could therefore lead to qualifications gained by these individuals being recognised and appreciated within the general socio-economic system. An adequate academic background would present more opportunities for the individual to achieve the highest of qualifications.

- All trainees and candidates for nautical, engineering and fisheries education and training should successfully undergo a mandatory pre-sea training course prior to proceeding to higher levels of training.

- The pre-sea training course should be of a general purpose or integrated nature whereby all trainees are given training in both nautical and engineering areas and the required safety instructions. This approach in addition to illustrating the need for flexibility also recognises the changing requirements of the maritime industry.

- Adequate sea time should be provided preferably supervised on training vessels during the pre-sea training period so that trainees can be properly
assessed on their sea-going aptitude prior to proceeding beyond this level.

Beyond the pre-sea training and depending on the maritime industry that is merchant shipping, fisheries or oil and gas exploration, the level of operation i.e., coastal region. The examination and certification authorities should specify some particulars with regard to academic training, sea time, endorsements and many others.

a) WHERE DOES A NEW NATIONAL MARITIME ACADEMY ENTERS THE SCENE?

According to Ali M. Belhag (Libya) maritime education and training (MET) is a scheme dedicated to educate and train maritime personnel. He continues saying that differences in general education systems are one of the reasons that countries have different systems of MET despite the fact that the aim of MET is mostly a common one, namely: to provide maritime personnel with the required knowledge, skills and experience necessary to enable them to navigate ships safely and, in most cases economically.

b) DEVELOPMENT IN MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING

During the last decades, MET has gone several steps forward in the maritime nations. It began with simply qualifying officers and engineers with certificates of competency. MET differs from one country to another with respect to the time set aside for academic or practical studies. This approach, Belhag said, remained unchanged until the late 1960's when France introduced the dual
officer system which has since been adopted in some maritime nations. Nowadays we see the ship-shore bivalency and on the horizon unmanned ships may soon appear.

These developments have not resulted from a vacuum. They were a consequence of the rapid changes in technology in the last two decades. They also came after economic pressure which led to the reduction in manning. Needless to say one of the main factors which is influencing the development in MET was the opportunity for seafarers to work ashore and their demand to have a proper qualification apart from the certificate of competency which would enable them to find equally good positions ashore when they wanted to leave the sea.

c) THE UPRISE OF DEVELOPING NATIONS

After these developments had taken place in the traditional maritime nations the developing countries realized, only very recently, firstly their need to have their own national fleets and secondly to man their ships with their crews. The reason for this delay are many and vary from country to country. Some of these reasons are:

- Historical reasons as a result of the colonial times.

- Traditional reasons where people have some fear of the sea.

- Lack of resources at that time.

When some of the reasons, or obstacles were removed
and developing countries discovered their resources shipping companies were established followed by maritime institutions.

d) FIRST ESTABLISHMENT OF MARITIME INSTITUTE IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY AND THE SYSTEM OF GENERAL EDUCATION.

In order to have their own people trained to operate their own ships developing countries sent their students to receive MET abroad. This was and still is expensive and time consuming because of language problems and different systems of education and it was and still is also a problem to find enough places for the total number of students who needed to be trained.

At a later stage, it was a problem to find training places for them on board foreign flag ships, which was not the case for their fellow students. These problems encouraged developing countries to establish their own academies with the resources available. The system of education and training in these academies when first begun was based more or less on some advice from their former colonizers or from one of the leading maritime nations.

In many cases it was just copied without a proper assessment and future evaluation. Those leading maritime nations continued to change their MET systems following technological changes and shipping industry demands, whereas those who copied the original kept to the older system.

This situation has remained unchanged until the 1978
Convention on Standards of Training Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers (STCW) came into force. Some changes were implemented in order to meet the minimum requirements of the convention.

e) IF A NEW MARITIME ACADEMY IS ABOUT TO START, WHERE SHALL IT BEGIN?

Should it begin where the others started, or from where they are now?

The answer to this question is not a simple one due to the fact that there are several factors which have to be taken into account before deciding a specific system of MET. For the purpose of this paper I will only name some of these factors:

1. Are the trainees being prepared for the shipping industry, or are they being prepared for a wider field of employment?

2. Changes are taking place in the shipping industry such as the varieties in size and sophistication of ships.

3. Differences in political and social attitudes.

4. The changes taking place on the international scene, eg. increased automation to reduce costs.

5. The size of a shipping industry and whether it has special shipping requirements.

6. Economic policies and safety requirements.
7. A clear definition of the type of awarded certificate, whether it is going to fulfill the safety and regulatory matters only, or it will encompass the full range of shipboard duties including the commercial, economic and managerial aspects.

8. One of the most important factors influencing MET policy is the method of finance and the money allocated to it. Who is benefiting after all? If it is the Administration (government) then it will have to make the major contribution, and if it is the individual then it might be that the students will have to bear most of the expenses, or a combination of both.

A new MET system will need to take these factors into consideration and will have to develop a sufficient flexible approach to them.

f) MET NOT IN ISOLATION

It is very difficult to isolate MET from the overall educational system of a country. The reasons for this are that MET is a continuation of the process of general education. When we think of upgrading MET it might be better to have the base advanced, i.e. the entry level increased through recruitment of future seafarers from high schools or, if feasible, establishing a seafarers vocational education centre for the maritime profession. Nevertheless we can not develop a high school education curriculum merely for MET. MET has to go hand in hand with the overall education system of the country.
Source: Ali M. Belhag (WMU Graduate-1988)
Head of Department of Navigation
Libia Maritime Academy.
3.3.4 THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MARITIME EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM ON THE BASIS OF A NATIONAL MANPOWER PLAN

a) Introduction

The education and training of seafarers to meet the ever growing demands of a changing maritime industry which in its development continues to become more sophisticated is a challenge which must be faced and overcome by maritime nations whether developed, developing or underdeveloped.

A maritime nation can be categorized as being developed, developing or underdeveloped not necessarily by a favourable per capita income but rather by a combination of factors to include its maritime industry, involvement in world trade, ownership level of ships or fleets, education and training system, examination and certification experience, status of its maritime legislation, involvement in maritime affairs at the international level and the general state of development of the national administration and institutions.

It can be admitted that even in the developed maritime states which are characterised by a long history and experience in this activity of maritime education and training, there is the necessity for continuous modifications and developments in the system or its components in efforts to meet the changing demands occurring in the maritime industry. These changes, not only affect the education and training procedures, curricula, training methodologies and examination and certification systems among other areas but also the...
human or manpower resources involved as this may relate to the educational, academic and psychological capability of students to cope with the changing technologies and the ability of trainers to impart the required information effectively.

This factor of human resources or manpower is considered to be one of the most important elements in the maritime education and training system which must be supportive of the maritime sector(s) under consideration.

b) Manpower Planning - Definition

Manpower planning may also be referred to as human Resource Planning or Personal Planning and Employment. Although the terms are interchangeable, the general definition points to a single interpretation, that is "a process for determining and assessing that the organization (maritime industry) will have an adequate number of qualified persons available at the proper terms, performing jobs which meet the need of the enterprise while at the same time these individuals desire satisfaction for their involvement" (1).

c) Scope of Manpower Planning

Irrespective of manpower planning or terminology preferred, the process of manpower planning must be an ongoing one, not static, and involve many interrelated activities. The plan must be modified and updated as conditions require. It involves:
i) Forecasting future manpower requirements either in terms of mathematical projections or trends in the economy and developments in industry or in judgemental estimates based on specific plans of the company or enterprise.

ii) Inventory of present manpower resources and analysing the degree to which these resources are employed optionally.

iii) Anticipating manpower problems by projecting present resources into the future and comparing them with the forecast of requirements to determine their adequacy both quantitatively and qualitatively.

iv) Planning the necessary programmes of recruitment, selection, promotion, training, motivation and compensation so that the needs of the enterprise can be met. (2)

d) Manpower Planning in the Maritime Industry

The importance of a manpower plan in terms of information associated with the supply and demand of human resources, to include quantity and quality required at a given time or specific period can therefore be a critical factor in the establishment and sustaining of a national education and training system. This becomes more important in developing and underdeveloped maritime states.

In more advance or developed maritime nations which
possess ships, established shipping companies and shipping interests and which are involved in maritime trade, the manpower demands as reflected in the level of development of the maritime education and training system, may, more often than not be guided by the requirements of these operating maritime sectors. This, however, may not be the situation in the less developed nations which would have to arrive at approaches or criteria to determine their own demand on which to base their education and training system.

Although this manpower planning approach may not necessarily be a simple or easy task in practicality, some consideration must be given to its application by maritime planners. This would be advisable bearing in mind:

i) The truly international nature of the shipping industry with ships being constructed all over the world and being able to move unrestrictedly anywhere;

ii) Officers and crew being trained in various countries under different systems to serve on these ships;

iii) The high capital investments and recurrent costs of infrastructure, equipment personnel to meet internationally accepted training requirements;

iv) The needs to recruit students and candidates with an adequate background;

v) The difficulty and desirability of recruiting and utilising properly trained trainers and instructors.

vii) The continued integration of the maritime education and training in the normal education system; and

viii) the state of world shipping and trade.

It is, therefore, important that a developing maritime nation come to terms with the above factors in its desire to establish its own maritime education and training system.

e) Elements in Manpower Planning and Maritime Education and Training

An application of the concept of Manpower Planning as a tool in assisting in the development of a maritime education and training system there are some elements of planning which must be considered. They may operate either in isolation or various combinations as the particular circumstances may dictate. In addition these elements should not only be examined merely as concepts to assist in arriving at absolute numbers of personnel to be trained but also for the final decision on the system most appropriate for this situation.

Among these elements which can assist in the decision making process in the formulation of the basis for the establishment of a maritime and training system would be determination of:
determination of:

i) The objectives of the National Education and Training System.

ii) The philosophy of the system.

iii) The processes or procedures to effectively attain the objectives.

iv) The physical and human resource requirements for the system.

v) The infrastructural and institutional framework required to support the system.

f) Rationale for an Education and Training System.

The effectiveness, efficiency and value of manpower planning in the establishment and maintenance of a national maritime education and training system can be influenced either positively or adversely by the rationale either real or perceived which have been advanced for the need for such a system.

Some of this real or perceived rationale may include:

i) The desire to obtain a fair share of its own maritime trade.

ii) The ownership of a country's own national fleet for economic or security reasons.
iii) The provision of employment both at a national and international level for its seafarers.

iv) National prestige.

v) Political considerations.

vi) The training of seafarers specifically for employment on foreign ships.

g) World Shipping Scene and Manpower Planning in Maritime Education and Training.

Even while bearing in mind the Elements and Rationale referred to above, which can have impact on the establishment of a maritime education and training system, the realistic and practical experience in the existing world shipping scene must also be brought into focus. This latter situation can also affect systems which have already been established and have a long history.

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) (1986) in its report on "Major issues in world shipping" addressed some observations relevant to this issue at hand. These include:

i) On of the most pervasive characteristics of world shipping during the last decade has been a large and continuing imbalance between demand for and supply to tonnage which is again affecting practically all sectors of world shipping.

ii) In addition, most authoritative market forces now agree that international trade and hence the

-46-
requirement for tonnage would not increase in the foreseeable future.

iii) A return to a more balanced situation between supply and demand in world shipping will require a series of measures to be taken simultaneously in different areas and involving all parties concerned in particular, governments and intergovernmental organizations and representative organizations of ship owners and operators, shipbuilders, labour unions and ship financing sources. A separate section by individual governments and interest groups is not likely to be fully effective. Consultation and cooperation between governments and private interests on an ongoing basis is also essential.

iv) The recession in world shipping during the last decade has not resulted in a noticeable transfer of tonnage to developing countries.

v) The prolonged situation of subsidised over-capacity and stability in world shipping markets has been a major setback for long term planning of merchant fleet development in developing countries. Monopolistic practices which restrict access to cargo in certain trades continue to be an important factor in inhibiting participation by developing countries in bulk shipping.
h) Developing Country and Manpower Planning in Maritime Education and Training

The developing maritime nation proceeding towards the establishment of a maritime education and training system through the use of a manpower planning has the opportunity to examine and decide on many associated factors which can assist in the final decision making process. These however, should be examined in light of the experience of developed maritime states, the existing world shipping situation, national objectives and rationale and the pervading socio-economic climate of the particular state.

There are consequently many factors and elements which demand serious consideration in the application of the concept of manpower planning approach in the establishment of a maritime education and training system.

In addition all sectors of the maritime industry, maritime administration and interest groups must of necessity be part of and perform integral roles in this approach since each would bring to bear its own impact and influence on the final direction, operation and decision on the system which would eventually be put into place and be supported and maintained.

Among the elements which should be the subject of interest, scrutiny and interpretation in this approach are:

i) Survey of the maritime industry. This exercise should include:

a) Ship: information on the number of ships,
their characteristics, ages, equipment and machinery, ownership, status and condition of registry and manning levels both for national and international requirements would provide important planning data and information.

b) Ship Operations: The type of trade, that is, cargo, passenger, bulk, etc. and the relative role and socio-economic contribution of each at the national and international levels would also provide valuable input data.

c) Trading Pattern: The pattern, volume and economic value of the maritime trade as it may relate to coastal, internal, regional and international operations.

d) Development and Expansion Projections and Plans: the development plans of maritime industry as viewed by owners, shipping companies, the maritime administration and other shipping interest, especially as these relate to national perspectives and the world shipping situation must be another element of some importance.

ii) Manpower Supply: This human resource aspect of the data base for decision making should involve the total industry. This is necessary to establish the existing availability of the human resources and the extent to which the current needs are being satisfied in relation to services required and demanded. The categories of manpower under scrutiny here would include all those already
operating in the industry, trainees, trainers, shore based and seagoing personnel, administrators, examiners and planners. Aspects of information sought should be related to quantity, age, qualification, experience, educational background, level and type of training and certification, deployment in the industry, the compatibility of job specification and responsibility and qualification and experience, where training of those in the industry took place and the acceptability of the certification relative to national policy.

iii) Manpower Demand: The relation of the supply and deployment of appropriately qualified and certified human resource to satisfy the existing and projected demand of maritime is a most crucial area of investigation. If in fact there are discrepancies among these factors than the maritime education and training system can be informed as to the types, levels and numbers to be involved in upgrading and retraining, new training directions and categories, academic and other qualification of new trainees while bearing in mind the result obtained in (i) and (ii) above.

iv) Existing Education System: The establishment of a maritime education and training system should take cognisance of the existing normal educational system and how the systems can be integrated or complement each other to ensure the production of the qualified personnel identified as needed for the maritime industry in the other studies.
v) **Existing Institutional Framework:** The manpower studies and investigations should determine the contribution which existing institutional framework, agencies and organizations can make to the maritime education and training system insofar as they can assist in achieving the agreed objectives. It is likely that support can be available in terms of human resources (instructors), physical facilities and equipment among other areas.

iv) **Maritime Legislation:** The status and adequacy of national maritime legislation and its compatibility with accepted international guidelines is another important factor in the establishment of a maritime education and training system. Whereas national objectives would take precedence, the international nature of shipping would suggest that national guidelines comply with international standards.

vii) **Employment opportunities:** It is important that individuals coming out of the system be effectively deployed and a manpower plan can be instrumental in addressing this matter.

viii) **Cost:** The various facets of investigation in a manpower plan approach can provide a fair indication of costs to be incurred in establishing and maintaining the education and training system. The plan can also provide a guide to the cost-benefit of the system.
i) Manpower Planning in Decision in Establishing a Maritime Education and Training System.

A manpower plan can assist in informing the maritime administration on some of the more pertinent decisions which should be taken in the establishment of a maritime education and training system.

Assessing some of these are:

i) Whether or not a national maritime education and training system needs to be established at all.

ii) If the system is established, to what extent can it cater for all the national requirements in terms of trained maritime personnel.

iii) Whether each sector of the maritime industry should be treated separately or whether there should be some measure of integration and the level to which this integration can occur.

iv) The degree to which the total training requirements can be satisfied through the national system and what should be provided elsewhere.

v) The role which the existing normal education system can play in the maritime education and training system.

vi) The need for bilateral, regional or international cooperation in so far as this can be supportive of the national system.
vii) The need for and level of participation of more advance maritime nations in providing assistance in establishing the system to include the utilization of consultants and advicers.

viii) The institutional and physical infrastructure which is required to support the system agreed upon.

ix) The organizational and managerial structure and the type and level of participation of maritime interest groups in operation of the system.

The above factors though not exhaustive serve to illustrate the contribution which a well executed manpower plan can make on the decision-making process in the establishment of a national maritime education and training system.

REFERENCE


SUMMARY AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Adequate education and training of youth is one of the mainstays of the state. All the people of the state have to endure some sacrificed present good for the future prosperity of the state. Before closing this paper, I will briefly review the historical background of the seafarers education in developing countries which will contribute to our schemes for education and training systems of the seafarers in the future.

Since the most abundant resources available in most developing countries are human resources, the lead role and primary responsibility in harvesting such human resources and utilize them appropriately to maximum national advantage in the maritime field have to be assumed by the national governments. (The reasons and methodology have been explain in Chapter 3, section 3.3)

There are different categories of national seafarers who need to be trained, examined and certificated conforming to international standards and national requirements. (See Chapter 3)

Since adequate maritime training is expected to have the greatest effect upon efficiency and productivity in national maritime development, this aspect deserves important consideration.

There is undoubtedly a great need for a special maritime training institute in Namibia. Both the present and future size and structure of the fleet justifies such a suggestion. International conventions and requirements
will also put a strong obligation on maritime nations to have properly trained and qualified seafarers manning the ships of these nations in the future. This applies to both officers and ratings. The obvious advantages of having properly trained personnel should be stressed in this convention. Ships operated safely and efficiently could conserve national resources and greatly improve the transportation system of the country.

The need for training of both officers and ratings of a country’s fleets have been documented in this thesis (refer to Chapter III). By having a training institute in a country some of the problems involved in creating a maritime industry and the burden of utilizing scarce foreign exchange could be alleviated.

The size and flexibility of this institute in a country will be of great importance to the future development of maritime awareness and thus create a meaningful maritime transport infrastructure. Talking of flexibility, some points should be mentioned once the institute has been established.

The records show that many regional institutions that were established in the past have failed in the developing countries. Lessons have been learned and the same mistakes should never be repeated. In most of the cases the reasons have been of political, ideological and in rare cases economical nature.

The sub-region size, population and present inter-regional trade and internal trade calls for a systematic approach in its further development. The Road and Rail transport network in the sub-region is expanding.
gradually, but it is a known fact that water transport is the cheapest form of transport in the world. As the countries are geared to expand on these land modes of transport, great consideration should be given to look for ways and means of promoting maritime transport as well. The importance of the maritime industry as a whole in a country is considerable, not only for the international trade but also for the inter-regional trade and especially now that there is an effective regional trade corporation through Preferential Trade Area (known as PTA).

I have a strong belief and am convinced that Namibia will be able to finance the maritime training institute once followed the guidances provided by IMO. In this connection IMO has no adequate resources of its own for this purpose, but the organization is well placed to mobilize assistance from member countries who are willing and able to help.

It should be said that the prime purpose of training is to ensure that ships are operated safely and efficiently. Training leading to recognised qualifications is also necessary to attract a sufficient supply of able men and to prepare those already serving for the many technological and managerial changes which are taking place.

These changes will continue; they are already having a pronounced effect on the training that is required, not only in other industries but in shipping throughout the world. In this respect, I have noted the growth of international discussion of training of seafarers, particularly in the International Labour Organization (ILO) and International Maritime Organization (IMO).
Against this background of change, my object in this is to take a close look at present system of training and qualification for the sea in this country and to indicate the changes which I consider necessary to ensure that it will meet future needs efficiently. There are four important guidelines which I have chosen to follow.

First, it is impossible to say at the present time just how the ship of the 1980s and 1990s will be named and what blend of knowledge and skills her crews will require. This suggests that the future system must be flexible in order to respond to new training needs as they become apparent.

Second, there must be a more coherent pattern of education, training and qualifications for the seafarers; it must also be more closely related to the national pattern and thus able to equip it better for employment in industries ashore as well as at sea.

Third, the general level of education in the country is rising and this must be reflected in maritime transport.

Forth, in contrast to present practice, the future system should be considered in terms of cost effectiveness and of the relevant cost to the community as a whole, and not only of that to the industry.

Short refresher courses for deck officers should form a recognised part of training; it should be compulsory for officers to attend them with stated periods. The training of every deck cadet should be systematic and progressive
and should qualify of nationally accepted value, which
will be recognized as such by employers generally.

The minimum education entry standard for deck cadets
of three 'O' level, GCE passes or equivalent should be
enforced and this standard should be raised as soon as
possible.

A preferential route to a degree and command of a ship
should be provided for able young men with 'A' level or
equivalent qualifications.

Every deck cadet should follow a sandwich form of
training including pre-sea and mid-cadetship release
training at the maritime institute/college. The general
standard of supervision of training ratings on the job
should be improved.

The recruitment and training arrangements for engine-
room ratings should be brought into line with those for
other ratings; consideration should be given to the
introduction of courses to train experienced ratings to
become mechanics and the arrangements to assist engine-
room ratings to become certificated engineer officers
should be reviewed.

General purpose training for ratings should be
progressively introduced on an industrial wide basis; this
training should be concentrated at the National Sea
Training School.

Finance for training in other countries: From the
information I have, it would appear that all governments
provide some measures of financial help, but the nature
and extent of such assistance varies from country to country.

I understand that for training establishments the French central government provide full financing, in Norway full financing is borne by local and central governments, and in the Federal Republic of Germany full financing is borne by the Länder. In the Netherlands the cost seem to be shared by central and local governments. I do assume that the government of Namibia may share the same view.

As regards the cost of tuition, whereas in most countries some fees are charged, in France the government appears to meet almost all the costs. In Sweden the government grants loans to students to enable them to buy school materials (books, etc) for a specific period of time. However, students are usually helped to meet the cost fees and maintenance by such means as interest-free loans and industrial scholarships; some governments pay unemployment benefits to seafarers attending certain courses and others make it easier for them to bear part of the cost of training.

I am, of course, aware of the dangers of trying to reach final conclusions on the basis of international comparisons. However, from the evidence which I have been able to examine, it would appear that ship owners make a greater contribution to the cost of training than some of their competitors in other countries. This is specially true of Norway and France where the owner's contribution seems to be minimal. On the other, I acknowledge the force of some industrialists' arguments for additional financial assistance from the government. Moreover, I think that the
changing line between further education and vocational training is more blurred for seafarers than it is in some other industries. This in itself leaves room for differences of view as to the respective shares of training cost that might reasonably be borne by the industry and by the state.

No policy is absolutely right, no policy is absolutely wrong. Create your own and do not just copy others.

Before deciding on a future policy for maritime education and training a thorough assessment and evaluation of the present situation should be made. Then a MET policy can be decided upon. In Namibia it might be a good start to specify a MET policy in accordance with STCW minimum requirements and meeting the personnel requirements of shipping companies. However, it is advisable to give students a basis with enough flexibility to cater with any future developments.

It would appear that there is a need for more mathematics, basic science and computer technology. This would enable students to develop an understanding of the complex technological systems of the future.

This would be the reason for integrating MET into the general education system of the country, so that it could benefit from the advantages which have already been achieved.

Moreover, a close link with the general education system could facilitate an exchange of teaching staff between the Maritime Academy and the University of Namibia (if any).

-61-
On the international level close contact with IMO, being the only UN agency solely devoted to maritime activities, would facilitate contact with their advisors in the maritime field. Close contact with maritime academics in developed and developing countries should be developed and maintained to enable exchange of views and ideas.

The position of the academy will be enhanced after the first short courses and refresher courses have been developed for seafarers and port and shipping personnel. In this area a profit could be made.

Finally if the financial situation allowed, the professional level of the graduates could be raised by the introduction of simulator training. This would also enable the academy to begin a research program.

It is also best to mention that the government machinery responsible for policy and supervision of education and training in Namibia should be:-

(a) The Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture which by constitutional mandate directly concerned with the supervision of all public and private institutions of learning. The department of Education of (MEC) is concerned with the supervision of all post secondary courses, hence maritime education comes under its responsibility.

(b) There should be a national seamen board (NSB) created under the Presidential decree known as Labour Code of the Republic of Namibia is the agency charged primarily with registration,
employment promotion and coordination of training to meet the requirements of employers and is also tasked to develop qualification standards for seamen in Namibia.

(c) the maritime industry authority should be created by virtue of Presidential decree. This agency provides inter alia, for the establishment and support to a system of maintaining and developing a reservoir of trained manpower to meet the current and future needs of the industry. The above mentioned should be the government agencies concerned with maritime education, training, examination and licensing.

In conclusion, the additional training and manpower development needs that can be foreseen in the near future includes, in broad terms, the following:

- the formal and on-the-job-training of staff required for manning posts to handle new functions in the field of maritime affairs, transport planning and policy formulation etc.

- An increase in environment of trainees and capacity to train some of the skills which are in short supply or where shortages can develop in view of a possible higher staff turnover.

- The development of bridging programmes in order to widen the basis for recruitment to the functional training programmes offered by IMO in the short term. The recruitment to these bridging courses would essentially be based on aptitude testing. In a longer perspective, the requirements of the functional training programmes obviously need to be addressed through reforms of the general education system and where necessary, the formulation career
paths, including an identification or additional formal and on-the-job-training required to speed up the advancement of Namibians trained abroad, with an inadequate experience according to the required qualification.
1. Morrison W.S.G. - Submission on "International Cooperation" at the International Conference on Shipborne Personnel Rijeka, Yugoslavia. 4-7 May 1982 Organized by International Maritime Lectures Association. (IMLA)


