1995

REPORT ON THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN AFRICA

EDUCATION STRATEGIES FOR THE 1990 s : ORIENTATIONS AND ACHIEVEMENTS

UNESCO

BREDA

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UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (BREDA)

September 1995

Published in 1995 by UNESCO/DAKAR
BP3311, DAKAR, SENEGAL
ISBN 92-9091-046-1

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Acknowledgement

Activities leading to the production of this Report have involved a large number of persons other than the Staff of UNESCO BREDA, and the members of the Advisory Committee oil Regional Cooperation in Education in Africa. Initial research work and writing were undertaken by Albert Faye, Anton De Grauwe, Promise Okpala, Epitace Rurimwishigaand Alle Diop.

Typing and retyping of the multiple versions was by Fatime Faye.

In the concluding stages, the work benefited from tile beautiful editorial and production inputs of Jacob Jaygbay. To all these and others who worked behind the scenes, BREDAexpresses through this medium its sincere gratitude. Tables and graphs are based essentially on data from various issues of the UNESCO Statistical Year Book.

Preface

The dream to institutionalise the publication on a biennal basis of the *Report on the State of Education in Africa* began in 1992. After consultations at different levels a proposal was submitted to the first meeting of the Advisory Committee on Regional Cooperation in Education in Africa which met in UNESCO-Dakar in March 1994. The Committee saw the dream as a worthwhile one and its members pledged to contribute to its realisation.

It was decided that the dream should be a logical follow-up to the Jomtien EDUCATION FOR ALL initiative and the recommendations of the sixth conference of Ministers of Education and those Responsible for Economic Planning he African Member States of UNESCO (MINEDAF Vl) held in Dakar in Jelly 1991. This link explains the sub-title of the present publication: EDUCATION STRATEGIES FOR THE 1990s, which was he fact the theme of MINEDAF Vl.

The Report thus focuses on efforts within the Africa region to put the recommendations of MINEDAF Vl into effect. Educational development always takes place in a political, socio-economic and cultural context. The general introduction is a summary presentation of this context, as it applied to Africa in the period 1990-95. The African condition has been the subject of numerous other publications by other agencies. Here, the intention is not to reproduce what has already been said elsewhere, but to situate efforts to develop education within this overall pervading context.

Part I presents an overview of on-going educational developments in the region. A lot is said on the constraints, but the reader's attention is particularly drawn to the achievements. The publication thus gives particular prominence to *The Strategies for the 1990s* recommended by MINEDAF Vl: expansion, generalisation and consolidation of basic education, obeying the precept of each Nation according to its specific needs and conditions. These needs and conditions are outlined in the introduction to the section. A chapter i s devoted to the progress of Iiteracy.

It has not been possible to cite the case of every country in Africa, but some effort has been made to present *illustrative examples*. There is a particular focus on innovations, to show the extent to which African States have kept to the Jomtien injunction of trying viable alternatives.

The period covered by the report (the first half of the 1990s) has been one of serious crises in the education sector, for Africa and for the entire world. In what form were these crises manifested in Africa? What has been Africa's response to them? Part 11 of the Report attempts to provide answers to these questions. It surveys issues related to educational reform in general: the education of girls and women, science and technology education, population/environment education, higher education and research in education. The emphasis here is on the extent to which an awareness of these issues has arisen and on the efforts being made (in spite of the difficult period which Africa is currently going through) to meet the challenges.

Annexed to the Report is a set of illustrative statistics on Education in Africa. The detailed statistics are the subject of a separate, regular publication of UNESCO-Dakar, known as BREDA-STAT.

Publications on education in Africa are not lacking. The Report has in fact benefited from a close study of almost every other work in circulation on the subject. What the Report has attempted to add is to emphasise the point that *there is still a great deal of hope for Education in Africa, due to the courage cad determination of Africans and their development partners.*

The last section of the Report in fact dwells on the whole issue of partnership for educational development in the region. We do hope that the Report will in itself be of use to all partners, oil whose collaboration we count to ensure its continuing production.

Pai Obanya
Director, UNESCO Regional Office
for Education in Africa (BREDA)
Dakar, Senegal
September 1995

General Introduction

Africa Within the Global Evolutionary Process: 1990-95

The 1990s have been characterised by profound changes in society and by a widening of economic and social disparities. The collapse Lithe Soviet block put an end to the cold war and a bipolar world. Liberalism seemed to have emerged triumphant, and henceforth market forces have become the sole regulators of the exchanges of goods and services within the context of a world economy moving towards globalisation. The collapse of the Berlin Wall symbol of the repression has ushered in a new era for democracy and human rights.

These profound changes have been a source of deep concern as well as of hope for the African continent. Deep concern with the persistent economic crisis. I he implementation of structural adjustment policies for more than a decade has not produced the expected results. The debt burden continues to weigh down heavily on African countries and poverty has nowhere been significantly alleviated. There is at the same time reason for hope, because the changes in the international scene have marked the beginning of a period of transition towards political pluralism, trade unionism and universal flow of information as the new foundations for participation in development that is fully in line with human freedom.

Internal and External Dimensions of Africa's Dilemma

Internal Factors

In addition to harsh geographic and climatic conditions, a series of structural phenomena has hindered the development efforts in the Africa region.

Overdependence, in numerous domains and its many manifestations, has been a major characteristic. For instance, African economies depend on a very limited number of export products. In 1990, for example, cotton accounted for 50 percent of the exports of Chad, coffee for 75 percent of the exports of Burundi, oil for 80 percent of those of Gabon and the Congo, and bauxite for 86 percent of the exports of Guinea. This lack of diversification of export products is a source of permanent insecurity for a large number of the countries of Africa.

The current demographic statistics constitute a constraint. In 1990, the total population of the continent rose to 642 million, and it is estimated at 739 million by 1995. Africa has the highest rate of population growth in the world. Between 1985 and 1990 the rate was 2.95 percent. It is estimated at 3.08 percent between 1995 and the year 2000. By the year 2025, Africa is likely to have doubled its 1992 population figure, and will house 19 percent of the world's total population.

This rapid population growth has implications for school enrolment, for the number of school age children likely to be out of school and for the number of potential adult illiteracy. At the global level available resources are likely to be insufficient for the needs of the population, and there is a risk of the majority falling into the cycle of poverty.

The external debt is yet another factor, Africa's debt burden being the heaviest in the world. In 1991, external indebtedness for sub-Saharan Africa was 110 percent of GNP, while it was 58 percent for the Middle East and North Africa, 41 percent for Latin America and the Caribbean and 34 percent for South Asia (UNICEF 1994b).The ratio of debt to exports, in]990 for example, was 33 percent for Kenya, 38.6 percent for Cote d'lvoire, 47.2 percent for Madagascar, 54.61 for Uganda and 59.4 percent for Algeria. According to UNICEF:

> the annual debt payment of over 10 billion dollars is paralysing, seeing that it is four times as high as the amount that Africa allocates to its health services and much higher than the total allocation for health and child education.

Another very important factor is political instability and the persistence *of* internal conflicts. While some countries such as Ethiopia and Mozambique

have emerged from civil war, certain others such as Burundi, Sierra Leone and Liberia are still in tile woes of internal conflict. Civil war has destroyed the identity of other countries such as Somalia. In the Sudano-Sahelian fringe, an uneasy coexistence between blacks and Arabo-Berbers has degenerated into bitter conflict, as in Sudan. The absence of war is no guarantee of peace and stability, as the example of Zaire indicates. Beyond the millions of lives destroyed and of refugees, internal conflicts in Africa have continued to destroy basic development infrastructures such as schools, health centres, roads and cultivated fields. 'It is estimated that armed conflict on the continent currently affects the Iives of at least 5 percent of boys and girls in Africa, some 16 million of them in all' (UNICEF 1994b).

External Factors

The survival of Africa also depends to a very large extent on the world's overall economic and political environment. Any threat to economic growth in the industrialised countries has its repercussions on tile African economy. The industrialised countries experienced economic recession, with the real growth rate in tile G7 countries declining from 3.3 percent to 1.2 percent for the period 1991-93. During the same period, real growth rate in the OECD countries varied from 3.2 percent to 1.1 percent. Tire economic evolution of Africa has followed the same trend. Real growth rate, in GDP tends, fell from 3.0 percent between 1974 and 1980, then to 1.9 percent between 1981 and 1990. It is estimated at 1.7 percent for tile period 1991-93 (World Bank 1994c).

A second external factor contributing to the fragility of African economies is tile instability of the prices of raw materials in the international market. The fall of the prices of raw materials in real tends has continued since the 1 970s, although there have been some notable variations. For example, the price of cocoa, constant since 1990, went from 269 cents/kg in 1970 to 362 cents/kg in 1980, then to 329 cents/kg in 1985, 127 cents/kg in 1990 and 104 cents/kg in 1993 (World Bank 1994d). Other basic products (except timber) have experienced a similar price slump, their real prices diminishing by half between l980 aid 1990.

Africa, during the period under review, has suffered from a decline in the transfer of capital. Since the 1980s, there has been a decline of net transfers of resources in the name of public financing of development, the amount of this varying between 27 billion and 25 billion between 1990 and 1992. Also, since 1988, sub-Saharan Africa has been involved in the long term negative flow of capital in the frond of payment of the principal and of interest on debt, to the tune of 0.7 billion in 1988, 3.5 billion in 1992 and an estimated 2.1 billion in 1993 (World Bank 1994e).

Trends Towards the Marginalisation of Africa

All these factors coupled with protectionism in a number of industrialised countries have contributed to the marginalisatioll of Africa in hiteniatiolial trade. The share of developing countries in international trade, estimated at 46 percent in 1970 (8 percent of which was for Africa), was no more than 41 percent in 1990, out of which Africa's share has plummeted to 4 percent. This fall was accompanied by a substantial loss of part of the market for basic products. Claus, while the African share of the world coffee market was 31 percent in 1970, it came down to as low as 19 percent in 1990. At the same time, her share of tile market for cocoa fell from 76 percent to 64 percent, that for palm oil from 20 percent to 3 percent, and that for cotton from 16 percent to 11 percent. Only a few minerals maintained or inreased their shares, for example phosphates rising from 7 percent to 10 percent, bauxite from 10 percent to 47 percent, and crude oil from 4 percent to 7 percent.

This phenomenon of margilialisation has been reinforced by custom barriers and harsh tariff and non-tariff measures, resulting in a limitation on the volume of imports from developing countries. The UNDP(1994) estimated that non-tariff barriers are responsible for an annual loss of export revenue of 24 billion US dollars *To* this should be added the effects of the recommendations of the Uruguay Round negotiations, which eliminated the commercial advantages that African. Caribbean, and Pacific Compel countries used to en joy in their trade relations with the EEC, by throwing these privileges open to other regions of the world in the name of trade liberalisation.

Thus Africa which decided to establish a common economic community, within 34 years from the Treaty of Abuja of 1991, now finds it self an extremely weak position, *vis-à-vis* today's dominant regional economic powers: North America, Asia and the European Union.

The Unending Economic Crisis and the Pursuit of Structural Adjustment Programmes

Africa is currently undergoing an economic and social crisis characterised mainly by a fall in production, an increase in unemployment and the aggravation of poverty, all this in spite of the adoption of structural adjustment policies.

Decline in Production

The decline in production has been most noticeable in the agricultural sector, whose already weak contribution to *GNP* showed a net decrease from 7 percent in 1980 to 0.3 percent in 1990, then to 0.6 percent he 1992. The persistence of drought in a number of countries is a major explanation for this trend. The weakness of the agricultural sector stems from the fact that about 75 percent of the producers work on small family plots where they engage in subsistence farming, with only a small surplus left for commercialisation. What is more, 33 percent-45 percent of these small agricultural producers are not able to feed their families solely on the basis of their own production. Worse still 10 percent of the rural population are agricultural workers without land, working for large land owners as occasional labour. In the context of structural adjustment policies, these peasants who are the net consumers of food products have witnessed only a continuing deterioration in their living conditions.

The economic crisis has led to a number of African countries experiencing the phenomenon of 'de-industrialisation'. Large numbers of industries have shut down, while others have been forced to operate at a level very much below their installed capacity. Thus, Ghanaian industries could only function at 21 percent of their installed capacity in 1982 and 40 percent in 1989. In Nigeria, industries operated at 35 percent of their installed capacity in 1986-1987. In various other countries, the contribution of industry to GDP has remained stagnant or even suffered a decline.

Decline in Revenues and the Rise of Unemployment

In the agricultural sector, the slump in the market prices for raw materials has prompted some countries to give priority to the cultivation of food products for consumption, at the expense of export products. The result has been a drop of approximately 15 percent in total revenue from agriculture. This precarious nature of revenue from the agricultural sector has been accentuated by rural-urban migration.

The drive to reduce budget deficits has led governments to the adoption of draconian staff reduction measures, such as freezing of recruitment into the public service, and the discontinuance of guaranteed employment for young school leavers. In Ghana, for example, between 1986 and 1990, almost 60,000 persons lost their jobs in the public service and in the parastatals. Staff reduction in civil service during the same period reached a figure of around 40,000 in Guinea, 27,000 in Tanzania and 16,000 in Cameroon. In the building sector, employment went down by more than 30 percent he Mauritius, Niger, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zambia, and by more than 20 percent he Benin, Kenya and Malawi between 1980 and 1985, essentially because of restrictions on public spending (United Nations 1993).

Unemployment is most severe in the case of young persons aged 15-24. They he fact constitute two-thirds to three quarters of the total number of unemployed. Also twice as many women as men are unemployed and there is a tendency for them to remain so even beyond the age of 25. The rate of unemployment of educated persons tend to be higher than of persons who have not been to 'school. For example in Algeria, in]989, 9.2 percent of the unemployed had no formal education, 24.23 percent had only primary level education, 28.9 percent had secondary education and 5.8 percent had higher education. In Ghana in 1988 figures were 3.4 percent of the unemployed with no formal education, 7.6 percent with primary education, 13.5 percent with secondary education and 14.7 percent with higher education.

As a means of survival, large numbers of the unemployed have gone into the informal sector, which in 1990 absorbed more than 60 percent of

urban workers in sub-Saharan Africa. Figures for this sector are however not often reliable and great care has to be taken in recommending the informal sector as the sure alternative to the problems of unemployment in Africa.

Increasing Incidence of Poverty

It is estimated that, in 1985, 180 million persons (or some 51 percent of the total population of Africa) lived in absolute poverty. The number is expected to rise to 265 million or some 43 percent of the population, by the year 2000. The number of Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in Africa rose from 17 in 1978 to 33 in 1995. Poverty is currently a big threat to Africa's rural population, 55 percent to 60 percent of whom now live below the poverty line. It is also a threat to persons living in urban areas. And everywhere, women are more heavily afflicted by poverty than men.

The World Bank, in a recent report on structural adjustment in Africa (1994), stated that:

> greater drive towards adjustment and certainly no diminishing of effort avid be good to improve the conditions of the poor and of the environment. Nevertheless sub-Saharan Africa can achieve an economic growth rate of only 3.3 percent throughout the entire period of 1994-2000, although the rate of growth needed to reduce the incidence of poverty should he at least 4.7 percent per annum.

In any case most of the adjustment measures have had a direct and negative impact on the poor. For example, in Madagascar: 'the reduction of subsidies on local and imported rice has affected most severely the poorest inhabitants of the capital, their consumption of the commodity has fallen by 31 percent as against an average of 15 percent in urban areas' (United Nations 1993).

Depending on the length of time adjustment programmes have been in operation, they have tended in many countries to become more and more strictly sectoral in nature. Almost everywhere, stabilisation measures have led to very severe reductions in national budgets.

The social sectors (education, health, welfare) has been the hardest hit, as that sector is not usually considered directly productive. However, the severe criticisms of UNICEF and the alternative frameworth proposals of the ECA have led to the social dimension being taken more fully into account in structural adjustment programmes.

The economic crisis in the context of structural adjustment measures has contributed to a continued decline in gross capital expenditure per capita. This was as high as $170 in 1975 (1987 dollar constant value) but fell to $100 in 1985, then to $90 in 1990 and $80 in 1992 (World Bank 1994b).

There is no unanimity on the impact of structural adjustment measures. For the World Bank (1994):

> the improvement of macroeconomic policies is correlated not only with a major change in the growth rate of GNPper capita hut also with a higher me of general economic growth We countries which have most improved their macroeconomic policies are Nose which have experienced positive growths of CNPper capita for the period 1987-91, while those whose policies have deteriorated have registered negative growth rates (World Bank 1994f).

On the other hand, the ECA, while not questioning the need for structural reforms, considers these conclusions rather hasty, as they have not taken account of improvements in climatic conditions.

Structural adjustment measures, (based on full liberalisation of exchanges and integration into the international market) are capable of hindering the move towards African integration and thus making African economies much more fragile.

Political Transition Operating at Varying Wavelengths

In the 1980s the worsening economic crisis of the period exposed the fragility of existing political regimes. Political transformation towards greater democratisation became inevitable, in accordance with the new international order of the 1990s.

In practice, the political transition followed two different paths for Francophone and Anglophone Africa. In most of the Francophone countries, the movement towards societal transformation found expression in the organisation of national conferences as was the case in Benin, Congo, Mali Niger, Togo and Zaire. Some of the see were styled 'sovereign' and were said to bring together the major interest groups within the respective nations. This claim tended to accord the conferences some measure of legitimacy.

The era of national conferences was a very crucial one, as it gave free reign to freedom of expression in places where heads of state had had a long-standing total control of the news media. The conferences also gave precedence to the African tradition of group decision-making.

In the Anglophone countries, the transition has tended to be relatively brief, it took the form of institutional reforms instituting multipartyism directly followed by general elections as has been the case in Zambia, Kenya, Ghana, and Malawi.

Since 1990, snore than thirty African countries have organised multiparty general elections. Multipartyism is however not necessarily synonymous with democracy. The political transition has given rise to a variety of political situations, characterised by the following four major trends.

First, those group of countries of Southern Africa, colonialism finally came to an end, as did apartheid. Independent Namibia for example, has created political institutions which have impressed most observers. In South Africa, after a period of progressively modifying discriminatory laws, apartheid was eliminated. The new multiracial, multicultural and pluralist South Africa is generally believed to have bright prospects and the country is now widely perceived as the major driving force of the subregion.

Second, countries which have experienced successful political transitions, such as Benin, Cape Verde, Zambia and Ghana. Elections have brought along new political arrangements and in certain cases the former opposition parties have come to power. These countries have witnessed a boom in NGOs, grassroots organisations, independent newspapers and trade unions. Everyone seems to be taking full advantage of the opportunities offered by freedom of expression and of associations. There are, however, ominous signs on the horizon, as the newly acquired political stability is being threatened by worsening economic situations.

In the third group are countries like Zaire, Algeria and Nigeria in which the problems of political transition seems to be dragging on and on. Contentions between certain well entrenched political leaders and emergent opposition groups seeking to displace the old leaders have combined to plunge some of these countries into deeper political instability.

Fourth, there are those countries in a state of national catastrophe caused by civil conflicts or by war, such as Somalia, Rwanda, Angola, Liberia and Sudan. In such countries infrastructures such as roads, schools, hospitals, houses and administrative structures have I been almost completely destroyed. Populations have been decimated and millions of persons have been forced into refugee camps, while thousands of children have been orphaned or separated from their parents. In Burundi for example, the crisis of 1993 caused the death of more than 50,000 persons within a few weeks, displaced more than 250,00() in the interior of the country and brought about the flight of about a million refugees . 1 n Rwanda, more than 100,000 chi Idren were abandoned, a large majority of them of school-age, as a result of the ethnic war of April 1994.

The above tableau indicates however that in spite of some dark clouds, Africa is in the process of turning a new page he its history. Already, a new form of relationship between those in power and those in opposition can be observed he many countries. Power-sharing is being promoted as a means of managing existing social cleavages which could be potential sources of ethnic, religious, regional, racial or linguistic conflicts. The ability of persons in political power to rise above such cleavages by the development of widely accepted national programmes is one way of ensuring legitimacy. This is particularly so when the development of such programmes involves popular participation (youths, women, local communities and association) in the decision-making process.

Impact on Educational Policies

The crises and the profound changes which have characterised the period 1990-1995 have had serious repercussions on the educational system. In like manner, the evolution of the educational environment has left its mark on the ongoing process of social transformation. Democratisation is being imbibed by the educational milieu, resulting in a greater freedom of expression in educational policy matters. The economic crisis has led to a greater insistence on efficiency, while at the inter-

national level, the idea of enlarged partnerships for the development of education has gained much ground.

Education and the Vicissitudes of the Economic and Social Crisis

African education made remarkable progress in the decade of the 1970s. In the decade of the 1980s,this excellent base was severely eroded by the economic crisis. However since the beginning of the 1990s, all partners in education have shown a renewed commitment to reversing the decline of the previous decade.

Total enrolment in al l three levels of formal education rose from 54.4million in 1975 to 116.5 million in 1992. At the primary level, enrolment rose from 45.1 million to 86.1 million; at the secondary level from 8.3 million to 27.1 million, and at the tertiary level from 929,000 to 3.3 million. However, the period since the] 970s has witnessed two phases: a phase of growth (from 1975-1980) and a phase of decline since then. Decline in enrolment was most severe at the primary level (7.2 percent in 1975-1980 to 2.3 percent in 1981-1990). Over the two phases enrolment at the secondary level fell from 1 1.7 percent to 5.1 percent and at the tertiary level from 10.7 percent to 5.5 percent.

As a result of the economic crisis and of structural adjustment programmes during the 1980s, Africa was tile only region of the world that reduced its per capita expenditure on education. White developing countries as a block devoted an average of $30 to educational expenditure per capita in 1980, $27 in 1985, $39 in 1990 and $49 in 1992, sub-Sahara Africa devoted only $42 in 1980, $26 in 1985, $28 in 1990 and again $28 in 1992. Wheat is worse, a huge proportion of the expenditure is consumed by the salaries of teaching and administrative personnel, leaving very little for other inputs, and most especially for teaching or learning materials.

Worse still tile educational resources which, already far from adequate, were further destroyed by multiple students strikes. The phenomenon of 'cancelled? academic years was experienced in several countries such as Central African Republic, Senegal, Niger and Mali.

The general climate of political instability has led to a lack of continuity in the pursuit of educational policies and projects. This is reflected in the frequent changes of personnel in the education sector. Internal conflicts, as well as the brutal and wanton killing of teachers, parents and pupils have brought about tile deterioration of infrastructures and forced thousands of children to flee from the school and into refugee camps.

Even in less extreme cases, pupils and students and their parents, distressed by tile educational crisis and the lack of employment prospects, have lost confidence in the educational systems. Africa has therefore found itself faced with a veritable 'dilemma of education': What education for what society'?

It is within this overall context that the Jomtien Conference and MINEDAF Vl can be situated. These two meetings dwelt mainly on meeting the learning needs of all categories of the population; from chi Idren of pre-school age and illiterates, to out-of-school youth and adult.

Democratisation of Education

The commitment of African countries to achieving Education for All has been beset by a number of obstacles. For historical and political reasons, the allocation of resources to education continues to be to tile advantage of second level and tertiary education. For example in 1990, tile average public expenditure per pupil in sub-Sahara Africa was $42 at the pre-school and elementary level, $150 at the secondary level and $1,405 at the university level.

In addition, organised interest groups exercise considerable pressure on the State in order to safeguard or enhance their position, students calling for the retention of the policy of generalised bursary awards, teachers calling for the improvement of their conditions of service, linguistic groups for special treatment for their communities (for example tile teaching of Tamachek in Niger and of tile Berber language in Algeria); and so on.

The democratisation of education poses a very special challenge (in terms of access) for tile female population. With the exception of a few countries where the percentage of girls in school has already reached 49 or 50 percent, (Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Gabon, Tanzania Mauritius, Seychelles, Rwanda and Madagascar), the education of girls is posing tile problems of justice and

equity. The Panafrican Conference on the Education of Girls, held in Ouagadougou in 1993, affirmed that:

26 million African youths most of them living in the rural milieu have not been to school, and the number is estimated to rise to 36 million by the year 2000.

Illiteracy rates for women are higher than 60 percent in many of the countries, and in 22 of these the difference in the gross enrolment ratio between boys and girls at the primary level is as high as 20 percent.

There is however an increasing awareness of the critical role of women's education in social change, economic development, the reduction of birth rate, good health, and the education of children. This awareness has led to the development of appropriate plans of action.

National Consultations on Education

A number of African countries have organised national consultations aimed at finding appropriate solutions to the crisis in education. The first national forum of this type was held in Senegal in 1981, under the title of 'Etats Generaux de l'Education et de la Formation' (National Consultations on Education and Training), at which all interest and opinion groups were represented. The participants approved a document defining the orientations of an *Ècole nouvelle* (the new school) which ought to be national, democratic and popular (Thiaw, B., l993).

Since the 1990s, other African countries such as Mali, Niger, Burkina Faso, The Gambia? the Central African Republic, Cameroon and Chad have organised similar consultations. The importance of these consultations is that they helped to awaken the consciousness of all stake holders in education. They were aimed at diagnosing the ills of the system, and achieving a national consensus on the general thrust of national educational policy. The extent to which the objectives of the 'new directions' mapped out by these consultations can be achieved has however remained problematic, for financial and logistic reasons.

Financial Considerations

According to the International Conference on Assistance to Children organised by the OAU and UNICEF in 1992, the total supplementary recurrent costs of achieving universal primary Education for All in Africa during the period 1990 to 2000 is as high as $26 billion. This amount can be brought down to $15 billion if reforms in cost reduction and expenditure transfers and quality improvement are implemented.

The financing of education requires changes in the policy of allocation of resources. With a stress on the social sectors, and on ensuring equity between rural and urban areas (as opposed to indulging for example on heavy expenditures on state security).

The prevailing harsh financial situations resulting from the economic crisis would require innovative methods of management of the costs of education. For this to happen three major strategies are worth considering.

First, cost saving strategies which usually take the form of innovations in the training and recruitment of teachers, community responsibility for meeting certain costs of education, and increases in pupil-teacher ratios.

Second, cost recovery strategies which involve reducing state expenditure by transferring a part or the whole of specific cost burden to the beneficiaries. One of the methods used he this connection has been increase in fees or the introduction of new ones (examination fees, and fees for the provision of books and educational materials etc.).

Thirdly, strategies involving quality improvement: the transfer to education of a larger proportion of the budget to regular payment of teachers' salaries, and improvement of the social image of the teaching profession. In addition, measures need to be taken to reduce class repetition and school drop-outs.

Such strategies are dictated by the economic crisis and by structural adjustment policies. Their implementation may not bet without posing problems of equity, which could lead to reduced educational access for low income groups. One of the most

effective measures for overcoming such problems is the strengthening of partnerships.

Strengthening of Partnerships for Education

The *World Declaration on Education for All* in its article 7 emphasises the need to strengthen partnerships and calls for the creation of new and more active partners at all levels. Promoting of partnerships has also become a leitmotif in different national consultations on Education. For example, in the Central African Republic, the National Consultation on Education (May/June 1994), called upon the State, local communities, parent-teacher associations, teachers, pupils and students, workers and employers organisations, the media, religious bodies and international organisations, each in keeping with its concerns to play a more active role in the development of education. Also, the document on the 'New School ' in Senegal (in seeking to integrate pupils into their natural milieu) recommends that the community should take over more of the responsibility for education, including the responsibilities for decision-making.

At the national level, the spirit of partnership is seen ill such measures as voluntary contributions by pupils and students, the construction of schools by the community, contribution by private bodies, both lay and religious, to education, the involvement of NGOs and the participation of business and other economic concerns.

At the international level, the Jomtien Conference has recommended that:

> the development agencies establish policies fund plums lot the 1990s. in line with their commitments to sustained. long-term support for national and regional actions and increase their financial and technical assistance to basic education.

Today, a consensus has been established on the absolute priority of investment in human resources, as the very foundation for the process of overall development.

Part I
Major Trends in Educational Development in the Region, in Response to the Recommendations of MINEDAF Vl

Introduction

The Jomtien World Conference on Education for All decided on education for all by the year 2000 as the world's number one development agenda item. When African ministers of education met in Dakar a year later, they realised that for most African countries this was a very important challenge. MINEDAF Vl therefore amended Jomtien's recommendations so as to reflect the diversity of the conditions of the continents Recommendation I thus identified four groups of countries, on the basis of their net enrolment ratio at the primary level, as follows:

- Countries with net enrolment ratio of less than 40 percent, whose enrolment ratio should be doubled;
- Countries with net enrolment ratio of between 40 and 49 percent, which should aim at a target of 75 percent;
- Countries with net enrolment ratio of between 50 and 70 percent, which should aim at a target of 80 percent;
- For the other countries, the aim should be universal school enrolment.

In recognition of the different needs and potential of the four groups of countries, district strategies were proposed, described as follows in the working document of the MINEDAF Vl Conference (MINEDAF Vl, l991a, p.2 1-29).

Countries with a primary net enrolment rate of less than 50 percent need to focus on the expansion of primary education and the promotion of adult literacy. This expansion strategy will work along three paths:

- The promotion of non-formal education: the fact is that the bulk of the population does not have access to formal education systems but it cannot be completely left to one side. Innovative practices in this field must be promoted.
- The further development and renovation of primary education: primary education is an absolute priority for these countries, and yet the idea is not to universalise the education system as it is operating today. Two elements are stressed in this regard: generating a maximum return from the existing systems and giving education a fresh lease of life by introducing a new generation of reforms.
  • Basic education however is part of a system and the priorities assigned to basic education and literacy cannot be dissociated from the strategic options adopted for the other educational levels. This implies, *inter alia,* at these levels the need to increase efficiency, to improve quality and to control spending.

The second group of countries, those with a primary net enrolment rate between 50 and 70 percent, does not have a greatly different set of priorities. Their aim must be to generalise, to universalise basic education. Here also, high priority is attached to promoting literacy among young people and adults. The same is true for primary education, which calls for the closest attention. Arguably, the stress is here somewhat more on qualitative than on quantitative development. As far as the secondary, vocational and higher educational levels are concerned, the guidelines aim at stepping up efficiency and relevance under comprehensive economic and social development policies.

The countries whose primary net enrolment rate is over 70 percent need to consolidate that position. While the quantitative development of primary education is no longer a priority because it has already been achieved, stress should nevertheless be laid on equality of opportunity, in respect of which pre-school education could fond the subject of a large-scale operation. Even so, the enhancement of quality will still be a source of concern 'Idle illiteracy rate in many countries in this group is still on average around the 35 percent. Once due allowance is made for that fact, the educational strategies should aim at promoting literacy and at ensuring the qualitative transformation and improvement of learning conditions generally. This group is faced, at the post-primary levels, with the same issues as the other groups: internal and external efficiency, cost-control and quality.

To what extent have African countries followed the prescriptions of Jomtien and of MINEDAF Vl? This is not an easy question to answer, for three major reasons. First, the time lapse since these conferences is short (four-five years). For most countries, data are available only for 1992 or 1993, if at all.The stress therefore will be more on the process (the consultations, plans and programmes, and other: the policy-making efforts) rather than on the product (the rate of improvement in school enrolment and in literacy promotion.)

Second, examining every country in the region in detail is an impossible task. Therefore, within each group, a few countries will be selected: Burkina Faso, Senegal and Sierra Leone in Group A.

Uganda and Nigeria in Group B. Cameroon, Cape Verde, Egypt and Mauritius in Group C. While there is no guarantee that the experiences of these nine countries are representative of what went on in the other forty odd countries, they are a sufficiently diverse group to offer at least an intormed image of Africa's response to Jomtien.

Third, the above-mentioned strategies Prelate to all sectors of the education system, with however the well known emphasis on basic education. The case-studies at least for Groups A and B focus therefore on basic education, which includes literacy and formal primary education with little or no consideration for the post-primary levels.

1 - A General Overview of the State of Education

This chapter presents a general overview of the evolution of formal and non-formal education in Africa since the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) in 1990, followed in 1991 by the sixth Conference of Ministers of Education and those responsible for Economic Planning in African Member States (MINEDAF VI). This overview is based mainly on statistical data and does not aim at an in-depth coverage of the major trends. For each of the four sub-sectors of the formal education system (pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher education), there is a presentation of the relevant recommendations of these two conferences for educational growth. This is compared to actual growth as achieved by the countries in the early nineties, and some space will be given to whatever projections can be made for the year 2000.

Pre-primary Education

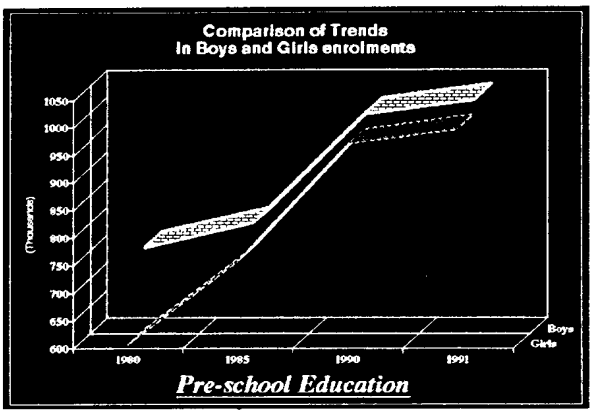
The strengthening of pre-primary education was seen by WCEFA as an integral part of a strategy to achieve basic education for all. It was indeed stated that:

> the preconditions for educational quality, equity and efficiency are set in the early childhood years making attention to early childhood care and development essential to the achievement of basic education goals (para 20)1 . As such, the expansion of early childhood care and developmental activities. including family and community interventions. especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children seas identified as one of the six main targets {'or all countries in the Framework for Action (para 8). MINEDAF Vl did not specify. in its recommendations. actions in the field of pre-primary education Neither the one nor the other conference proposed quantified targets.

Indeed, WCEFA left much room for governments to manoeuvre by stating in the 'World Declaration on Education for All' that early childhood care and initial education *can be provided through arran - gements including families, communities, or insti - tutional programmes, as appropriate.*

In Africa, formal institutions play only a minor role in the provision of pre-primary education. Less than 10 percent of the relevant age group attend these institutions. Enrolment increased from 930,000 in 1975 to over 3 million in 1988 and to 3.9 million in 1991. The enrolment increase has thus been consistent throughout the whole period and was somewhat higher than population growth. The gross enrolment ratio (GER) at this level increased from 3 percent in 1975 to 6.6 percent in 1988 and to 7 percent in 1991. This compares favourably with the evolution at the primary level, where GER decreased throughout the 1980s.

Girls are reasonably well represented. Tale share of girlsi ncreased between 1980 and 1988 from 41 percent t o 43 percent for Africa as a whole, and from 45 percent to 49 percent for sub-Sahara Africa. However, between 1988 and 1992 the proportion of girls decreased from 49 percent to 47 percent in sub-Sahara Africa, while a slight increase to 44 percent was recorded for Africa as a whole.



This almost balanced representation of boys and girls in sub-Sahanran Africa is probably because pre-primary institutions cater mainly for an educated urban-based elite, where discrimination against girls is less pronounced. The importance of the private sector deserves special mention here, as about 60 percent of all pupils go to private schools although this percentage has decreased over the last years from as high as 65 percent around 1985. Goverment efforts have thus been responsible for a part, if not all, of the expansion

in pre-primary education.

These figures do not say much about the early childhood education going on in the family or the community. However, when the priority target groups are poor, disadvantaged and disabled children, the question can be asked if family education by itself can be sufficient. It is precisely for the poor groups that government intervention is most needed.

In conclusion, some progress has been made in the provision of pre-primary education since Jomtien. The proportion of girls at this level of education is reasonably high. On the other hand, there is no clear focus on those who are most in need of this type of education. Rather, institutionalised provision tends to serve mainly the better off. Most governments, even if conscious of the huge rewards that the promotion of pre-primary education can offer in the long tend seem to have focused their attention on other priorities.

Primary Education

The main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling (World Declaration on Education for All, article 5). Indeed, if basic education for all has to become a reality, the provision of universal primary education is the most obvious strategy. While *universal access to primary education by the year 2000,* including full completion of the primary cycle, is set as one of the general targets by the WCEFA Framework for Action (para 8), it is also recognised that *in much of sub-Saharan Africa, the. pro - vision of universal primary education for rapidly growing numbers of children remains a long-term challenge* (para 3).

This fact was also noted by MINEDAF VI, which therefore proceeded to define clear and more realistic targets for various groups of countries, in line with the general objectives of:

- the broadening of access to the formal, non-formal and informal components of basic education;
- priority to school-age children and to such vulnerable social groups as young children, illiterate girls and women, children in difficult circumstances, disabled persons and refugees (recommendation 1).

The targets, to be attained-by the year 2000 were identified as follows- for whole of the African region, exceeding the gross enrolment ratio attained in 1980 in order to reverse the downward trend recorded since then. Specific objectives and strategies were proposed, as mentioned earlier, for different groups of countries.

In 1988, the gross enrolment ratio (GER) at primary level in Africa stood at 73 percent, having decreased from 79 percent in 1980. It was not so much the low level of this rate as its downward trend that was worrying. Indeed, since the period 1960-1980, the GER had increased from 42 percent to 79 percent and a continuation of this earlier trend throughout the 1980s would have turned 'education for al I by the year 2000' into a reality rather than an ambitious challenge. Were is some evidence that the expected reversal of the downward trend in the 1 990s was at first achieved. The GER stabilised in 1990 at 72.9 percent, increased in 1991 to 74.4 percent but decreased slightly to 74.3 percent in 1992. White it is true that the number of children enrolled in primary schools has increased (from 76.4 million in 1988 to 86.1 million in 1992),the same is true for the number of out-of-school children of primary school age (from 43 million he 1988 to 51 million in 1992).

Based partly on these trends, UNESCO projected in December 1993 that primary GER would decrease by the year 2000 to 71 .7 percent. The major reason for this pessimism is *the continuing evidence that the increases in enrolment have not kept pace with increases in the school age popula - tion This has, as an inevitable consequence, resul - ted in declining enrolment ratios and therefore in decreasing coverage of the school age population It was therefore decided to maintain constant the last observed enrolment ratios in the majority of countries(UNESCO* 1993:13).

Those projections were made before the most recent data were published and thus do not take the new information into account. Furthermore, the projected decrease is not warranted in all cases, as quite a few African countries since 1980 have succeeded in raising GER, contrary to the trend in Africa as a whole. The most recent figures show moreover that other countries were able in the early] 990s to reverse the decreasing trend observed in the previous decade. However, the UNESCO projection points at the seriousness of the situation and shows that if the objectives of

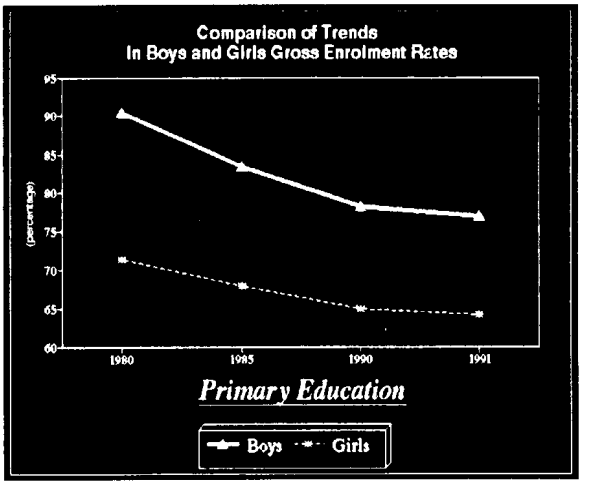
MINEDAF Vl are to be achieved, no more time should be lost.

The GER for girls in 1988 stood at 66 percent, 14 points lower than that for boys. For both boys and girls, there had been a decrease since 1980, but more so for boys (from 89.3 to 80 percent) than for girls (from 69 to 66 percent). Gender-disparity had therefore somewhat decreased; the proportion of girls in primary pupils increased from 43 to 44 percent over the same period. The trend continued into the 1990s: in 1990, 1991 and 1992, girls represented 45 percent of all primary pupils. Between 1988 and 1992 the increase in GER has been somewhat more significant for girls than for boys. This slight decrease in gender disparity is projected to continue towards the year 2000.

Table 1: Past, Present and Projected Enrolment at the Primary Level in Africa

Year	Gross Enrolment Ratio			Total Number of Pupils (in millions)		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
1980	79.2	89.3	69.0	64.1	36.3	27.8
1988	73.0	80.0	66.0	76.3	42.8	33.5
1990	72.9	79.8	65.8	79.5	43.8	35.7
1992	74.3	80.9	67.5	86.1	47.2	38.9
2000	71.7	78.1	65.3	104.5	57.2	47.3

Note: M=Male; F=Female
Source: UNESCO



Recommendation I of MINEDAF Vl, quoted above, divided African countries into four groups for purposes of promoting access and increasing school enrolment.

Group 1, comprising of countries with a net enrolment ratio of less than 40 percent, consists of 9 countries. Recent data on net enrolment rates for these countries is not available, but the data on gross enrolment ratio can tell some of the story. Of the seven countries for which such data were available (with the exception of Liberia and Somalia), five have increased GER since 1988, Ethiopia and Djibouti are the exceptions. Ethiopia experienced even in this short time a decrease in the total number of students from 2.8 million to I .9 million. In five of the seven countries the girls participation has improved, and in two countries (Niger and Mali) it has remained constant. Girls represent between 32 percent (Chad and Guinea) and 43 percent (Djibouti) of pupils.

Table 2: Enrolment Rate and Proportion of Girls in Countries with very Low Enrolment

	Gross Enrolment Rate				Proportion of Girls			
	1980	1988	1992	2000	1980	1988	1992	2000
Burkina Faso	18	34	37	37	37	38	39	39
Chad	43	51	65	57	28	30	32	30
Djibouti	35	46	41	45	41	42	43	42
Ethiopia	35	39	22	25	35	39	41	42
Guinea	36	34	42	37	33	31	32	31
Mali	27	23	25	24	36	37	37	36
Niger	25	27	29	29	35	36	36	36

Source: UNESCO

UNESCO's projections for these countries are not quite bright: Djibouti and Ethiopia will succeed in increasing GER, while the proportion of girls will stay more or less the same everywhere else. It is to be hoped that this pessimism is exaggerated: countries such as Burkina Faso, Chad and Niger have throughout the 1980s and early 1990s raised their GER at a steady rate, notwithstanding the difficult economic and political environment. Undoubtedly, to double the net enrolment rate, as recommended by MINEDAF VI, will be a demanding task. lout a continued expansion of enrolment and a marginal improvement of the position of girls is clearly feasible.

The second group of countries (those with a net enrolment rate in 1988 between 40 and 49 percent)

consists of 8 countries. For seven of them, comparisons can be made between 1988 and 1992. The GER grew in four and decreased in threes but significantly so only in Sierra Leone. The increase in Mauritania is especially impressive. Not only did the GER increase by more than 10 points, there was also a significant increase in actual numbers. Between 1988 and 1992 an extra 60 thousand pupils were enrolled and there are now 220 thousand pupils in primary school. This means that the primary school system expanded by more than 30 percent over this short period. The fact that this is not reflected in a more abrupt increase in GER, is a result of high population growth.

In all but two countries (Sierra Leone and Tanzania) enrolment of girls has increased more rapidly titan that of boys. Girls now make up between 39 percent (Central African Republic) and 49 percent (Tanzania) of all pupils. The projections in Table 3 show that tile UNESCO Division of Statistics does not foresee any significant changer neither in enrolment nor in tile participation of girls, between 1992 and 2000. These projections might well be realistic for countries like Guinea-Bissau and Tanzanian where GER dropped deeply in tile 1980s and which so far have only been able to halt that downward trend. But for Mauritania or Senegal it is legitimate to have higher expectations. Both these countries have, like their Sahelian neighbours Burkina Faso. Chad and Niger (see Table 2), increased their GER throughout the 1980s and even into the 1990s.

Table 3: Enrolment Rate anal Proportion of Girls (Countries with Low Enrolment)

	Gross Enrolment Rate				Proportion of Girls			
	1980	1988	1992	2000	1980	1988	1992	2000
Burundi	26	70	69	69	39	44	45	45
Cen Afr Rep	71	65	68	68	37	38	39	39
Guinea Bissau	68	60		59	32	36		36
Mauritania	37	51	62	55	35	41	44	43
Senegal	46	58	59	59	40	41	42	42
Sierra Leone	52	54	48	48	42	42	41	41
Sudan	50	49	51	49	40	41	43	43
UR of Tanzania	93	69	69	69	47	50	49	49

Source: UNESCO

MINEDAF VI proposed a net enrolment rate of 75 percent for this group of countries, as target for tile year 2000. It is almost certain that this is too ambitious for most if not all of these countries. However, there are grounds for optimism. The case of Mauritania indeed offers hope. Even more significant is the progress made by Burundi between 1980 and 1988. There the GER went up from 26 to 70 percent, and tile number of pupils rose from 175 thousand to 570 thousand.

Thirteen states constitute tile third group of countries with a net enrolment rate in 1988 of between 50 and 70 per cent. In five of theme tile GER has decreased since 1988, and in four of them (Cote d'lvoire, Madagascar, Mozambique and Zaire) by 5 points or more. The total number of pupils however grew in all these countries except Madagascar and Mozambique. In seven countries GER has moved up, and most visibly in File Gambia, where progress has been continuous since independence.

Girls now represent between 34 percent (Benin) and 50 percent (Rwanda) of all primary pupils. Benin is tile only country where the proportion of girls is under 40 percent. In only one other country, Mozambique, has the share of girls among pupils become smaller . Thus even in most countries where GER has decreased, this has been more because of lessor enrolment of boys rather than girls. A reference to Tables 2 and 3. will confirm this conclusion. The point needs stressing that the upward trend in tile proportion of girls among primary pupils will not easily be reversed and seems independent of a global increase in GER.

UNESCO's Division of Statistics projects that only two countries: Madagascar and Uganda will have a (HER of more than 80 percent by tile year 2000. These projections however did not take into account the most recent data, which show a significant increase in GER in a number of other countries. The Gambia and Malawi have made considerable advances since 1980, so that tile target net enrolment rate of 80 percent by tile year 2000 seems almost achievable. The same might well be said of the Comoros, Ghana and Nigeria, where the downward trend of tile 1980s has been reversed. Nigeria s primary school population rose from 12.7 minion to 14.8 minion pupils between 1988 and 1991, after a contraction between 1980 and 1988 by more than one million. However, the other countries in tile group will have a harder bask to achieve the target.

Table 4: Enrolment Rate and Proportion of Girls (Countries with Medium-Range Enrolment)

	Gross Enrolment Rate				Proportion of Girls			
	1980	1988	1992	2000	1980	1988	1992	2000
Benin	64	67	66	61	32	34	34	34
Comoros	88	75	79	75	42	44	45	44
Côte d'Ivoire	79	74	69	69	40	41	42	42
Gambia	51	62	69	66	35	39	41	40
Ghana	80	73	74	77	44	45	45	45
Madagascar	142	97	79	92	49	49	49	49
Malawi	60	64	66	66	41	45	45	45
Morocco	83	68	69	72	37	39	41	42
Mozambique	99	68	60	66	42	44	43	43
Nigeria	104	73	76	71	43	42	44	44
Rwanda	63	72	77	71	48	50	50	50
Uganda	50	80	80	81	43	45	45	45
Zaire	92	76	70	76	42	42	43	43

Source: UNESCO

The last group (with a net enrolment rate of above 70 percent) is made up of 19 countries. No information is available on four of these, namely Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea and Libya. Seven of the countries achieved an increase in the GER between 1988 and 1992, while seven experienced a decrease. In eleven countries the GER is higher than 100 percent. While a GER Of 100 percent does not indicate universal primary education (as there are undoubtedly over-aged children in this group and therefore children of primary school age who are not in school), it shows nevertheless that the system has the facilities and teachers necessary to serve all children of primary school age.

Not everywhere therefore must a decrease in GER be cause for worry. In Lesotho, Namibia and Zimbabwe, the GER has indeed moved downwards, but it is still over 100 percent. The fall could be a result of a more efficient school system, which keeps fewer over-aged children in primary school. More worrying however is the situation in Kenya, especially when the evolution since 1980 is taken into account; in Angola, where in 1990, 80 thousand fewer children went to school than in 1988 and 310 thousand fewer than in 1980; and finally, in Zambia, where the progress made since 1980 seems to have been lost within only a few years.

The proportion of girls lies between 39 percent of all pupils in Togo and 54 percent in Lesotho. In three Southern African countries, girls are equal to or even more in numbers than boys in the schools. In five countries, the proportion of girls decreased between 1988 and 1992, but in three of them girls still form a majority. In Tunisia and Egypt, the proportion of girls increased.

If UNESCO's projections turn out to be right, all but two of the 15 countries will have a GER of close to or above 100 percent by the year 2000. The exceptions here will be Zambia and Kenya. It is heartening to see that most countries which have come close to or have achieved universal primary education, are maintaining this achievement. The target of universal school enrolment is thus achievable for the large majority of countries in this group, if not yet already achieved. According to UNESCO's projections, girls will represent 46 percent or more of all students in all but one of these countries. Gender equity will thus be near realisation.

Table 5: Enrolment Rate and Proportion of Girls in Countries with 'high' Enrolment

	Gross Enrolment Rate				Proportion of Girls			
	1980	1988	1992	2000	1980	1988	1992	2000
Algeria	94	93	99	98	42	45	45	47
Angola	175	105	91	99	47	46	48	48
Botswana	92	111	116	118	54	52	51	50
Cameroon	98	102	101	101	45	46	46	46
Cape Verde	114	116	116	112	49	49	49	50
Egypt	78	96	101	105	40	44	45	46
Kenya	115	96	95	95	47	48	49	49
Lesotho	102	111	106	110	59	55	54	53
Mauritius	98	105	106	104	49	49	49	49
Namibia	..	126	124	119	..	52	50	52
Swaziland	103	104	115	109	50	50	49	50
Togo	118	103	111	111	38	39	39	39
Tunisia	103	113	120	118	42	45	47	48
Zambia	90	97	92	90	47	48	48	48
Zimbabwe	85	128	119	121	48	49	48	49

Source: UNESCO

Secondary Education

The World Conference on Education for All, because of its focus on basic education, did not address issues relating to post-primary education and in particular secondary education. Neither the World Declaration on Education for All nor the Framework for Action paid any attention to this

level of education. MINEDAF Vl also, like WCEFA, put the stress squarely on basic education. However, one paragraph of recommendation 1 mentions an issue applicable to all levels of education: the recommendation to promote *science and technology teaching and pre- and in-service training in the different types of education* (para 23).

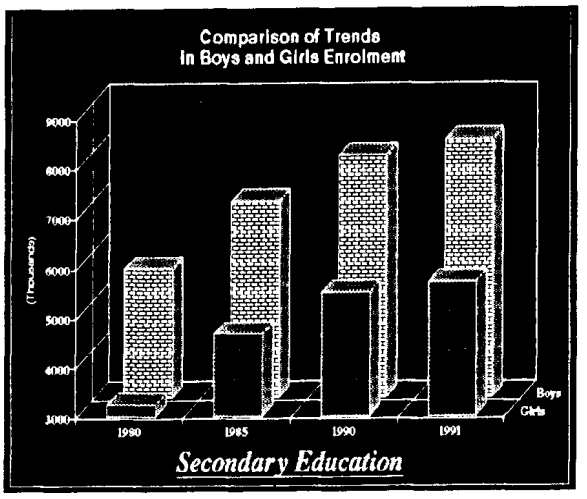


Table 6: Past, Present anal Projected Enrolment at Secondary Level in Africa

Year	Gross Enrolment Ratio			Total Number of Pupils (in millions)		
	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
1980	21.8	27.4	16.1	14.3	9.0	5.3
1988	27.5	32.5	22.3	22.0	13.2	8.8
1990	27.8	32.1	23.5	23.8	13.8	10.0
1992	27.8	32.5	26.9	27.1	14.9	12.2
2000	27.3	30.7	23.8	31.9	18.1	13.8

Source: UNESCO

Between 1988 and 1992, the gross enrolment ratio (GER) at the secondary level continued the upward trend it had maintained since independence. UNESCO's projections, which are of the same character as those commented upon in previous paragraphs, foresee by the year 2000 a decrease he secondary level GER from 29.8 percent to 27.3 percent. This would still mean an increase in the number of students by 4.8 million between 1992 and 2000. However more optimism is called for here.If African countries were able, in the hard decade of the 1980s, to increase the number of secondary school students by 9.5 million, there is every reason to believe that similar progress can be made in the 1990s.

As in primary education, the enrolment of girls in secondary education has improved since 1988. About 3.4 million more girls attended secondary school ill 1992 than in 1988. For boys, the figure was 1.7 million. In other words, while boys' GER remained constant over this period, that for girls continued to increase. This trend is projected to persist for the rest of this century. The enrolment figure for girls was 37 percent of all secondary level students for 1980 and 42 percent for 1990, but it has risen to 45 percent for 1992.

MINEDAF Vl recommended a greater focus on science and technology education. Table 7 shows that there has been very little change in the enrolment distribution at secondary level . Teacher education also, is another field which, according to MINEDAF Vl, needs special attention. There has been a slight shift away from teacher education, but this has been towards general education and not towards vocational and technical education.

Table 7: Percentage Distribution of Enrolment by Type of Education at Secondary Level in Africa

	1980	1988	1990	1992
General education	86.3	87.0	88.0	88.4
Teacher education	4.6	3.7	2.5	2.4
Technical-vocational education	9.1	9.3	9.5	9.3

Source: UNESCO

Higher Education

Recommendation 1, paragraph 22 of MINEDAF Vl called for the development of *scientific and technological research, especially in higher edu - cation.*

The increase he GERM noticeable at the higher education level even before independence, continued between 1988 and 1992. White there was a slowing down of the growth rate between 1988

and 1990, this has rise again since, as there were, in 1992, 550,000 more higher education students than in 1990. Senegal saw enrolment in these subjects decreasing by UNESCO's projections for this level are less around 8 percent. Algeria is the only country where pessimistic than for primary or secondary education. more than 50 percent of students are enrolled into GER is expected to be around 5.0 percent in 2000. The science and technology-related subjects. rate of increase will thus be considerably lower than in the previous decade, but this would still imply an increase in numbers between 1992 and 2000 of about 700,000.

Table 8: Past, Present and Projected Enrolment at the Tertiary Level in Africa

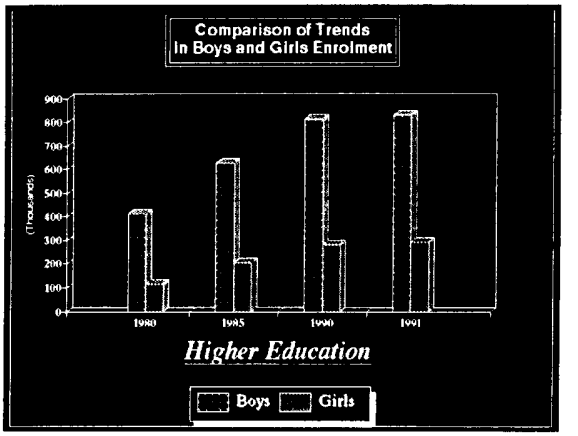
Year	Gross Enrolment Ratio			Total Number of Pupils (in millions)		
	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
1980	3.5	5.2	1.9	1543	1126	417
1988	4.5	6.4	2.6	2470	17402	730
1990	4.7	6.5	2.8	2729	1899	830
1992	5.3	7.0	3.6	3286	2181	1105
2000	5.0	6.6	3.4	3994	2651	1343

Source: UNESCO

While no data are available to determine whether or not research in science and technology has expanded, it is possible to examine student enrolment in these fields. Table 8 compares for 11 countries enrolment in tile sciences (i.e. natural sciences, mathematics and computer science), and in technology (i .e. engineering, architecture, town planning, industrial programmes, transport and communications), in medical and health-related sciences and in agriculture, including forestry and fishery.

As is the case with the other levels, the position of girls in higher education has improved. In 1980,27 percent of all students were girls. Figures increased to 30 percent in 1988, 33 percent in 1991 and 34 percent in 1992. However, despite the steady increases the figures are still low, and extra efforts need to be made to remove the gender disparity at this level of education.

In six of the eleven countries in the table, enrolment in this set of subjects has grown in recent years, but in only two, Botswana and Zimbabwe, has this been substantial. A significant decrease (almost 20 percent) is recorded in Kenya, while Algeria, Madagascar and



In three other countries more than 40 percent of students are enrolled in these subjects: Ethiopia (49.7 percent), Nigeria (43.1) and Burundi (42.5 percent). The small proportion of students enrolled in agriculture courses is worth noting: only in two countries is the enrolment higher than 10 percent, and in three countries it is less than 1.5 percent. There is therefore no clear trend towards increased enrolment in science-related subjects.

Table 9: **Tertiary Education: Enrolment in Science and Technology Disciplines in Selected Countries**

	Sciences		Technology		Medical Sc.		Agriculture	
	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992
Algeria	16.6	14.8	31.0	30.1	17.1	11.5	4.4	4.4
Botswana	8.9	6.6	0.0	16.5	0.0	10.3	0.0	4.6
Burundi	10.2	13.7	7.7	9.5	13.0	7.8	10.4	11.5
Congo	4.7	9.0	2.8	0.0	4.1	3.1	1.7	3.1
Egypt	4.7	4.9	8.7	7.8	8.8	9.5	6.7	5.4
Ethiopia	11.9	11.1	14.4	17.9	6.7	7.3	11.5	13.4
Kenya	7.5	10.2	17.9	6.0	4.8	4.1	16.4	6.4
Madagascar	20.4	18.7	6.6	2.7	15.4	12.5	0.5	1.1
Nigeria	16.1	16.6	8.7	11.6	7.4	7.2	6.8	7.7
Senegal	20.3	18.5	2.1	1.6	17.4	11.4	1.8	0.0
Zimbabwe	2.8	5.8	2.2	16.3	3.1	2.4	1.6	1.1

Source: UNESCO

Note

1. All quotations are from WCEFA, 1990 and from MINEDAF Vl, 1991b.

2 - Strategies Focusing on Expansion

MINEDAF Vl called on countries with a net enrolment ratio at the primary level of 40 percent or less, to develop a strategy of *expansion.* This chapter is concerned with examining the extent to which this recommendation has been taken account of in the policies and educational practices of African Member States. The Group to which this recommendation is addressed is made up of 17 countries (see Table 10). Two sub-groups can easily be recognised: war-torn countries (Burundi, Ethiopia, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Somalia and Sudan) and the Sahel region, from Djibouti in the far East to Senegal and including Chad, Niger, Burkina Faso, Mali and Mauritania. Ethiopia and Sudan also belong to this group. The four other countries (Central African Republic, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau and Tanzania) do not fit in any clearly discernible category.

Table 10 shows some of the characteristics of the group of countries. The total population is around 190 million, just a little under 30 percent of Africa's population. Population growth is high, though not higher than the average for sub-Saharan Africa. All but one of the countries (Senegal), belong to the group of Least Developed Countries and have a GNP per capita of less than $600 US. In six of the countries the GNP per capita has decreased since 1980. This decrease was particularly high in Niger. Total external debt is higher than GNP in four of the 13 countries for which data is available. Total official foreign aid in 13 of the countries is higher than 10 percent of GNP, the sub-Saharan African average.

In ten of the countries more than 80 percent of the work force is employed in agriculture. The average age of a woman at first marriage is above 20 years in only three of the countries (Burundi, Somalia and Sudan). There are four countries in which the girl marries before age 17 (Guinea, Mali, Niger and Chad). In five countries (Burkina Faso, Burundi, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau and Niger) more than 80 percent of the population live in rural areas, and in five others (Central African Republic, Djibouti, Liberia, Mauritania and Senegal), the rural population is less than 60 percent. Seven countries have more military personnel than teachers (UNDP 1994).

Another evidence of low level of development is the deplorable health situation. Life expectancy is everywhere lower than 55 and in 14 of the 17 countries lower than 50 years. Infant mortality rates are higher than 100, which means that for every 1000 live births, 100 die before their first birthday. This is the case in all countries, with the exception of Senegal.

Fifteen countries received in the last decade structural adjustment loans from the World Bank, the exceptions being Liberia and Djibouti.

Table 10: Development Indicators

	Population		GNP/Cap		Debt percent of GNP 1992	Aid percent of GNP 1991	Life Expectancy 1992
	1993 (000)	Growth Rate 1980-1993	1992	Growth Rate 1980-1992			
Burkina Faso	9788	2.7	300	1.0	20	15	47.9
Burundi	5995	2.9	210	1.3	43	22	48.2
Cen. Afr. Rep.	3258	2.7	410	- 1.5	38	14	47.2
Chad	6010	2.3	220	3.4	29	20	46.9
Djibouti	481	3.6					48.3
Ethiopia	54628	2.7	110	- 1.9	44	17	46.4
Guinea	6306	2.7	510		55	12	43.9
Guinea Bissau	1028	2.0	220	1.6	200	43	42.9
Liberia	2845	3.3					54.7
Mali	10137	3.0	310	- 2.7	53	19	45.4
Mauritania	2206	2.7	530	- 0.8	158	18	47.4
Niger	8529	3.3	280	- 4.3	51	16	45.9
Senegal	7948	2.8	780	0.1	39	10	48.7
Sierra Leone	4494	2.5	160	- 1.4	158	14	42.4
Somalia	9517	2.7					46.4
Sudan	27407	3.0				6	51.2
Tanzania	28783	3.4	110	0.0	178	34	51.2

Sources: UNDP, Human Development Report, 1994
UNESCO, World Education Report, 1993
World Bank Report, 1994

The low level of development of the Education sector is a cause as well as a consequence of the dismal situation described above. The most severe problems within the education system are the following:

(a) low enrolment rates;
(b) wide gender and regional disparities, which increase the higher one ascends the education ladder;
(c) doubts as to the relevance of the curriculum;
(d) the poor quality of education;
(e) the poverty of the education environment: school furniture and textbooks are insufficient, libraries lack books, teachers are not motivated, and so on.
(f) lack of resources notwithstanding relatively high budgetary provisions for education.

Table 11: Education Indicators

	Literacy Rate		Primary Education		Spending on Education	
	Total	Female	percent reaching grade 4	Pupil-teacher ratio	percent of government budget	Share of primary in education budget
Burkina Faso	31.8	91.1	87	58	17.5	41.7
Burundi	50.0	60.2	77	63	11.9	44.5
Cen. Af. Rep.	62.3	75.1	78	90		52.7
Chad	70.2	82.1	79	64	13.8	47.3
Djibouti			92	42	11.1	53.4
Ethiopia			37	27	9.4	33.9
Guinea	76.0	86.6	86	49	21.5	35.1
Guinea Bissau	61.5	76.0	41	25		
Liberia	60.9	71.2				
Mali	68.0	76.1	74	47	17.3	46.3
Mauritania	64.3	73.5	78	51	22.0	33.9
Niger	71.6	83.2	88	42	19.6	48.5
Senegal	61.7	74.9	91	59	27.4	35.7
Sierra Leone	79.3	88.7		34		21.2
Somalia	75.9	86.0				
Sudan	72.9	88.3	82	34		
Tanzania			88	36	11.4	41.6

SOURCE: UNESCO

Not much progress seems to have been made since 1988, as enrolment has indeed increased in some of the countries, but nowhere at a reasonably high rate. There is no clear evidence of improvement in various aspects of quality, content and financing of education. Table 11 shows some data for the latest available year (generally 1991 or 1992).The share of pre-primary and primary education in the education budget is worthy of special attention. MINEDAF VI had recommended a reallocation of expenditure in favour of basic education (Recommendation 1, para. 7). The table shows however that only three of the thirteen countries allot more than half of their budget to primary education, namely the Central African Republic Djibouti and Ethiopia, and this even though the primary level enrols up to 80 percent of all pupils. For nine countries a comparison can be made with the pattern of allocation at the end of the 1980s. Three of these countries increased the share of primary education budget, five did the opposite, while for one country there was no change at all.

This however is only part of what has happened since Jomtien. The impact of change in education is not usually felt immediately. It is therefore more pertinent to see the extent to which governments have taken steps to set the process of change in motion. To what extent, for example, have governments accepted the recommendations of the WCEFA and developed a national plan of action; and whether the WCEFA has had any influence on national policy-making.

The following case studies on three randomly selected countries will help to examine these questions in greater detail. Two of the countries (Senegal and Burkina Faso) are in the Sahel; the third (Sierra Leone) is undergoing some civil strife.

Case Study 1: Senegal

Senegal is probably not the most typical country of this group, as it is indeed the only one with a GNP per capita of above $700. However, in terms of level of social development, its financial and economic difficulties, it fits squarely into this group.

Senegal's advantage of not being one of the least developed countries, has not resulted in its having a more developed educational system. The primary gross enrolment ratio stood at 59 percent in 1991, only slightly higher than in 1988 (58 percent). The proportion of girls increased slightly from 41 percent in 1988 to 42 percent in 1991. Spending on education (as part of recurrent budget) has grown substantially, from 22.1 percent in 1988 to 27.4 percent he 1991. However, within the education budget the share of primary education has contracted, from 39.3 percent in 198X to 35.7 percent in 1991 The Senegalese government spent in 1991 twenty-two times as much on a tertiary level student as on a primary school pupil,

a ratio much higher than in other developing countries but fairly typical for sub-Saharan Africa.

Soon after the World Conference on Education for All, in February 1991, the "loi d'orientation de Education' (Education Orientation Act) no. 91.22 was published. This 1991 Education Act guiding principles are clearly inspired by the WCEFA. Its reference however is not so much to the WCEFA as to a national event which took place ten years earlier: the 'Etats generaux de I 'education et de la formation' (National Consultations on education and training) organised in 1981. These *Etats* G*eneraux* aimed at reaching a consensus among all partners (including teachers and students) on how to redress the situation.

After wide ranging discussions by the National Consultations, a National Commission on the reform of education and training worked during four years. The commission proposed a new education system the 'Ecole Nouvelle Democratique et Populaire'. The principal features of the reform are laid down in the Education Orientation Act according to which the new type of education, among other things, should:

(a) achieve literacy and life-long education for all citizens;

(b) link education to life,theory to practice, Learning to production;

(c) democratise access to education, by adapting contents, objectives and methods to the specific needs of learners and by allowing all without discrimination to develop their potential to the fullest;

(d) develop the teaching and learning of national languages.

More important however to the actual policies is the 1994 Sectoral Adjustment Programme, agreed upon between Senegal and the World Bank, which goes under the title ' Deuxieme Programme de Developpement des ressources humaines' (PDRH2). It is a typical education adjustment programme, consisting of three sub-projects concerning respectively primary and secondary education, vocational training, and higher education. So far, an agreement has been reached on only the first of these three. This first sub-project consists of three components:

(a) expanding access to primary education, focusing on rural areas and girls and improving of its quality and efficiency;

(b) improving quality and efficiency of secondary and higher education;

(c) strengthening sector planning and management capacities.

The main quantitative objective is to raise the primary gross enrolment ratio from 58 percent in 1992 to 65 percent in 1997/98, equivalent to an increase in numbers from 801.000 in 1993 to 1.040.000 in 1998. The major activities include:

(a) primary school construction and rehabilitation;

(b) intensified production of didactic materials through the establishment of a sustainable textbook system;

(c) a more intensive use of teachers through the extension of multi-grade and double shift schooling at primary level and an increase in pupil/teacher ratios at the secondary level;

(d) recruitment of 760 primary school teachers per year, 600 of which will be 'instituteurs adjoints' (teaching assistants), who have lower formal qualifications and who will earn lower salaries as compared with the ' instituteurs' (teachers).

The programme also stressed the participation of a wider group of partners: parents, communities, the private sector, NGOs, etc. The project proposes, in the field of primary education, to increase the participation of the families and the civil society in the financing of public education, and more particularly, to involve communities, the private sector and NGOs more vigorously in classroom construction programmes.

The programme has exerted more influence on developments in the sector than the Education Orientation Act, as it has in fact set out education pol icies and strategies for the years to come. This is not only because the Ministry of Education needs to commit itself to this programme through a 'lettre de politique generale du secteur education/formation' or letter of education development policy, which reflects literally the aims and content of the project; but is also because the further development of the Education sector depends to a large extent on external financial support.

Along with this programme, implementation of which started in the 1993/94 school year, a 'cadre d'action à

moyen et long terme pour l'éducation pour tous' (Senegal, Ministry of Education 1992) (framework of action in the medium and long term for basic education for all) was proposed in July 1992. This initiative is an attempt to follow the recommendations of the Jomtien conference. The framework of action includes ideas, policy-recommendations, proposal for action.
The framework for action contains the following objectives:

a) increase of enrolment in and strengthening of quality
of the priority sectors:
universal primary education of quality
vocational training
literacy

b) redeployment of resources towards the marginalized
sectors:
special education
pre-primary education

c) reorganisation of the post-primary sectors:
improvement of management and quality of middle
and secondary education
promotion of a higher education of quality, more
adapted to the needs of the environment.

It is useful to compare the provisions of this framework with those of the PDRH2 described above.
There are some relatively small differences: the Framework proposes the recruitment of 1000 new teachers every year, the PDRH2 limits that number to 760. The Framework foresees the construction of 1000 new classrooms every year, the PDRH2 only 670. The Framework gives more attention to the content of education, the problem of 'which type of education, for what purpose?'

In the same vein, the Framework called for more attention to be given to the problem of demand for education. It proposes various measures such as school lunches, provision of didactic materials, media campaigns, aimed at ensuring that the public school becomes more attractive, especially to the rural population. In the PDRH2, the emphasis is more on increasing school supply through classroom construction. The Framework mentions explicitly the need to increase teachers' motivation through a 'good salary policy' and it puts much less stress on cost-sharing. Later this chapter will return to some of these points.

The WCEFA has had a more direct influence on literacy policies than on formal education. Soon after Jomtien, in April 1991, the 'direction' in charge of literacy was changed to a 'ministere delegue' (Division), in charge of literacy and the promotion of national languages. This might serve as a reflection on the importance of literacy in the eyes of the Senegalese government; however, it has not led to any significant 'increase in the budget for education.

The Ministerial department in charge of Literacy and National Languages has worked out, in October 1993, detailed Plan of Action(Senegal, Delegated Ministry of Mass Literacy 1992). It consists of six major objectives:

- increasing the number of literates in Senegal, and at the same time decreasing in disparities;
- strengthening and improving the coordination and supervision of national activities;
- strengthening research activities;
- awareness-raising, information and human resources mobilisation campaigns;
- training of literacy workers;
- developing post-literacy through the creation of a literate environments.

The Plan of Action is to be implemented in two phases each of five years, the first phase covering 1994 to 1998. Idle main quantitative objective of the first phase is to make some 100,000 persons literate yearly. This should lead to a 50 percent reduction in the illiteracy rate by the year 2004. Idle role of the State in this plan is that of a catalyst. The actual implementation will rely greatly on local communities, NGOs and different volunteer movements. The Ministry is in the process of defining a framework and assigning specific responsibilities to the various partners. The 'lettre de politique generate' (general policy proposal) states that the Ministry, through a National Committee for the Eradication of Illiteracy, will mainly be in charge of supervision, coordination follow-up and evaluation of all activities. belle activities will be implemented (read 'subcontracted') by experienced actors, relying on substantial participation from the target groups both in human, financial and physical tends.

This case study shows that Senegal has developed different educational policy instruments: the 'Framework of Action on Medium and Long Term for

Basic Education for All', the 'Literacy Plan of Action' and the 'Human Resources Development Programme, HRDP2'. All these instruments are supposed to be an expression of the orientations of the 'National Conference on Education and Training' of 1981, as well as the most recent recommendations of the Jomtien conference (1990) and MINEDAF VI conference (1991). However, the diversity of instruments is a sign of the difficulty to build a national education policy complete, harmonised, integrating all levels and forms of education and training. More difficult is the adjustment between policies and means of implementation.

Case Study 2: Burkina Faso

Burkina Faso has a much lower GNP per capita than Senegal. Its education problems, in quantitative terms at least, are more severe. Its illiteracy rate, at 81.8 percent, is the highest in this group of countries under consideration, its primary GER among the lowest. Particularly worrying is the disparity between the sexes, typical for the Sahel region. Burkina however has made notable strides in recent years towards offering basic education to all, although this ideal is still far from being achieved. The number of pupils at primary level has expanded from 443 thousand in 1988 to 530 thousand in 1991, although in 1980 only some 200 thousand children attended primary school. The gross enrolment ratio increased from 18 percent in 1980 to 34 percent in 1988 and 37 percent in 19921 (UNDP 1994). The percentage of girls in school grew from 38 to 39 percent between 1988 and 1992. The expenditure on education throughout the 1980s was consistently around 20 percent of the government budget, but a sudden drop was recorded in 1992. Within the education budget, 41.7 percent was allotted to pre-primary and primary education in 1989, which is slightly higher than the figure of 39.2 percent recorded for 1986.

Burkina Faso was already in the process of preparing a national project on basic Education for All when the WCEFA took place. Indeed, since 1989 a set of seminars had been organised, towards this end. In April 1992 a 'Comite interministeriel charge de I 'elaboration et du suivi du Plan de l'Education de base' (Interministerial committee on the development and follow-up of the Basic Education Plan), was set up, chaired by the Minister of Basic Education and Mass Literacy, and with representations from other ministries, teachers' unions, and parents-teachers associations. A drain version of the Basic Education Plan was published in June 1993 (Ministry of Education 1993).

Burkina Faso, like Senegal and most other countries in this group, has an education sector adjustment programme, which in fact a Fourth World Bank education project. Its conception is not very different from Senegal's PDRH2. Of the total project budget of $24 million, $19 million was to go for basic education. The main objectives here are to increase the enrolment ratio and reduce disparities mainly through construction of more classrooms and a more efficient use of available resources, to improve quality through provision of didactic materials and to strengthen management and planning capacities.

Concerning the Action Plan for Basic Education for All, of which a draft version is presently available, its quantitative objective is to increase primary GER to 40 percent in 1996 and 60 percent in 2000. The multisectoral approach, the diversification of learning opportunities, the valorisation of human resources, the widening of the concept of basic education, are four principles underlying all the planned activities. They are organised in four projects, each having a number of components presented in Table 12.

The plan calls for participation by communities, but it also stresses that parents already bear a large proportion of the costs of education. Efforts to increase their participation would require first a better knowledge of what the society expects of school and of basic education in general.

Finally, basic education and literacy activities form part of one and the same plan. As such, this plan is able to give attention to the specific needs of 8- 15 year olds, who are out of school, a group which is often forgotten.

While a great deal of effort went into the plan of action, its real impact will depend on its implementation. Its place and integration in the policy-making process is not clear. For example, it is not clear how it fits in with the World Bank Education IV project, which because of its scope and volume is nearly an education policy document. While both the plan and the project focus on basic education, they do so with clearly different

emphases. The attention given to content issues and teacher motivation in the Plan of Action for instance is absent from the project Education IV, where the stress is on school construction and cost-efficiency.

Table 12: Burkina Faso's Plan of Action for Basic Education forAll

Project 1	Improvement of access to and accessibility of basic education
Component 1	Development and improvement of facilities
Component 2	Rationalisation of pupil/ teacher ratios through a better use of teachers and infrastructures
Component 3	Decrease in disparities and promotion of girls' education
Component 4	Diversification of basic education services
Project 2	Improvement of the relevance and quality of basic education
Component 1	Improvement in children's learning capacities
Component 2	Improvement in the relevance of basic education
Component 3	Improvement in the quality of basic education, through a restructuring of programmes and methods
Component 4	Improvement in teaching conditions: priority to the human factor
Component 5	Reform of evaluation methods and examinations
Project 3	Diversification of and improvement in the efficiency and relevance of literacy training
Component 1	Improvement in the capacities of the national literacy institute to design, plan, manage and evaluate literacy activities
Component 2	Improve the relevance and efficiency of literacy training
Component 3	Development of literacy activities for women
Component 4	Alternatives for the 9-15 year old who are poorly schooled or unschooled
Project 4	Improvement in the capacities of the Ministry of Education to plan, manage, administer and evaluate basic education activities
Component 1	Towards an operational decentralisation of tasks and responsibilities
Component 2	Support to the improvement of financial, administrative and personnel management in the Ministry

source: Burkina Faso MEBAM 1994

In other respects, this is the Plan of Action of the Ministry of Basic Education and Mass Literacy. But the relationships with the secondary and higher education are not clear. The Ministry for Secondary and Higher Education is not once mentioned in the plan. Such a separation does not enhance the potential contributions of the post-primary levels to achieving basic education for all.

Case Study 3: Sierra Leone

The primary GER, which had decreased from 54 percent to 48 percent between 1988 and 1991, in relation to the country's economic crisis, has decreased further to an estimated 35 percent because of the war, which has necessitated the closure of schools in those parts of the country where rebels are operating (Sierra Leone, Ministry of Education 1994, p.2). The decrease in GER was accompanied, between 1988 and 1991, by the rare phenomenon of a decrease in the proportion of girls, from 42 to 41 percent. Although no figures are available, it would be a surprise if expenditure on education did not also decrease. Indeed, the share of primary education in the budget decreased from 30.4 percent in 1988 to 21.2 percent in 1990.

The Sierra Leone Ministry of Education developed, under the previous government and in preparation for the WCEFA, a 'National Action Plan for Basic Education for All by the year 2000' . This plan was the outcome of a conference and a series of seminars held in 1989. Its final version however was published in November 1990. It identifies and proposes actions in three priority areas: institutional strengthening, the development of programmes for specific target groups and the creation of a literate environment.

This third priority area includes activities such as 'strengthening the library service to setting up Community Information Centres in every district and establishing mobile units operating from each district to neighbouring villages' or 'strengthening and organising groups to participate and stage concerts, theatricals etc. in the folk media aimed at facilitating aims of Basic Education by transmitting values and goals'. The spirit of Jomtien is certainly present in the document (Sierra Leone, Ministry of Education 1990).

the new government has given great attention to education. It is in the process of implementing a Basic Education Reform with the following objectives:

• to extend basic education from 6 to 9 years, and

- to increase participation in non-formal education, through a closer integration of the formal and non-formal system.

The reform is known as the 6-3-3-4 reform, in reference to the new structure of the education system. This reform was suddenly, without much preparation: without additional teacher training, and without the publication of new textbooks, introduced at the beginning of the 1993-94 school year, apparently out of fear that it would otherwise never be introduced. Such a reform demands clearly the realisation of various related activities. With funding needs in mind, a National Education Action Plan (NEAP) was prepared and presented to the donor community in May 1994 (Sierra Leone, Ministry of Education 1994).

The focus of the NEAP is on the development of primary education, but it refers neither to the WCEFA nor to the above-mentioned Action Plan. It comprises five components and is intended to cover the period 1995-2000. It does not state a precise quantitative objective. The components are:

- support for basic education: formal and non-formal;
- provision for the handicapped, disadvantaged and gifted;
- strengthening education management and administration;
- training of education sector personnel;
- rehabilitation/construction of educational facilities in war-affected areas.

Priority is being given to the first and third components.

The NEAP presents some problematic aspects which need further investigation. The integration of formal and non-formal education, the decentralisation, the structure of the ministry of education are issues to be operationalised.

In connection with the follow-up to the Jomtien Conference and compared with the 'National Plan of Action for Basic Education for All', the actual NEAP seems to set back. It is, to some extent, more comparable to an education sector adjustment plan, reflectingthe important role played by the World Bank in its finalisation.

Conclusions

These case studies show three different scenarios of follow-up actions to Jomtien. In Senegal, no plan of action was prepared for primary education, although a literacy plan of action exists. In Burkina Faso, an impressive plan of action for basic education for all was recently worked out. Sierra Leone developed even before the WCEFA a 'National Action Plan for Basic Education for All by the Year 2000'. This plan did not however survive subsequent political changes. Now there exists a 'National Education Action Plan' which does not refer to Jomtien, although it gives priority to basic education. None of the three countries organised a round table on education for all, though various seminars, workshops and meetings with donors related to this theme, were held.

Jomtien and MINEDAF Vl, through action-plans and round tables, have probably influenced the policy-making process. Basic education has indeed become a priority of every government. The habit of developing national action plans (even if most of them are not implemented), has taken off in most countries. Commitments are made to increase the allocation of resources to basic education. However, to give priority to basic education should not mean to disregard other levels of education.

> In spite of all the priority attached to basic education, there is no prospect of its spreading unless it is really integrated into the overall human resources development policy Hence the priorities assigned to basic education and literacy cannot he dissociated from the strategic options adopted for the other educationa levels (MINEDDAF Vl 1991a, p.26).

There are two main reasons for the integration of the higher levels into a basic education plan. They do have a contribution to make, through research, the development of didactic materials, and training. Their capacity of disrupting the whole education system is great:

> there are almost never any strikes calling for more literacy and primary education, whereas they are a common occurrence in secondary schools and universities, where they are often bound up with more wide-ranging social protest (MINEDAF Vl 1991 a p.26). A second concern is the need to integrate literacy and primary education, nonformal and formal education, and the modalities of this integration.

While WCEFA and MINEDAF Vl have influenced the policy-making process, some doubt still lingers as to their impact on the policies and strategies which have actually been adopted. In this connection, the sectoral adjustment programmes, known under different names, but with very similar content everywhere are too much of a powerful influence.

The education adjustment programmes focus almost wholly on the promotion of basic education, with a strong leaning towards primary education. Moreover, the adjustment measures at the macro-economie level have often had negative effects on education: reduction of the number of teachers, reduction of the share of education in the budget. The stress on cost-recovery can to some extent discourage the demand for education and play against the principles of the equity.

In conclusion, it can be said that there have been two major approaches to policy-making: the 'follow-up of Jomtien' which has led to the development of plans of action and: anal Sectoral Adjustment Programmes which art. not much influenced by Jomtien. Furthermore. in most countries, there are two levels of policy-making: one 'external', where government discusses with donors; and another 'Internal', where government discusses with the local partners: teachers' unions, parents-teachers associations, and students; the civil society he the ease of 'Etats generaux de l education' or national consultations. Bringing these processes and approaches in the form of an integrated and dynamic focus remains a lasting challenge to the development of education plans in the region.

Note

1. These are UNESCO figures. The most recent data, published by the Burkinabe Ministry of Education gives substantially lower figures for GER (30.7 percent in 1992) and for illiteracy (83.8 percent in 1990). It does not dispute however the gains made since 1980.

3 - Strategies Focusing on Generalisation

The recommendations of MINEDAF Vl to the group of countries relate to the generalisation of basic education. This group is the largest of the three groups identified by MINEDAF Vl and has a total population of about 285 million. Population growth is 3.0 or over in 10 countries. Four countries (Cote d'lvoire, Ghana, Morocco and Nigeria)are not among the Least Developed Countries. However all the except Morocco have experienced a decrease in per capita since 1980. The debt burden weighs heavily on most of the countries and it is higher than the sub-Saharan average in seven of the 13 countries, while the infant mortality rate is lower than 100 per 1000 in six of them.

In three of the countries (Mozambique, Malawi, Uganda), the average age of girls at marriage is less than 18. In four (Madagascar, Morocco, Rwanda and Zaire), girls on the average marry after their 20th birthday. Five countries have a relatively high rate of urbanisation, with less than 65 percent of the population living in the rural areas. In five of the states (Benin, Cote d'lvoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Morocco) only 53 percent of the population is classified as rural; but in three others (Malawi, Rwanda and Uganda) the urban areas contain just 12 percent or less of the population. In two countries (Morocco and Nigeria) less than 50 percent of the workforce is employed in agriculture, while in seven others countries more than 80 percent is so employed.

Table 14 depicts the educational situation of the group. While all the countries have comparable enrolment rates, their literacy rates are very different. In Benin only one in four adults is literate, but in Madagascar the ratio is four in five. The weakness of the internal efficiency of the educational system is apparent in Benin, Comoros, Madagascar, Malawi and Mozambique, where less than 60 percent of primary school pupils reach grade four. Pupil/teacher ratios differ widely: they ought to he increased in The Gambia, Ghana and Morocco, but need to come down in Malawi, Mozambique and Rwanda. Primary education receives more than half of the education budget in Rwanda and Zaire, but less than a third in Ghana , Morroco and Uganda. In this regard, only for four countries can a comparaison be made between the end of the 1980s and the present. In all four cases (Comores, The Gambia, Ghana and Morocco) the share of primary education decreased over the period.

Table 13: Population Growth vs Per Capita Income

	Population		GNP/Capita		Debt percent of GNP 1992	Aid percent of GNP 1991	Life Expectancy 1992
	1993 (000)	Growth Rate 1980-93	1992	Growth Rate 1980-1992			
Benin	5075	3.0	410	- 0.7	35	14	46.1
Comoros	607	3.6	510	- 1.3			55.4
Côte d'Ivoire	13397	3.9	670	- 4.7	191	7	51.6
Gambia	932	2.9	370	- 0.4			44.4
Ghana	16446	3.3	450	- 0.1	39	10	55.4
Madagascar	13259	3.2	230	- 2.4	117	16	54.9
Malawi	10694	4.3	210	- 0.1	47	23	44.6
Morocco	26954	2.6	1030	1.4	71	4	62.5
Mozambique	15322	1.8	60	- 3.6	495	69	46.5
Nigeria	119328	3.3	320	- 0.4	108	1	51.9
Rwanda	7789	3.2	250	- 0.6	26	22	46.5
Uganda	19246	3.0	170		59	21	42.6
Zaire	41166	3.3		- 1.8			51.6

Source: UNDP World Human Development Report
unesco World Education Report 1993 World Bank Report 1994

Nigeria and Uganda are the two countries that have been chosen for examination. Several factors have contributed to this choice. Firstly, there are obvious differences in size and population: on the one hand, the most populated and one of the largest African countries, Nigeria; on the other hand a relatively small one, Uganda. Also, they represent both West and East Africa. In addition, their recent political histories are different: a botched attempt at democratisation compared to a so far fairly successful attempt to combine democracy

with a one-party state; and until recently, a steady political climate under one leader. Perhaps most significantly, the recent evolution of primary Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) is different. For example, in Nigeria, the GER decreased from over 100 percent in 1980 to 73 percent in 1990 and went slightly up to 76 percent in 1991; while in Uganda there has been a remarkable climb from 50 percent (1980) to 80 percent (1988), where it has stayed so far.

Table 14: Literacy and Educational Expenditure

	Illiteracy Rate		Primary Education		Spending on Education	
	Total	Female	percent Reaching grade 4	Pupil teacher ratio	% of government budget	Share of primary in education budget
Benin	76.6	84.4	56	35	..	..
Comoros	..	..	51	40	22.0	39.5
Côte d'Ivoire	46.2	59.8	78	37	..	40.2
Gambia	72.8	84.0	97	30	12.9	42.7
Ghana	39.7	49.0	..	27	24.3	29.2
Madagascar	19.8	27.1	49	38	..	49.1
Malawi	..	..	57	64	10.3	48.1
Morocco	50.5	62.0	82	28	26.7	33.0
Mozambique	67.1	78.7	50	53	12.0	49.8
Nigeria	49.3	60.5	71	39	12.0	..
Rwanda	49.8	62.9	68	58	25.4	67.7
Uganda	51.7	65.1	74	35	15.0	20.1
Zaire	28.2	39.3	77	..	6.4	54.5

Source: UNESCO

Educational Strategies in Relation to the Promotion of Basic Education

Case Study 4: Nigeria

Nigeria is an example of a country promoting basic education by implementing universal primary education as well as developing and implementing national education policies and strategies that cater for such groups as pre-primary school children, the handicapped, nomads, adults, girls and women, and out-of-school youth.

The implementation strategies in the country involves the following:

Pre-Primary Education (Ages 3 to 5)

Private individuals and private organisations control the promotion of pre-primary education. The schools are fee-paying, but they maintain an open door policy for any child whose parents are prepared to pay the fees.

Specialist training for pre-primary teachers is given in teacher training institutions. The school curriculum itself covers the creative arts, English Language, Health/Physical Education, Mathematics, Moral Instruction, Music, Religious Studies, Science and Social Studies.

Instruction is through the medium of the mother-tongue or the language of the immediate community orthographies of many Nigerian languages are being developed in order to facilitate such instruction and textbooks are being produced in the languages.

Three problems militate against the expansion of pre-primary education he the country. Firstly, the charging of school fees prevents most parents from sending their children to pre-primary schools. Secondly, quite often these schools operate as appendages of primary schools and this raises problems of lack of infrastructure, space, facilities, etc. Thirdly, supervision by education officials is minimal. These officers tend to get Evolved only when pre-primary schools are to be registered.

Primary Education (Ages 6 to 11)

The implementation strategies for primary education in Nigeria involve first of all a proliferation of primary schools throughout the country, in the hope that nearness of a school to the neighbourhood will give every child access to education. Efforts in this respect include the upgrading of Koranic and Islamic schools, by enhancing their curricula and teaching programmes so that the schools can be absorbed into the primary school system.

The authorities have also embarked on a powerful publicity campaign Using all avenues of communication to make parents conscious old education and awaken in them a burning zeal for the education of their children. Stress is laid on the education of girls, and parents are encouraged by state

ministries and local government authorities to send their daughters to school.

A new national curriculum is being implemented, with thirteen subjects which include training in manual skills, as well as he the mother tongue. The teaching of this curriculum is through the mother tongue or language of the immediate environment for the first three years. English is the medium of instruction for the last three years of primary education.

This new curriculum and the development and production of materials that go with it, are the responsibility of the Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council. Particular efforts are made to equip the schools and provide textbooks for pupils, so as to ensure that underprivileged children are not deprived of basic education anywhere in the country.

A massive teacher training programme has been undertaken, so as to provide adequate training of teachers to teach the new curriculum. In this respect, there is a gradual but deliberate phasing out of teachers with the old Grade Two qualifications, now considered Adequate, in preference for teachers with the new Nigerian Certificate of Education (NCE) in Primary Education.

Finally, the Federal Goverment has established a National Primary Education Commission. The functions of this Commission include prescribing national standards for primary education; advising government on the funding of primary education and collecting periodic plans for balanced and coordinated development.

Despite all these efforts, some sociological, religious and economic problems still militate against achieving 100 percent enrolment at the primary school level. For instance, there are problems of early marriage for females of primary school age; a preference for Koranic schools (as against Western type of schools) by Muslim parents, and the fact of primary school aged children being made to work to generate income instead of being sent to school.

There is also a problem of government not having a strong enough political will to provide legal backing for the policy of universal primary education. Government has not legislated that primary education should be compulsory, in the same way as it has provided other programmes with legal backing, such as the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC), which is compulsory for all graduates of universities and polytechnics. Such a policy for children of primary education age will go a long way to solve the fore-mentioned problems and hence enhance the achievement of 100 percent enrolment at the primary education level by the year 2000.

Education of the Handicapped

The implementation strategy of education of the handicapped involves the establishment of two National Teachers' Colleges (Special Education Colleges) for the training of special teachers and supportive personnel required for educating the handicapped; integrating basic elements of special education into all teacher training colleges to enable them to handle, identify and provide remedies in cases of learning disabilities in regular schools; and providing free education up to university level for the handicapped. Also, spaces are reserved in vocational institutions for any handicapped who can profit from vocational training; and efforts are made at integrating into the normal school any child whose handicap does not hinder him or her from benefiting from education in such a school.

All levels of government local, state and federal, are involved in the financing of primary education for the handicapped. Some of the problems facing the implementation of education for the handicapped in the country include insufficient funds, lack of a pre-school programme for the handicapped, negative attitudes of teachers towards the handicapped, the high cost of equipment, and lack of locally made equipment as well as the lack of locally produced books and other materials.

Nomadic Education

Nomadic education is the education of the pastoralists and the fishermen who constantly migrate in search of means of their livelihood. The Nigerian National Policy on Education recognises that the nomads are a special group with unique ways of life, and that a special educational approach is required in terms of the type of education provided and the method of transmission for them However, in Nigeria, very little has been documented about the migrant fishermen in terms of their number, their attitudes towards education, and the relationship between their work roles and

their access to formal education. The educational strategy to be discussed in this section thus focuses only on pastoral nomadic education, with short-term objectives that emphasise acquisition of basic functional literacy and numeracy.

In practical terms, the acquisition of functional literacy and numeracy should mean for the nomads the ability to:

- Read with comprehension about things that affect their occupational roles like useful directions, tax (jangali/haraji) receipts, instruction on health and animal treatment, and manufacturers instruction sheets related to animal husbandry and agriculture.

- Read and understand national papers and magazines to know what is happening around them. Functional literacy will enable them to read simple instructions, for example, voting instructions in order to make independent choices on those to govern the nation.

- Write legible and meaningful letters to friends, relations, and government officials as regards agriculture and crops, livestock and veterinary services as well as other matters including the needs of their clans.

- Carry out simple calculations and keep records relating to their herds, cost of and returns from investments on improved herds, grazing, diseases encountered in seasonal movements, interest charges on credits and rental rates on land, measurements of land and buildings to hold family and herds, birth and death statistics.

- Develop a scientific outlook, positive attitudes, and self-reliance in dealing with their problems, such as in reporting outbreaks of diseases to Government agencies.

- Improve their relationship with immediate neighbours, sedentary farmers, and Government Authorities/Agencies.

The implementation of these objectives involves first of all the provision of three types of schools: regular schools, on-site schools at fixed points along movement routes, and mobile schools (portable classrooms) for children of mobile families. Also, mobile teaching aids are to move along with the nomad families. As can be seen above, the special nomadic teaching curriculum is infused with an adequate dose of the occupational and cultural roles, tasks and customs and concern of the nomads.

Also, telecast is used for settled cattle Fulanis who have television sets. For the more nomadic, special radio programmes are designed whose style, plot and content reflect the nomadic cultural heritage. this approach suits most nomads who can y their radio sets along and listen to them as they treck.

A special Nomadic Education Commission has been established to advise goverment on nomadic education and monitor its implementation. Also, in most Nigerian states there is a special inter-ministerial committee whose function is to help the nomads not only to develop grazing reserves but also to acquire educational facilities.

However, there is the problem of limited funds to train special teachers and supervisors for nomadic education, provide instructional materials, and conduct specific applied research on the education of both the pastoral nomads and the migrant fishermen.

Curriculum Content of the Nomadic Education Programme

a) Language Arts:
   - Fulfulde
   - Hausa and
   - English.

b) Arithmetics/Mathematics, simple Mathematics for everyday use.

c) Social Studies:
   History of the Nomadic Fulani, and history of Nigeria
   The Pulo-culture including the Pulaaku
   The culture of other Nigerians
   Civics and
   Geography.

d) Religious and moral instruction

e) Elementary Science:
   Animal Management including cattle reading; poultry and fishing as applicable
   Agricultural Science including pasture regeneration
   Physical and health education and
   Nature study.

f) Creative Arts:
Reading
Writing and
Other creative activities.

g) Home Economics:
House-keeping and other related activities
Vocational instructions, weaving, sewing, carpentry, etc.

Adult Education

The Nigerian National Policy on Education describes adult education as consisting of functional literacy, remedial, continuing, vocational, aesthetic, cultural and civic education, both for youth and adults outside the formal school system. Its aim is to provide life-long learning opportunities and the necessary learning environment for these groups of people.

The objectives of adult education as contained in the policy document are:

- To improve functional literacy education for adults who have never had the advantage of formal education;
- To provide functional and remedial education for young people who have pre-maturely dropped out of the formal school system;
- To provide further education for different categories of completers of the formal education system in order to improve their basic knowledge and skills;
- To provide in-service, on-the job, vocational and professional training for different categories of workers and professionals in order to improve their skills;
- To give adult citizens the aesthetic, cultural and civic education necessary for public - enlightenment.

As regards implementation strategies, Nigeria has embarked on an intensive nation-wide mass literacy campaign as a new all-out effort towards adult literacy. Adult Education Sections have been established within both State ministries and the Federal Ministry of Education; intensified awareness drives are conducted in rural areas using such means as home visits and announcements in churches and mosques; and several government parastatals are being used in an enlightenment campaign to reach workers.

Non-governmental organisations are being used to organise literacy and workers' education for adult illiterates. An adult education curriculum has been developed and is used to provide functional skills in agriculture, health, nutrition and living conditions. Teaching is done in special education centres that provide, additionally, remedial education for school drop-outs who wish to continue their education, as well as vocational training for selected occupational groups. New centres are being established at strategic points so as to reduce the distance that learners have to travel to the centres.

Feasibility is in-built into the organisation of adult teaching programmes, to ensure that the occupational activities of learners are not disrupted. As regards the teaching itself, more and more adult education teachers are being trained; the teaching is monitored on a regular basis; and great efforts are being made to provide the necessary equipment and materials.

In this last connection, a special centre has been established for the development and production of teaching and learning materials. This centre is also responsible for research and documentation as well as for organising in-service courses, workshops and seminars.

In the process of implementing adult education programmes in Nigeria, many problems are encountered. They include inadequate finance, the absence of a data bank for adult education, an insufficiency in the number of literacy teachers and adult education inspectors, and inadequate methods of evaluating literacy programmes.

The Apprenticeship Programme for Out-of-School Youth

Nigeria has launched the National Open Apprenticeship Programme (NOAP) as a means of constraining the rapidly increasing youth unemployment, providing functional literacy and numeracy to the literate youth, and sustaining already acquired literacy among those who have had some form of formal education.

The major objectives of the programme are as fol lows:

- To give technical and vocational training to youth who are school certificate holders or who

have completed secondary school education as well as those who have received no such education.
- To equip the youth with such skills as will enable them to be self employed.
- To provide low level technical and vocational manpower that will ultimately service the industrial complex within the economy.
- To provide alternative employment opportunities for youth so that they can work in the public sector or form producer cooperatives.
- To encourage those who complete their course of training to return to their local government areas and set up their own private businesses or cooperatives.
- To promote the conditions necessary for the development of a technologically conscious society.

The strategy for implementing the programme includes attaching the apprentices to trainer organisations, which may be private enterprises or government establishments or local craftsmen or women. Their programme consists of 80 percent practical on-the job training and 20 percent theory Only experienced teachers who possess either the Higher Diploma or Bachelor's degree are used for the theory aspect of the programme.

English language and mathematics are compulsory for all apprentices, while the various trade subjects are electives. The performance, conduct and character of the apprentices are evaluated and supervised through monthly rating tests and a final examination.

Generally, the programme appears to be a success as can be seen from the fact that the Youth Employment and Vocational Skills Development Department gives a total of some 108,522 apprentices enrolled in the 25 most subscribed trades, and even as many as 5,911 enrolled in the 25 least subscribed trades. However, the programme implementation strategy could still be improved particularly in terms of providing an improved curriculum, making classes more homogenous, providing adequate learning spaces and facilities, regularising the recruitment dates, and increasing tuning.

The Education of Women

In Nigeria, girls represent 44 percent of pupils at the primary level, and only 24 percent at the tertialy level. I he primary GER for girls stands at 67 percent, 18 percent lower than for boys. The illiteracy rate for women was estimated in 1990 at 60.5 percent, as opposed to 37.7 percent for men.

The programme for women's education has become a distinct entity within the overalI education programme, with special funding and effective implementation. This is because of the need to integrate women into the mainstream of economic development; a task that cannot be accomplished without getting rid of the current educational discrimination of girls and women
in the country. Such a need must have influenced the National Council on Education (NCE) to endorse a set of policy objectives on women's education. The policy objectives are as follows:

- Provision of more educational opportunities for girls at all levels from primary to tertiary.
- Creating full public awareness of the fact that equal educational opportunities exist irrespective of gender, age, locality, creed or status and are available to all.
- Re-orientating the attitude of all females irrespective of age towards education.
- Provision of functional education for girls and women through skills such as sewing, cooking, typing, knitting, crocheting, tatting, tie dyeing and baking.
- Awakening the consciousness of all women to the need for the development of a positive self-image.
- Educating parents and the general public so as to bring about a change in attitude towards women's educational programmes.
- Promoting the education of girls and women in the fields of Science, Technology and Mathematics.

Actions that are being taken include developing a blue-print on women's education in Nigeria, and mobilising all government machineries to launch a national awareness campaign on the education of women.

Also, departments for women's education have been established in the Federal Ministry and all state ministries of education; legal provisions have been enacted against the premature withdrawal of girls from primary schools; and special provisions have been made to increase the access of girls to education, such as the provision of free education and the establishment of government secondary schools specially for girls.

As regards women's access in general, more than 90 women's education centres have been established and equipped and specific curriculum guidelines and instructional materials developed and provided for use in these centres; specific education programmes for nomadic women, for market women, and for rural women have been established; and special workshops, national exhibitions and national competitions are being organised for the promotion and popularisation of science, technology and mathematics among girls and women. Also, annual evaluation meetings are held to assess the achievements and the obstacles associated with the education of girls and women.

Some of the problems that militate against the effective implementation of women's education in Nigeria are rooted in religion and tradition. There are also problems of inadequate funding, lack of infrastructure and trained personnel.

On the basis of the implementation strategies adopted for the promotion of basic education as described above, it can be discerned that the country is emphasising both the promotion of literacy among young people and adults; and the development of primary education with particular attention to reducing inequality between various groups (e.g. sexes, regions, religious groups, etc.).

However, it is not known how far these are effectively enhancing the quality of teaming, since monitoring and evaluation appear not to be an integral part of the programmes except at the level of primary education. This is contrary to the stipulations of the National Policy on Education, which are that educational assessment and evaluation at all levels should be generalised and based in whole or in part on the continuous assessment of the progress of the individual. The lack of monitoring and evaluation can be attributed to shortage of qualified teachers and of monitoring and evaluation officers in the country. Even the primary education programme has quite a number of problems associated with its monitoring and evaluation, such problems as border or misconceptions the inability of practising teachers to assess in the non-cognitive domains, low teacher integrity, and inaccurate and disorganised record keeping by teachers (Okpala *et al*., 1993)

There are also other problems that militate against effective implementation of the various educational programmes. They include lack of relevant researchbased background information, mismanagement. and inadequate planning, as well as some problems that hinge on sociological, economic, religious and political factors. These problems have to be tackled from their roots, he order to ensure further quantitative and qualitative promotion of literacy among youth and adult Nigerians as well as the development of primary education in the country.

By and large, it is evident that Nigeria is promoting basic education by embarking on the strategy of generalisation as recommended by MINEDAF V1. There are also indications that the country has undertaken some efforts towards the promotion of basic education since the Jomtien and MINEDAF Vl conferences. Indeed, the gross enrolment at primary level which was 73 percent in 1988 increased to 76 percent in 1990. However based on the actual data, it is difficult to determine specifically the extent to which the strategy of generalisation and the efforts undertaken would enable the country to achieve, by the end of the 20th century, the twin objectives of increasing the net enrolment rate in primary school from the present estimated 70 percent to 80 percent; and reducing illiteracy by half, that is, from 49 to 25 percent.

What seems to be more important at this point is for the country to sustain the spirit of the generalisation strategy, and fully to harness all its potential for the promotion of basic education. All hands must be on deck to improve, among other things, the monitoring and evaluation of the various educational programmes on basic education and the management of the limited financial, human and material resources available for the programmes.

Case Study 5: Uganda

Uganda is promoting basic education by implementing a primary education programme as well as educational programmes for pre-school children (2-5 years old), and adults.

Pre-primary Education (2-5 Years Old)

Pre-primary education in Uganda is controlled by private individuals, communities and private agencies.

The government gives support to these individuals and organs to set up their own chiIdhood education centres, with support from aid agencies. However, the pre-primary schools enrol about 5 percent of the age group of 2-5 years, and most of the schools are in the urban areas. 'Idle schools determine their own curricula and fees, and this without any interference from government; although government is reported to be increasingly involved with the development of standard curricula and the training of pre-primary teachers. The government does not supervise the running of the schools. This lack of government control, as well as the payment of fees, poses problems for a poor country that is interested in developing quality basic education for all children. Ate payment of fees scares most poor parents from sending their children to pre-primary school, while the lack of supervision tends to reduce the quality of the school programmes. Already, there is pressure on government to streamline all the pre-primary school programmes, provide guidelines for them and supervise their running

Primary Education (6-13 Years Old)

In Uganda the primary Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) stands at 80 percent, and the net enrolment rate is estimated at about 65 percent. Basic education leads to the Primary Education Leaving Certificate in four subjects: English Language, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies.

As regards primary education, the strategies for generalisation have included the successful involvement of non-governmental agencies in establishing and controlling primary education. There are up to 1200 private primary schools in the country, some 13 percent of the total number of schools. Also, local committees are involved in building more schools with either temporary or permanent materials; and even parents are more and more involved in the buying of school material and furniture.

The primary school curriculum has been renewed and developed, with a view to adopting an integrated approach to teaching and continuous assessment of pupils' performance. Also the capacity of the National Curriculum Centre has been reinforced by the creation of specialised units within the centre and providing equipment.

The Ministry of Education provides the inspectors and administrators, as well as textbooks for the schools. Also, there is an ongoing programme of rehabilitating and refurnishing schools so as to provide a healthy and rich learning enviromnent. In addition, measures are taken to provide fringe benefits as incentives for teachers, such as free education for two pupils per teacher.

Other measures by government include revising the finance of education to provide increased access to basic education despite limited resources, and provide more government-subsidised input at primary level as against the secondary and higher levels. One action in this regard has been cutting down on the financing of established boarding schools and building more primary day schools within three kilometres firm every child's home. Also, sources of educational funding are being diversified by encouraging greater community participation; productive work in schools involving small agricultural projects, animal husbandry and poultry; more local authority input into primary school expansion, and also by encouraging the participation of external donor agencies in essential activities such as extended teacher training and refresher courses, which is a must for the programme of generalisation.

As regards teacher training, Uganda is making significant et forts to increase the proportion of trained teachers in the national teaching force. As a result, the percentage of trained teachers has increased frolic 50.9 percent in 1990 to 53.8 percent in 1993. A Primary Education and Teacher Development Project (PETDP), 1992-98, has been established with World Bank and USAID support, and more than 28.6 percent of the global budget of this project is devoted to the improvement of primary school management and teaching.

As regards materials, the project also allocates some 27.6 percent of its budget for providing Reaming resources, as well as some 0.67 percent for revitalising private sector publishing and printing so as to increase tile production of educational materials. The rapid increase in the provision of materials is seen to be crucial for improving the quality of education and thus, among other things. for improving the school retention rate and reducing educational wastage he general. The programme for increasing the availability of instruc-

tional material is reported to be widely supported by international aid agencies.

Problems

There are many problems militating against the effective implementation of the primary education programme in Uganda. Some of these may be listed as follows:

- Overcrowded classes, especially in urban areas, due to high school-age population growth and in consequence a very great demand for places even in an expanding school system;
- The lack of funds, due in a large measure to low government spending on education (only 0.6 percent of the GDP in 1990). This, among other things, imposes severe limits on both the quantitative and qualitative expansion of primary education;
- Consequent also on the above, the fact that parents are forced to bear an inordinately heavy share of the cost of primary education. This means that the poorest parents cannot afford to send their children to school, and it raises a problem of equity;
- A low female enrolment ratio of only 45 percent. There is a cultural problem here, in that parents do not see the value of girls' education. Thus girls tend not to be sent to school, and whenever there is a choice to be made (e.g. for financial reasons) it is the girls and not the boys who suffer;
- Disparities in the location of schools between rural and urban areas; creating problems of the lack of physical access to schools, especially for girls;
- The poor condition of schools and their infrastructures, which is particularly marked in rural areas. For instance, a 1989 school census revealed that only 42 percent of the classrooms were permanent structures; 43 percent of the classes in the north of the country were only open air classes; and among the existing structures 73 percent were critically damaged. Current efforts at rehabilitation, though considerable, do not seem to be far-reaching enough;
- A high wastage rate of 60 percent of the primary school leavers;
- Over-centralisation, resulting in weak management and weak monitoring and plating;
- Poor management, or even mismanagement, of the limited resources available for primary education at both school, district and headquarters levels.

Adult Education

In Uganda, as in other countries of the region, there is a large proportion of people who have had no access to formal schooling or for whom school time has not been enough to allow them to benefit from education. This spells illiteracy. The illiteracy rates for Uganda are an overall 52 percent of which 38 percent are males and as high as 65 percent are females. The illiteracy rate for female is particularly alarming in view of the need not only for an increase but also for a balance in the literate population.

The adult education programme in Uganda is a multi-faceted endeavour involving government and non-governmental agencies in educational projects such as vocational training in various skills, artistic activities, including theatre and drama, political education, extra-mural studies, community development, club activities, and extension work in public health and health education.

The strategy for implementing adult education programmes in Uganda includes, first of all, evolving a clear and coherent policy for non-formal education and literacy, which entails a language policy; conducting needs assessment surveys, realistic sizes and distribution of the target groups (adults, out-of-school youth, etc.), sensitising the public including the target groups themselves as well as administrators and politicians, and enhancing national commitment to eradicating illiteracy through seminars and the mass media.

Relevant literacy curricula and literacy materials are indeed developed and produced to ensure that the programmes effectively serve the target groups; and the required instructors, including formal school teachers, are trained and refreshed through short courses in the skill of imparting literacy and other forms of non-formal education. Also follow-up of post-literacy programmes is undertaken to ensure literacy retention.

Attempts are made to utilise existing facilities and provisions to the full. For this and other reasons, an effective coordinating mechanism has been set up to implement and monitor programmes for the target groups. Implementation arrangements

include the integration of activities in both the formal and non-formal educational sectors, through the use of teachers and administrators to oversee literacy and other adult education programmes, and by means of involving community adults in the teaching of crafts and other appropriate skills to primary school children and out-of-school youth.

The problems include the mis-conception of formal e and non-formal education as separate entities. This mis-conception has cost the country a great deal, in terms of the lack of a cost-effective, development oriented approach that should have led to integrated, self-sustaining development in the social and economic field. There are also problems having to do with insufficient funds, the absence of research-based data on adult education, an insufficiency of literacy teachers and inspectors, and a lack of continuous monitoring and evaluation of adult education programmes.

Disadvantaged Groups

The problem of educational provision, and therefore of equity, still hits hardest on the marginalised populations. The country has not had any set programmes to cope with the problem of its disadvantaged groups, or for inserting them into the mainstream of society. The following groups have been identified as disadvantaged within the context of Uganda: Women and girls, orphans, refugees, handicapped, gifted, nomades...

The educational disparities between females and males, as well as some of the problems militating against the education women and girls, have been mentioned in the previous paragraphs in connection with primary and adult education. The problem of the education of children who have lost their parents is an acute one, in view of the context of Uganda as a country recently emerging from a 15-year old civil strife. This explains also the existence of the disadvantage population group of refugees. As for Nigeria to some extent, the nomadic group does not seem to have been fully researched.

Whatever strategies are available in the country for dealing with these disadvantaged groups have to do with the work of the Education Policy Review Commission, set up in 1987 and reporting in 1990. As a result of its work, and in line with the Jomtien goals, a Five Year Investment Programme has been set up, aimed. *inter alia.* at the following:

- Target assistance to communities with the greatest need; these often being also the communities with the least available resources for satisfying their needs;

- Special incentives to make disadvantaged areas more attractive to teachers;

- Develop new curricula, also to attract marginalised population.

A consideration of the implementation strategies adopted for the promotion of basic education, would indicate that the emphasis is on young people of primary school age (ages 5-13 years old) in formal school system. Although the strategies cover the non-formal education sector through the adult education programme, there is still much to be done to reach the variety of adult illiterate groups in the country. For instance, separate educational programmes could be developed and implemented for some marginalised groups such as women, out-of school youth, the handicapped and nomads. This approach seems preferable to that of including every adult in a general adult education programme that might be too cumbersome for efficient management, monitoring and evaluation. However, implementing such separate educational programmes might be difficult for the country, considering the weak economy and high inflation rate.

As of now, most of the education budget is spent on salaries and wages, leaving very little for the purchase of educational materials, equipment and other consumables, and this in spite of rising demands for these items as a result of expansion in institutions and increase in enrolment. Within the education sector, resource allocation is greatest for higher education. and least for primary education. While government meets the full boarding and lodging cost of higher education students, parents share the greatest burden (70 percent) of primary education. This situation does not augur well for the recommended strategy of generalisation, since it limits the access to basic education of children from a poor parental background.

The country also has much to do in terms of providing quality basic education. There are no indications that the primary and adult education programmes are backed by efficient monitoring and evaluation techniques. The proposal to base the programme evaluation on continuous assessment of the progress of the learners might be difficult to implement because of the fact that the assessment procedure is cost-intensive he terms of human, material and financial resources. However, it is important to initiate an effective means of checking the quality of both primary and secondary education programmes in order to minimise wastage. Any monitoring and evaluation technique to be used should be of the formative type given that the country cannot afford the luxury of the summative type of evaluation.

There are some other factors that are likely to work against the strategy of generalisation: such as low motivation among personnel in various services, unemployment, inadequate transport and communication facilities, high rate of population increase, poor infrastructure, political.instability, human resource constraints in priority areas, and corrupt practices. Attempts must be made to tackle Such problems, if only for the sake of an increase in efficiency..

In all, there are indications that the strategy employed in Uganda for promoting basic education may face constraints against the strategy of generalisation as recommended by MINEDAF Vl . This is in spite of the fact that the country has made some efforts towards the promotion of basic education since the Jomtien and MINEDAF Vl conferences. Based on the forecast of the actual trends, the country by the year 2000 will have a gross enrolment ratio of about 81 percent. This will be far from the universal primary education.

4 - Strategies Focusing on Consolidation

For the group of countries which attained universal primary education in the 1980s, there is a need for them to adopt a strategy for the consolidation of what they had achieved with regards to quality. This means improving the quality of learning as well as promotion of literacy among young people and adults. All these must be undertaken within the framework of a national education policy aimed at satisfying the need for manpower at the highest possible level.

Despite the geographical diversity and varying sizes of these countries, there exist common characteristics which justify the need to adopt similar strategies in education. One of these common characteristics common is the level of development defined in terms of Gross National Product (CiNP), or better still, in terms of 'Human Development Indices'.[1] Among the 21 countries discussed in this chapter, only four of them (Lesotho, Equatorial Guinea, Cape Verde and Botswana) feature in the list of Least Developed Countries (LDC). But they are more developed from the social point of view, and this fact is borne out by their higher life expectancy when compared with the countries in groups 'A' and 'B' . This relative affluence is also evidence by the infant mortality rates. Only in two countries, Angola and Equatorial Guinea, that these rates (which indicate the number of children in every 1,000 births who die before their first birthday) are more than 100.

Table 15 also highlights another important indicator of the progress in these countries: average population growth[2] in the 1980s was lower than the average for the two other groups. a few other interesting date are also worthy of note: In two of the 18 countries, the average age at which women engage in their first marriage was below 18 years. Rural dwellers account for 70 percent and 79 percent of the total population. The number does not reach 89 percent in any of the countries. It also appears that countries in this group are more urbanised than the two others.

The indices put together suggest these countries have the potential for a strategy to sustain and consolidate achievements in the educational system.

Table 15: Development Indicators

Countries	Population		GNP/Capita		Debt percent of GNP 1992	Ais percent of GNP 1991	Life Expectancy 1992
	1993 (000)	Growth Rate 1980-1993	1992	Growth Rate 1980-1992			
Algeria	27070	2.9	1840	- 0.5	60	1	65.6
Angola	10276	3.0	..	..	..	..	45.6
Botswana	1352	3.2	2790	6.1	13	4	60.3
Cameroon	12547	2.9	820	- 1.5	60	4	55.3
Cape Verde	395	2.4	850	3.0	..	..	67.3
Congo	2441	3.0	1030	- 0.8	166	5	51.7
Egypt	56060	2.5	640	1.8	68	15	60.9
Equatorial Guinee	379	4.4	..	..	..	..	47.3
Gabon	1279	3.6	4450	- 3.7	69	3	52.9
Kenya	26090	3.5	310	0.2	65	11	58.6
Lesotho	1882	2.7	590	- 0.5	23	20	59.8
Libya	5048	4.0	..	..	..	..	62.4
Mauritius	1109	1.1	2700	5.6	30	3	69.6
Namibia	1584	3.1	1610	- 1.0	..	8	58.0
Seychelles	72	1.2	5460	3.2	..	..	71.0
South Africa	40774	2.5	2670	1.0	..	..	62.2
Swaziland	814	2.8	1090	1.6	..	..	57.3
Togo	3885	3.1	390	- 1.8	55	12	54.4
Tunisia	8579	2.3	1720	1.3	50	2	67.1
Zambia	8885	3.4	..	..	..	..	45.5
Zimbabwe	10898	3.3	579	- 0.9	64	6	56.1

Source: UNDP World Human Development
UNESCO World Education Report 1993
World Bank Report 1994

But at the beginning of the 1990s, one would be right to ask whether: 'the progress achieved by the countries in question would be sustained and strengthened in future, or whether they will be stalled by reverses in economic growth and financial problems?' This chapter will attempt to find answers to such questions using case studies.

The study will focus on four countries situated in diverse geographical zones with different educational systems and perhaps cultural traditions. A North African country (Egypt), an island state in the Indian Ocean (Mauritius), two sub-Sahara African countries (Cameroon and Cape Verde). The last country is in the Sahel region. The progress made by these countries suggests that they are most likely to reach target by the year 2000.

Table 16: Data on Education

Countries	Illiteracy Rate		Primary Education		Spending on Education		Share of primary in education budget
	Male Female	Female	% reaching grade 4 1989	Pupil teacher ratio 1990	% of govt. budget 1990	% of primary budget + 1st degree 1990	
Algeria	42.6	30.2	90		27.0		95
Angola	58.3	71.5	37		10.7	96.3	91
Botswana	26.4	34.9	80		15.9	31.1	117
Cameroon	45.9	57.4	69	26	19.6	70.5	103
Cape Verde	33.5		51	33	19.9	54.7	115
Congo	43.4	56.1	54	10	14.4		
Egypt	51.6	66.2	100	25		70.2	101
Equatorial Guinee	49.8	63.0	-	-	3.9		
Gabon	39.3	51.5	44	26			
Kenya	31.0	41.5		39	16.7	57.3	95
Lesotho			50		13.8	42.1	107
Mauritius	20.1	25.3	97		11.8	41.2	106
Namibia			38	38		21.2	119
Seychelles			78	19		32.2	
Swaziland			73	19	11.9	32.9	108
Togo	56.7	69.3	59	29	24.7	30.4	111
Tunisia	34.7	43.7	78	25	14.3	39.8	116
Zambia	27.2	34.7	84		8.7	31.7	97
Zimbabwe	33.1	39.7	94			54.1	116

Source: UNESCO

Case Study 6: Cameroon

Geographically speaking, Cameroon, which extends from the dry zone bordering lake Chad to the hot and humid climate of the extreme end of the Gulf of Guinea, is Africa in miniature'. More than 475,000 square kilometres of its land surface is covered by diverse landscape, fauna and flora. Equally diverse is its population of 12,600,000 people of which 56 percent are below 20 years of age. Its economic potential (minerals and energy resources) places the country in the ranks of intermediate states with per capita Gross Domestic Product of 820 US dollars in 1992. Economic growth had been proceeding normally since the 1960s and this growth seems to argur well for the expansion of the educational sector with its bilingual character (French and English) until the 1980s.

Progress in Education

Immediately after Jomtien, UNESCO adopted Cameroon as a test-case for follow-up activities. Technical back-up was provided in view of a plan of action for the promotion of basic education, even though there was insufficient follow-up. Table 17 summarises evolution of the entire formal education sector during 1990-1994.

An annual growth of 13.2 percent was recorded in pre-school education, in which the total number of children increased from 93,771 to 131,171. The latter figure represents 19.8 percent of children aged between three and five years. There was no discrimination in access to education in gender terms but pre-school institutions were concentrated in the urban areas.

Primary education was on the decline during the period under consideration. Idle number of children dropped from 1,964,146 to 1,823,556, representing a reduction of 140,590 pupils overall and -2.3 percent on average per year. During the same period, the school system lost 4,238 teachers, or an average of 3.7 percent per year. Teacher training also declined as the number of trained teachers fell from 515 to 435, or -5.1 percent on average per year. which was the height of the crisis considering that trainee teachers numbered 5,347 in 1987.

For other levels of education, the situation was more positive in quantitative terms. In post-primary education, the number of students went up by 64.5 percent per year, from 13,186 to 21,668. Both general and technical secondary education rose by 11.1 percent and 4.1 percent respectively. Greater strides were made in higher education which rose from 24,561 in 1988-89 to an estimated 42,220 students enrol led in six universities in 1993-94. For a country which had nearly attained universal primary education. it is natural that efforts should focus on other levels of education as welI as on the improvement on the qual ity of alI aspects of learning and the effectiveness of tile entire education system.

Table 17: General Data on Education in Cameroon

Type of Education	Establissements			Classrooms			Teachers			Pupils		
	90/91	93/94	(1)	90/91	93/94	(1)	90/91	93/94	(1)	90/91	93/94	(1)
Maternal	807	851	1,8	1714	1985	5,2	3567	3755	1,7	93771	131171	13,2
Primary	6709	6763	0,2	38712	37645	- 0,9	38429	34146	- 3,7	1964146	1823556	- 2,3
Pre-primary	131	162	7,8	492	597	13,2	1309	1954	16,4	13186	21688	21,4
Normal	33	33	0,0	148	133	- 3,3	232	123	- 15,6	515	436	- 5,1
General Secondary	546	709	9,9	8390	10517	8,4	13893	19649	13,8	409749	546456	11,1
Technical Secondary	250	315	8,6	3095	3073	- 0,2	5695	6814	6,5	90028	101191	4,1
Higher										24561 (88/89)	42220	14,37

Source: Ministry of Education 1994

The internal efficiency of the education system is weak. In the Francophone system, it is estimated that out of every 1000 pupils enrolled in the first year of primary school, 522 reach the sixth year, 190 go to secondary, 145 complete the first cycle of secondary school, 90 to the second (high school) cycle, 52 complete the cycle, 23 obtain high school certificate and 11 are admitted to the university. But it turns out that all the graduates of the various levels are not well prepared to begin life.

For 80 percent of the pupils who drop out at the end of primary education, learning was theoretical based on memorisation and recitation which does not provide the capacity to solve problems of present-day life in their immediate environment. The same goes to a large extent for other levels of education and training (post-primary, general-secondary and technical) with respect to their fitness for the labour market.

It can be deduced from the evolution of the over-all system of education and learning in Cameroon, that the country has been seriously affected by the difficult economic situation which is aggravated by the devaluation of the local currency in 1994. Conscious of the gravity of the problem authorities tried to find a solution by organising a National Conference on the General State of Education held from 22 to 25 May 1995. More than 500 people from all segments of society attended the forum to suggest options that would free the country from the crisis at the instance of the government. The conference was mainly exclusively concerned with the educational sectors which are under the responsibility of the Ministry of National Education. As a result, issues concerning higher and non-formal education were not debated, though they were not totally absent in the formulation of new orientations of educational policy.

New Orientations of Educational Policy

Conclusions of the National Forum on Education (1995)

In order to provide a fairly complete view of orientations of educational policy, it is necessary to give a summary of the conclusions reached by the conference mentioned above. This will be followed by the options proposed for higher education,-the framework under which Iiteracy programmes are being implemented and finally, the kind of support being provided by external partners.

The conference first affirmed that: 'the mission of the new Cameroonian school is to bring up a complete citizen'. The characteristics were specified as follows:

- Individual: physical, intellectual, artistic, civic and moral, education, as well as the integral development of personality;

- Collective and Community: citizen respectful of common property, well entrenched in his/her culture, active producer, open to the outside world and to scientific and technological progress;

- Moral: Universal ethical values including respect for human rights and liberties, sense of dignity and honour, hard working, love of work well done, sense of discipline;

- Intellectual: the school should lead toward excellence;

- Politics and Civic: culture and practice of democracy, tolerance, peace, justice, dialogue, solidarity, love and fatherland.

In essence, the type of man that will emerge from this mission is one educated to become a patriotic citizen, enlightened, bilingual (French/English), rooted in his culture, but open to the world, creative, enterprising, tolerant, loving his identity, responsible, integrated, respectful of the ideals of peace, solidarity and justice and endowed with knowledge, know-how and good living!

The main proposals come under three major themes: Basic education, Scientific, technical and professional education, Staff and means of education.

Priorities of Education for All : This principle is reaffirmed in a situation in which economic problems impede schooling. Particular attention is focused the education of girls, satisfaction of the educational needs of disfavoured groups (border and landlocked areas). From this point of view, complementarity between formal and non-formal education is yet to be established.

The foundation of basic education is learning to read, Write and calculate, as well as the acquisition of the ability to solve present-day problems, in tandem with the capacity to continue to learn. This foundation can be best- assured by linking up education with the immediate environment. It should also prepare the learner for easy integration into active life at the different levels of the school system by striking a balance between school and work, training and self-employment and entrepreneurship. It is in this spirit that the principle I inking education and work was adopted.

The gradual introduction of national languages, while at the same time maintaining the official French/ English bilingualism of the country is a principle which is fully in conformity with the Option linking education and the immediate environment, promotion of culture and guarantor of national unity.

The introduction of new subjects such as: population and family life education, health education, education on the environment, education for peace, democracy and intennational understanding, during the process of general revision of the curriculum to improve their impact.

Development of Scientific, Technical and Vocational Education: Reinforcement of scientific education was proposed. The same for the promotion of technical and professional training with a view to satisfy the needs for qualified manpower to man all sectors and levels of the economy.

Staff and Education: On this topic, a reappraisal of the role of teachers was recommended, in regard to the situation in which all government workers have lost 75 percent of their purchasing power. Systemisation of the policy for initial and training of teachers and continuous statutory specification which clearly defines the profile and career prospects will fond part of the reappraisal .

Decentralisation of educational administration is a trend to be reinforced as other aspects of the educational reforms take root: use of national languages, liaison between institution of learning with the milieu, reinforcement of the integration of school leavers into active life.

On the funding of education, it was recommended that:

- Priority be given to education in allocation of state budget;

- To recognise that priority be given to basic education;

- Reinforce the role of internal partners in funding of education;

- Recognise the important role played by private schools in providing opportunities for education.

In short, democratisation, decentralisations deconcentration and partnership will be the guiding principles of educational systems in the near future.

Options in the Area of Higher Education

University reforms were conducted in 1993. In fact, due to the persistent economic crisis rise in student population (50,000 students at the University of Yaounde), the need for teachers, the necessity to adapt the school system to the labour market, the university reforms focused on the following areas: involvement of students openness improved conditions for teachers, improved learning environment, revision of tile laws on acade-

mic freedom.

Higher education in Cameroon is currently offered in six universities with an enrolment of 42,220 students, in 23 faculties, 9 Post-graduate schools and 3 university institutes of technology.

Participation also involves funding through higher contributions from the beneficiaries (students) in university expenses. It also touches on management, to be extended to people outside the universities. The social aspect has an important place in the new system, for example, more rational and just allocation of student bursaries.

The new reform is also characterised by its opening up to the immediate environment including labour market.

Another characteristic of the new reforms concerns the status of teachers who are to be upgraded morally and financially. The possibility of one year sabbatical leave has to be reintroduced to make it possible for teachers to devote relatively long periods to serious research. The modification of the retirement age and entrenchment of 'merit' have become reality.

In order to create an environment more conducive to the exchange of ideas in within an 'apolitical' framework, thus removing the university from 'the arena of political battles' academic freedom has been revised and adapted to the social and political situation of the country.

The Literacy Situation

The literacy rate in Cameroon is about 64 percent. This is the result of support from a large number of public and private partners. No less than seven ministries are involved in the domain of non-formal education (Youth and Sports, Social Affairs and Women's Condition, National Education, Labour and Social Insurance, Agriculture, Communication, Culture). The Ministry of Youth and Sports appears to be one of the principal actors given the structures it has set up in this domain. In 1993-94, there were 115 youth centres catering for 10,000 learners, 75 literacy centres attended by at least 5,000 people, about 50 movements and youth associations catering for some 200,000 youths. There is no general coherent literacy programme with clearly defined objectives and rules of operation.

International Cooperation

In this time of difficulty, does Cameroon enjoy support from the international community for the expansion of education? She process of adjustment is all-embracing and complex. Major projects on education funded from outside, especially by banks have had to be suspended due to the adjustment programme.

However, at the bilateral and multilateral levels, the country has benefited from external support channelled toward reinforcement and consolidation of the education system and training. The following examples illustrate this orientation:

For primary education, efforts have been aimed at improving quality by reorienting teaching staff, design and production of school textbooks (UNESCO-ACCT), improving school facilities: construction of 48 primary schools with funding from the Islamic Bank for International Development to the tune of 9,000,000 dollars, negotiations for a grant of 2.5 billion FCFA for the construction of 100 classrooms.

The World Bank, through Social Action Programme and credit for economic recovery is providing financial support worth six billion FCFA for the improvement of learning conditions by rehabilitating schools, acquisition of black-boards and teaching aids and support to private schools.

Technical secondary education received a major support from Canada for the construction and equipment of six polytechnics, and for training and refresher courses of technical teaching staff.

France provided 1.2 billion FCFA for training of secondary school teachers, procurement of teaching materials within the framework of a adjustment programme for schools and university research for 1991-93.

In all, partners have appreciated the efforts of the government in the organisation of the National Forum on Education which is expected to mark a new trend in the development of Education in Cameroon.

The economic crisis which hit Cameroon especially in 1987, has continued to grow worse to this day. The devaluation of the CFA in 1994, has made it difficult to rehabilitate the economy. This has led to economic stagnation. The education sector has not been spared from this impediment and the most fragile component, that is, basic education is in decline. Pupils' enrolment dropped 2.3 percent per year between 1990 and 1994. The training of teachers for primary schools has almost been grounded. The other levels of education have rather recorded positive trends but suffer considerable operational problems which do not support quality education.

Faced with such a situation, *ad hoc* measures have been taken to limit the damage at the level of sub-sectors. High hopes were placed on the results of the National Forum on Education which however Pre restricted debate on sectors which are under the ministry of national education. Among its recommendations, basic education was highlighted as a priority sector. The need to improve quality by revising programmes which ensure better link-up with the milieu, acquisition of knowledge necessary for integration into active life after school also form part of the recommendations.

The adoption of the recommendations of the National Forum on Education will necessarily lead to the reappraisal of the whole policy on education and teaming in the country and makes it coherent from the primary to higher education. This will enable learners develop fully their potential and achieve excellence.

Case Study 7: Cape Verve

The ten islands of Cape Verde, off the shores of Senegal, cover 4,033 square kilometres, with a resident population estimated in 1993 at 39s,000 habitants. In 1990, about 4s percent of the inhabitants were less than 15 years of age while 55 percent were less than 20 years of age. The economy is beset with many problems: lack of natural resources, insufficient rainfall, and high dependence on foreign aid.

Since 1991, the country installed multiparty democracy and adopted economic liberalisation. This implied that the Third National Development Plan (1992- l995) gave priority to the country's integration into the world economic system.

Given its per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (750 US dollars in 1991), Cape Verde belongs to the group of Least Developed Countries (LDCs). However, it differs from these countries from the educational point of view. The latter has recorded considerable level of development and is currently undergoing reform and consolidation.

Characteristics of the Education Sector

The formal education sector is made up of the following four levels:

- Pre-school education, of 4 to 6 years;
- Primary education of 7 to 12 years;
- Secondary education of 13 to 18 years;
- Post-secondary education.

Pre-school education: Within the framework of basic Education for Ail, attention is given to pre-school education. With 163 nursery schools, they provide schooling for 40 percent of children aged between 4 and 6 years. However, 57 percent of the total number are located in the Island of Santiago and largely depend on the private sector.

Primary education is subdivided into two cycles of four years and two years. It is developed in terms of quantity since the country has recorded a rate of schooling of more than 100 percent since the begining of the 1 980s. This result was achieved by operating the two and three-shift classes.

The problem facing basic education has to do with quality. In fact, nearly 48 percent of the pupils do not complete school and 18 percent of the total number of pupils in tile elementary school are repeating classes.

Secondary education of five years duration is organised in two phases: general education and technical training. In Cape Verde, there is only one technical school. The general secondary education institutions are concentrated in two urban centres, Praia and Mindelo. The weakness of this level of education was believed to lie mainly in the rigidity of its curricula, proliferation of secondary schools and the weak link between the two types of schools.

Post-secondary education. As it is the case with most small island states, higher education remains undeveloped. Here, this is made up of a teacher

training school, an institute of agricultural research and a centre for administrative training and refresher courses. Majority of senior government officials are trained abroad.

Literacy: Major efforts have been systematically deployed since the mid-1970s in favour of literacy among young people and adults aged between 15 and 35 years. As a result, the illiteracy rate was reduced to 29 percent in 1991 aria to 27 percent in 1995.

Promotion of Teachers: The training of teachers is below target from the point of view of the aggregate number of trained teachers and inadequate in terms of quality. In 1991, 62 percent of the schools were not staffed with teachers with acceptable academic background or sufficient professional training to practise. Less than 45.5 percent of the teachers have minimum qualification. The more backward regions are disfavoured in the assignment of teachers. The percentage of qualified teachers range from 2.4 at Mosteiros to 59.2 percent at Mindelo. Similar imbalance is prevalent at the secondary school level: majority of the trained teachers are posted to Mindelo while such regions as Fogo and Sal respectively have only 10.5 percent and 5 percent. In these two regions, the professional corps have put in less than two years of service on average.

Remuneration for teachers has for some time been the object of a dispute. Teachers feel they receive poor pay when compared with their compatriots who have the same academic qualification but work in other sectors. This partially explains why trained teachers quit for sectors with higher pay and better work conditions.

The system of recruitment of teachers is considered not quite selective. The content of the curricula also poses problems. In Cape Verde, the inadequacy of the curricula is often regretted. In general, learning is considered to be too theoretical in the various professional training schools. Besides, there is no system of education in use which provides for continuous updating of knowledge.

For a more appropriate education, the training institute replaced the primary teacher training schools in the training of for the reformed basic education level.

The secondary school teacher training colleges prepare diploma holders (non-university higher education) and on an experimental basis, degree courses in Cape Verdian and Portuguese studies.

Consolidation

Cape Verde has deployed considerable efforts in education. The share of state budget allocated to education rose from 13.16 percent in 1990 to 15.37 percent in 1993. In addition, educational reforms initiated in 1987 are still being pursued with the necessary modifications. To attain universal education, it is important to note that Cape Verde had to resort to various methods of intensive utilisation of classrooms and teachers. Through the construction of classrooms and reduction of the number of pupils per teacher, this problem has been partially solved. Thus, the three shifts method of classes has practically disappeared from the school system, a situation which enhances qualitative education.

The Third National Development Plan (1992-1995) specifies the new orientations for the reorganisation of education toward greater democratisation of the system, expanded to other types of education such as higher education, for example. It also provides for more careful articulation between types and levels of education. As a follow-up and part of the extension of the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien and The World Summit for Children, a national round-table held in 1991 laid the foundation of this new system and prepared the basic approaches.

The new system is made up of three elements: pre-school education, school education (basic, secondary, middle and higher) and extra-mural schools.

Free compulsory basic education should inculcate in the individual, knowledge, habits, attitudes and values that would help him solve major problems of subsistence and his affirmation as a citizen who is part of society. Basic education will henceforth be organised in three phases of two years each and constitutes a unique and independent cycle.

At the operational level, reformed basic education has been tested in 18 classes in the islands of Santiago and Sao Vincente, which are models of the rural, urban and semi-urban milieu.

Compulsory education of six years duration would be generalised in all parts of the country as of 1995. Diverse projects such as the renovation and extension of the educational system (PRESE) financed by tile African Development Fund and the FENU project since 1993, have contributed to the gradual materialisation of the reform

Secondary education is destined to prepare the individual for active life while enhancing further studies. It is made up of two common programmes of two year, after which it is sub-divided into two other programmes, general and technical each lasting four years. The middle school undertakes professional training lasting three to four years.

New curricula have been designed for the new secondary school which aim at promotion of attitudes Which enhance the fight against desertification, protection and defence of the environment, family planning, manpower training, teachers, curricula development specialists. Education planners and administrators should receive due attention. At the level of infrastuctures, the plan is to build and equip seven general secondary schools, a technical school and the expansion of the existing school at Mindelo.

Higher education which was to take off in 1992 was designed to provide scientific, technical, social and cultural training which inculcates skills in the operators in Such areas as designing, management and research. With the creation of the Commission for the Installation of Higher Education (CIES), the plans for the implementation of this level of education have been established. Based on a strategy of articulation between research institutions and the labour market, the goal of higher education is to entrench itself in the areas in which the country has a certain tradition. Thus, specialisations such as marketing and management were established in 1991 while engineering is in the pipeline.

Post-university teacher education, in collaboration with Cape Verdian professors and researchers who have acquired reputation abroad as well as scientific and technical cooperation with major foreign universities and other institutions of higher learning, will guarantee the human and technical resources necessary for the development of this cycle of education.

Extra-Mural education embraces Iiteracy, post-literacy and professional training. The envisaged objective is the elimination of illiteracy. Literacy activities involves several partners, enterprises, services, projects which collaborate with the general directorate of extra-mural education. A bilingual (Creaole-Portuguese literacy programme is already in progress in three phases: Creaole (three months), oral Portuguese (2 months), written Portuguese (three months). Post-literacy focuses on family-type micro-projects which ensure reinforcement of acquired knowledge and socio-professional follow-up. The entire effort on literacy will lead to progressive reduction of the illiterate population which will be approximately 12.5 percent by the year 2000.

In spite of the economic constraints, Cape Verde has a very clear idea of the strategic role of education. It is 'a fundamental factor in the economic development of the country and an essential element for the mastery of the tools of democratic values'. In light of this fact, constant efforts have been made for promotion of education. Since elementary education has already been generalised, the major preoccupation concerns improving the quality of teaming. Measures have been taken to ensure improved teacher training and increase their number. The school curricula have been revised at all levels so as to adapt them to the realities of the country. This is taking place within the framework of a general reform of the educational system which, overall, aims at: consolidation of achievements, expansion of literacy with a view to the eradication of illiteracy soon and the Setting Up of a complete system *of* education and training capable *of* responding to the manpower needs of the country. The prospects of basic education for all seems to be in the offing he Cape Verde.

Case Study 8: Egypt

Situated on the two banks *of* the Nile with Sudan to the South, Israel in the East, and Libya to the West, the Arab Republic of Egypt covers 997,738 square kilometres. It has outlets on the Mediterranean and Red seas measuring 2,440 square kilometres. With population growth estimated at 2.5 percent per year in 1990-1993, Egypt had a population of 56 million in 1993 of which 41.8 percent were less than 15 years of age, thereby ranking second among countries with the largest populations in Africa, after Nigeria.

Developments in the country after its independence (28 February 1952) were marked by some dominant events especially the proclamation of the republic on 18 June 1953, the assumption of power by Nasser in 1954, the nationalisation of the Suez canal company in 1956 and the war with Israel over the Palestinian question.

Economic life is concentrated in the Nile valley. Agriculture and fisheries account for 21 percent of Gross National Product (GNP), industry 25 percent and the services sector 54 percent. In spite of its dynamism, economic growth alone does not guarantee self-sufficiency and Egypt remains a low per capital income country of 640 dollars in 1992.

With regards to social indicators, one can note the following: life expectancy at birth, 60 years; infant mortality rate, 47 for every 1000 in 1995; number of children per woman, 3.7 in 1995. These relatively stable situation is partly due the development of education.

Characteristics of the Educational System

Pre-school education enrols 7 percent of children of between 4 and 5 years. The private sector alone accounts for 87 percent of the total number. Egypt plans to reorganise this cycle of education for improved social justice by installing curricula more adapted to the role of preparing good grounds for primary education.

Compulsory education of 8 years is made up of 5 years of primary school and three years of secondary education. Universal elementary education is a practical reality in Egypt. However, disparities exist among the regions and between urban and rural areas. Thus, 5 out of 26 administrative regions have attained universal education while 14 have achieved 91 percent. But the region of Sinai is at the level of 80.5 percent compared to 72.5 percent at Sohag in Upper Egypt. This gap is partially as a result of the lack of educational services particularly in the hamlets and in areas where access is difficult. It is also due to the socio-economic situation of families and the cost of keeping the child in school.

Secondary education lasts for 6 years divided into two cycles of three years each. The rate of enrolment at this level of education was 81 percent in 1990. Higher education was able to absorb 18.4 percent of people within the age group concerned.

Egypt also faces serious problems of illiteracy (51.7 percent) in 1986, made up of 68.6 percent women compared to 36.4 percent men. However, it was among the countries which tried to tackle this problem very early in its history. The 1923 constitution followed by laws enacted in 1946,1970,1981 and more recently in 1991, all aimed at a more vigorous effort for the eradication of illiteracy bear testimony to this.

The government recognised that the educational system is in crisis. This phenomenon is no doubt global. Among the causes of the crisis in education are economic crisis and war efforts which sacrifice certain sectors. The effects of the crisis are felt particularly at three levels: school infrastructure, the condition of teachers and school curricula

More than half of its 25,000 schools do not have the minimum standard for equipment and tadiness. Inappropriate surroundings do not encourage quality education. This is further compounded by lack of motivation for teachers. In fact, the general living conditions has been affected by very low salaries.

The curricula which are based on memorisation and repetition, are outdated and out of tune with ongoing modernisation and development of the society.

Recent Reforms

In tackling the crisis in the education system, the government considers education as a matter of national security at the same rank as political, economic and military issues. The general framework of action will consist in interventions on three fronts: construction, maintenance and renovation of school buildings, improvement of the conditions of teachers, overhauling of curricula and special attention to supervision.

The government has set up a *General Agency for School Constructions* for the construction of school buildings and infrastructure, with branches in the various administrative regions. In fact, an assessment of the demand for school buildings has been made for the 1991-1995 plan. In addition to the existing 25,000 schools, it will be necessary to build:

- 5,911 more schools to provide a place for each child in basic education;
- 5,172 additional schools to solve problems associated with multiple shift classes; and
- 830 addition schools to achieve a pupil/class ratio of 35.

These estimates have had to be raised following the earthquake which occurred in parts of the country in 1992.

Efforts to improve the economic and social status of basic school teachers have been initiated. These involve improving their academic and professional standards in liaison with the university (1992-93 1996-97 five-year plan). Improvement of the method of recruitment and training have become a reality. In any case? salaries had been raised since 1991.

With regards to curricula, the Conference on the Development of Elementary Curricula (1993) provides for an overhaul of the curricula in areas such as the content of textbooks, modification of school timetable and the duration of the school year. The standard of examinations and more generally, the system of evaluation will be improved to make them a positive meals of raising the overall standard of the school system. Egypt has already initiated work on an effective system of evaluation which includes training of teachers and establishment of a research scheme on various aspects of assessing curricula, knowledge and the institution, etc.

A National Plan of Action has been prepared for the 1990-1999 decade aimed at integrating education of adults in the national general economic and social development plan. This pilot plan, run by the Ministry of National Education places particular emphasis on women and the development of democracy. It aims at facilitating access to education for all adults, eradicate illiteracy among men and women of 25 to 30 years of age and reduce its level among people above 35 years of age.

The need to initiate a strategy for the mobilisation of resources which are economically viable and politically feasible is one of the major challenges for sustained national development and reform. At the national level, three important questions come into consideration: political commitment, sharing of responsibilities, and the diversification of resources. These three aspects constitute the frame of the Egyptian strategy for the mobilisation of resources for the implementation of the ten-year plan.

Political commitment implies increase in budget allocations. The budget which had been he constant decline since the 1960s (22 percent in the 1960s, 15 percent in the 1970s and 6 percent in 1990-91) was raised by 123 percent in 1991-1992 (with 1990-91 as base year) and by 398 percent in 1992-1993. Political commitment is also reflected in the Presidential Declaration making the 1990s the decade for the eradication of illiteracy and the decade of the Egyptian child.

With regards to sharing responsibilities, education is now conceived as a common responsibility of parents, communities, business sectors and government. The coordination of contributions from various sectors for education has become a priority. Sharing of responsibilities enhances diversification of resources.

Egypt has taken the first step toward education for all by ensuring quasi-total universal primary education, but this achievement must be completed, safeguarded and consolidated. Disparities still exist in the provision of education. A part of tile population notably! those in need of special education wait to be served, just like the large number of illiterate men and especially women.

All systems of education in the world, no matter the level, are constantly put to the test if they avoid full scale crisis. Egypt is no stranger to this type of problems and is not spared by the trend in decline and falling standards of education. However, the evolution of educational policies in the 1990s indicates the orientations and commitment that measure up to the challenges of education for all.

The education sector has been elevated to the rank of national security priority. The 1990s have been declared decade for the eradication of illiteracy and decade of the Egyptian child. These options are translated into reality through appropriate budget allocations to education and through mobilisation of national solidarity for supplementary resources in a spirit of new and active partnership Faithful to the dynamics of Jomtien, no doubt

Egypt is also involved in the initiative of the nine most populated countries of the world in favour of education for all.

Case Study 9: Mauritius

Mauritius is an island situated at 1.865 km East of Madagascar in the Indian Ocean. This country has been undergoing rapid changes in an environment of increasing prosperity.

The demographic structure has become more similar to those, of the developed countries. Its population which is 1.1 million inhabitants has been experiencing decreasing growth, estimated at 1 percent between 1980 and 1988 and 0.8 percent for the 1988-2000 period. Infant mortality rate was 18 for 1,000, life expectancy at birth 70 years in 1992, the number of children per woman 1.9.

From monocrop, the country has developed a diversified economy with growing manufacturing and service industries. Agriculture, cattle and fishing present considerable export possibilities (sugar, teas fish, etc.). This sector contributes about 13 percent to the GDP. The clothing dominated industrial sector accounts for 33 percent. In the tertiary sector which represents 54 percent of the GDP tourism plays an important role. In fact, GNP per capita which is estimated at USE 2,700 placed Mauritius among the intermediate level income countries.

Mauritius society has undergone rapid changes under the effect of various factors: economic growth, increased availability of consumer goods, full employment and competition tends to replace solidarity values. Women's position has been changing within the family and in relation with children's education.

Given this global context, education has become a major challenge in the economic development and social transition process.

Characteristics of the Educational Sector

Mauritius has achieved universal primary education. In addition, the literacy rate for the 15 year-olds and above is estimated at 83 percent in l995. Pre-school education reaches 80 to 90 percent of the 3 to 5 year-olds children. It is mainly given in private institutions which are nonetheless state subsidised.

Primary education is given in six years with automatic promotion. Yet repetition is authorised in the sixth year. Obtention of the certificate of primary education entitles the children to secondary education. The latter is on five year basis and two year higher secondary education.

There are three local institutions for higher education: the University Of Mauritius, Mauritius Institute of Education and the Mahatma Gandhi Institute for Asian Studies. The majority of Mauritian students attend universities abroad.

Achievements by the educational systems are summarised here below:

> There is universal provision of primary education; 98 percent of children between the age of six and twelve are enrolled in schools. Every Village Council Area has at East one primary school There is no discrimination against any child on grounds of sex, religion or ethnic group. Schools at all levels, as well as tertiary education, are free.
>
> The primary curriculum has been totally revised over the past decade to take account of changing needs and current pedagogical practice. Textbooks are freely provided for ail primary school children, and to children from poor families in secondary schools. There has been a substantial improvement in outputs from both primary and secondary schools. Primary school passes have risen from about 40 percent to about 60 percent over the past decade. The proportion of passes at secondary school rose from 42.8 percent in 1980 to 62.7 percent in I990; at high education over the same period, the percentage increased from 37.4 percent to 56.2 percent. Over this period the number of high education passes increased by I s3 percent - an average annual rate of increase of 9 7 percent.
>
> The range of studies has been broadened at all levels. The multi-lingual character of Mauritian society has been recognised through the emphasis being given to ancestral languages. At secondary level, a wide range of technical and other subjects has been made available. The university has recently increased its range of degree courses A major achievement of the system has been that it has provided the greater part of the manpower required for the first stage of Mauritian industrialisation.

Discrepancies can be observed at various levels. In pre-primary education the majority of the 20 percent of the children who have no access to schools are those of the rural areas. In primary education deficiencies in school facilities: health services, transportation, etc. are the reasons behind the absenteeism of students as well as tea-

chers and play a negative role on the quality of the number of schools.

There are many disparities in secondary education. The most acute ones are those between private and state secondary schools. In Mauritius, 80 percent of secondary school pupils attend private schools. And yet less than 20 percent of the pupils in these schools are in institutions of the level of quality to that of state institutions. Comparable professional schools are less crowded and their teachers are letter qualified, they are fully equipped and more performing, they therefore attract pupils from privileged families and obtain better results.

Inequalities concerning the regions in the field of secondary education are real. The best schools are located in Port Louis and Plaines WiIhems whereas the northern area is poorly provided with secondary schools. Training given in private and state technical schools leads to other inequalities he this country: training and enmployment.

About 25 percent of candidates in Mauritius fail the primary school examination after two attempts and drop out of the system at the age of 12 or 13. These candidates are left out since they are not authorised to take up employment or apprenticeship until the legal age of I 5. Automatic promotion coupled with lack of pedagogical support to less gifted children is a handicap for them. At the secondary level, 24 percent of students drop out after form IV while two-thirds drop out after form V. There are also high repetition rates: 48 at standard VI, 22 percent at Form IV, 30 percent at Form V and 31 percent at Upper VI.

Consolidation and Reforms

In August 1991, Mauritius published the Educational Plan for the Year 2000. This event, which fell within the framework of the commitments contained in the World Declaration on Education for Al l, was the result of a long process. As soon as 1984, the government had published a white paper on Education. Its implementation led to substantial progress at all levels of the educational system. Yet the latter needed a reform and a long term strategy. Broad consultations with all educational partners led to the preparation of the Education Plan for the Year 2000.

The global objective of the new educational system plan is to provide the knowledge, skills and awareness of the environment required to enable future citizens to operate effectively he society; to make possible a degree of social mobility; to develop the skills and abilities - both mental and physical - of the individual child; to encourage an awareness of the child's cultural roots and an appreciation of those of other communities, and thus to help in nation-building; and from the point of view of the economy as a whole, to help to provide the manpower needed for future development.

Every child should attend a pre-primary school in order to elimitate alI inequalities. Government' s policy will consist in setting up new and strengthrning existing state and private structures. By the year 2000, all schools will be registered with the Ministry of Education, such registration being dependent on the observation of a certain number of standards which ensure efficient supervision for better quality of services. The pre-primary education fund will contribute to providing adequate facilities, qualified teachers, appropriate educational materials.

At the level of primary education, the objective is that every child should reach an agreed standard of basic education. This should include the acquisition of the skills of literacy and numeracy, and the development of values and attitudes conducive to the healthy growth of Mauritian culture and society. The principal means of meeting this objective will be the introduction of a minimum of nine years of basic education for all children.

In this prospect curricula will be revised to be adapted to the specific needs of different children. Particular attention will be given to schools with low results at the Certificate of Primary Education (CPE). A set of short and medium term practical measures are foreseen:

- Teachers: recruitment and in-service training improvement of their working conditions and statutes;
- Facilities and equipment will be improved, thus each school should in minimum and in addition to classrooms, include a reading room. staff room, television/video rooms, water reservoir, telephone and a reproduction machine;

- Inspection system should be reviewed in order to strengthen inspectors' skills for an effective input in the schools;
- School health services to be provided through the setting up of a health education programme for parents and children;
- Decentralisation by establishing regional educational centres as primary responsibility for the training personnel;
- Introduction of school councils to ensure the involvement of parents and the community in the education of the children.

Concerning secondary education, the long term aim is that all children should attend high quality secondary schools, easily accessible to all students and providing courses suiting their aptitudes. Indeed secondary education should complete basic education in the prospect of the 9 year schooling. It should provide knowledge foundations for specialised training and prepare future students for higher education.

In the short and medium term government policies will aim at reducing discrepancies and raising standards for to all schools. To this end, various measures will be taken to:

- Revise curricula by promoting the teaching of science and technology;
- Train the necessary teachers and provide them with improved statutes and appropriate supervision.

Higher education which should be the mainspring of future economic, cultural and social changes will be developed and diversified. It is desirable that by the year 2000, provision be made for at least a third of students the Higher School Certificate (HSC) to enrol in degree courses, enrolment will thus rise to around 5,000 students including postgraduate enrolment of around 400. Available degree courses will be diversified and contents strengthened in order to meet needs in top managerial staff and researchers, thus reducing dependency on foreign countries in this field.

Adult education is programmed in the line of continuing education. No doubt, there are still illiterates in Mauritius: elderly people who have not had the opportunity to go to school, some 6 percent of the children who have not succeeded in primary education and may relapse into illiteracy. The exact number of people concerned will be assessed and adequate programmes will be implemented. Literacy may be defined as an ability to read and write which is insufficient for the needs of Mauritian society in the 1990s. Mauritius therefore intends, by the year 2000, to reorganise the continuing education system for adults above 16 years who are no longer at school or are part-time students. The proposed system will include three components: Human resource development (vocational technical training), Personal development (leisure and recreation), Community development (citizenship education, social and cultural education and health and environmental education).

Special education was, at the beginning, provided by seven institutions managed by non-governmental organisations. They are facing several limitations. They are concentrated in one region and urban areas and lack trained and motivated staff as well as appropriate facilities and equipment and curricula, etc. Given this situation, government policies are directed awards:

- Early detection of handicaps;
- Integration of handicapped children into the normal school channel;
- Teacher training;
- Counselling and guidance of handicapped children as regards employment.

The Mauritian case shows the various and reciprocal asks which exist between education, economic development and social changes. Economic policies directed towards full employment and integrating a highly competitive world market had required, among others, very skilled human resources. The educational sector was made to contribute by providing the necessary skills. It should continue in the same track in order for tile country to keep its rhythm of growth and take up the various related challenges.

And yet, education has not economic growth as only goal. It is first a right of the individual for self-development, but it is also a mean through which the present society prepares for the future. In Mauritius education faces these various challenges by consolidating its development in a continuous reform process.

General Conclusion

Based on the example of four countries: Cameroon, Cape Verde, Egypt and Mauritius, various situations were reviewed. These are situations in which one finds countries with remarkable level in education development at the beginning of the decade. It was expected that these countries strengthen their development in basic education within the framework of global educational policies and thus meet individual rights to education and needs of the community for its economic development, cultural promotion and the success of social changes.

Case studies were not conducted for extrapolation purposes, it would be unjustified, but rather for questioning. In Cameroon, the economic crisis persists and even worsened. Its consequences can be seen in the educational sector and in particular in tile area of basic education which has been declining. Yet the recent organisation of the National Forum on Education witnesses the authorities commitments and the mobilisation of the various educational partners to change the course of things.

In Cape Verde, without great economic potential, development in basic education was maintained and strengthened within the prospect of reform of the entire education system.

In Egypt, a crisis situation affects the educational sector both quantitatively and qualitatively. But considerable efforts were made to overcome the situation, on the basis of unequivocal political commitment so as to make education a priority of national security.

In Mauritius, 'Island of Prosperity', education plays its role by contributing to global development as welI as the development of individuals and the society.

In summary, the educational cause is never definitely won, it is a continuous struggle, but on the other haled, in any context, it is possible and imperative to defend and promote the educational cause.

Notes

1. This term was used for the first time by UNDP in 1990. In addition to economic indicators, social and nutritional indices such as consumption of potable water, television antennae.

2. Even if one should not lose sight of other constraints, the average does not take into account the gap between the two extremes.

5 - The Progress of Literacy

In Africa, illiteracy continues to be a serious problem. In sub-Saharan Africa, the literacy rate for the fifteen year and above age group is estimated for 1995 at 66 percent males and 46 percent females. A similar sex difference as regards the rates exists in the Northern African countries. For example, in Libya, 88 percent males are literate as against 63 percent females, and in Morocco, 57 percent males as against 31 percent females. On the whole, however the present African situation is an improvement as a result of efforts at literacy since 1990, when the literacy rates for sub-Saharan Africa were 59 percent for men and 37 percent for women.

Some progress has thus been made towards the achievement of literacy in accordance with the recommendations on Education for All and of MINEDAF Vl, by prolonging the action of the Regional Programme for the Elimination of Illiteracy, established by UNESCO in 1984.

A workshop was organised by BREDA from 17 to 28 October 1994 to take stock of the situation. This workshop brought together the high ranking national authorities in Literacy and Adult Education of 26 countries of the region (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe) and the theme of the discussions was 'Combating Illiteracy in Africa: The Progress so Far'. The present chapter gives the principal conclusions of this workshop and indicates the different strategies for expansion, generalisation and consolidation that have been adopted for the promotion of literacy and post-literacy in the context of basic education for all.

Objectives and Strategies of Literacy Programmes

The objectives are the same for the totality of countries of the sub-region and they are developmental oriented meaning that they are economic, cultural and political objectives. The cultural role of literacy in thisconnection is that of reducing the inadequacies in the subsystem of formal education, the rote in other words of bringing into the fold those who the school has not been able to receive as well as those who have abandoned school too early to become literate. More generally, literacy must make provision for the rewriting of history so as to ensure the re-establishment of the African cultural heritage, for the benefit not only of the Africans themselves but indeed for the entire world civilisation.

As regards the economic objectives, professional skills will be improved by functional literacy activities as has been the case in Cameroon, and as in Sierra Leone, the rural exodus will slow down because literacy would have contributed to the establishment of integrated activities for the rural populations in their own houselands.

Literacy is also considered a strong factor in the promotion and consolidation of democracy. It is a leaven which transforms the perception of the peoples and their work, which enables the people to see themselves as the agents as well as the targets, and with a right to freedom of speech and expression. The acquisition of reading and writing is vital for the clarification of rights and duties. This promotion and consolidation of democracy is the priority objective that is assigned to literacy in such countries as Cameroon, The Gambia, Mali and Tanzania.

Literacy can also be a tool for national integration. For example Burundi, which seeks to build a national harmony with itself, considers literacy as the humus which will germinate 'tolerance, peace and democracy'. For the attainment of objectives such as these, the countries have devised and are implementing strategies which are based on a combination of several factors, both human and geographical as well as those relating to language status and the needs of specific target groups. Thus in Malawi literacy is targeted essentially at the rural populations; in The Gambia the priority targets are women, workers and children out of school or with inadequate schooling; and in Ghana,both the women and the rural populations

are the priorities.

In Cameroon, Uganda, Sierra Leone and the Congo the adopted approach to literacy is functional—'closely associated with professional training and refresher courses', in business concerns as well as during working hours. Togo also has adopted such an approach to meet the needs in rural zones, but this country continues also to rely on the more traditional approach to literacy to meet the needs in urban areas. In Benin, Mali and Tanzania both the functional and the traditional approaches are used, according to the nature of the target populations and their needs. In the Congo, literacy programmes are delivered in the evenings in the neighbourhoods and are directed towards women in particular.

In Burkina Faso and Tanzania, literacy programmes are geared towards training in specific skills for socio-professional groups and for women. In Mali the literacy action is made more effective because of a flexibility in the training and in its conception, the content and organisation of the programmes in accordance with needs and with the ecological and social environment, and with cultural and economic specificities. In Cameroon, the large numbers and diverse literacy agents, and the effectiveness of the training that they offer are major factors in the success of literacy programmes.

The choice of status accorded to languages are essential features in literacy strategy. Togo has adopted languages for literacy according to their geographical distribution and in this respect is implementing policy worthy of remark, that which requires that pupils be taught two national languages, even if only as subjects of instruction and of examination. Nigeria also follows a similar policy and other countries such as Sierra Leone and The Gambia are moving towards its adoption. Cameroon, on the other hand, has adopted a policy of bilangualism in its official languages, Guinea, perhaps traumatised by an inconclusive experience in the use of its national languages, has reverted to the use of French as its official language as opposed to such countries as Tanzania and Kenya where a national language, Kiswahili, is the official language, though Kiswahili is at pair with the English language in Kenya.

Table 18: Literacy Rate for Persons Aged 15 and Above

Country	1990			1995		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Angola	42	56	29	43	56	29
Benin	23	32	16	38	49	26
Botswana	74	84	65	71	81	60
Burkina Faso	18	28	9	19	29	9
Burundi	50	61	40	36	49	22
Cameroon	54	66	43	64	75	52
Cape Verde	67	-	-	73	61	64
Central Africa Rep.	38	52	25	60	68	52
Chad	30	42	18	49	62	35
Comoros	-	-	-	57	64	50
Congo	57	70	44	75	83	67
Côte d'Ivoire	54	67	40	40	50	30
Djibouti	-	-	-	47	60	33
Egypt	48	63	34	52	64	39
Ethiopia	-	-	-	36	46	25
Gabon	61	84	49	64	74	53
Gambia	27	39	16	39	53	25
Ghana	60	70	51	65	76	54
Guinea	24	35	13	36	50	22
Guinea Bissau	37	50	24	55	68	42
Equatorial Guinea	50	64	37	79	90	68
Kenya	69	80	59	78	86	70
Lesotho	-	-	-	72	81	62
Liberia	40	50	29	38	54	22
Libya	64	75	50	76	88	63
Madagascar	80	88	83	81	88	73
Malawi				57	72	42
Mali	32	31	25	31	39	23
Mauritius	80	85	75	83	87	79
Morocco	50	61	38	44	57	31
Mozambique	33	45	21	41	58	23
Niger	28	40	17	14	21	7
Nigeria	51	62	40	57	67	47
Rwanda	50	64	37	61	70	52
Senegal	38	52	25	33	43	23
Sierra Leone	21	31	11	31	43	18
Somalia	24	36	24	25	36	14
South Africa	-	-	-	82	82	82
Sudan	27	43	12	47	58	35
Swaziland	-	-	-	77	78	76
Tanzania	-	-	-	68	79	57
Togo	43	56	31	52	67	37
Tunisia	65	74	56	67	79	55
Uganda	48	62	35	62	74	50
Zaire	72	84	61	78	87	68
Zambia	73	81	65	79	86	7
Zimbabwe	67	74	60	85	90	80
sub-Saharan Africa	48	59	37	56	66	46

Source: UNESCO

Quantitative Aspects

The availability of statistics and their collection, treatment, exploitation, transmission and diffusion are hampered particularly by the following constraints:

• The absence, inadequacy or the poor quality of infrastructures in terms of road networks, logistics, and material resources;
• The inadequacy of technical skills; The inadequacy of follow-up;
• Inadequacy of motivation and the reluctance of certain partners to undertake evaluation, proper stocktaking and accounting, and the communication of their data. As regards accounting, stocktaking and the keeping of records, their is yet a great deal to be achieved.

However, Table 18 gives an indication of the rates of literacy achievements in Africa.

The statistics and estimations for literacy for 1990 and 1995, as shown in Table 18, are extracted from UNESCO documents, and in spite of their general nature they give some idea of the growth of the literacy effort in sub-Saharan Africa. Out of the 33 countries for which comparisons can be made for 1990 and 1995, there was a regression in Iiteracy rates of the population aged 15 years and above in only seven countries, namely Botswana, Burundi, Cote d'lvoire, Liberia, Mali, Niger and Senegal . In al I the other countries there was progress of From one percentage point in Angola, Burkina Faso and Madagascar to 15 percentage points in Benin, the Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Equatorial Guinea and Guinea Bissau. In 1995, 28 out of 48 countries on the continent had a literacy rate of 50 percent and above.

Based on the above statistics, one can group the African countries into four categories as regards literacy, as follows:

Group 1: Countries with literacy rates of 60 percent and above: Botswana Cameroon, Cape Verde, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Rwanda, Swaziland, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Group 2: Countries with literacy rates of 50-60 percent: Comoros, Egypt, Guinea Bissau, Malawi, Nigeria and Togo.

Group 3: Countries with literacy rates between 30 and 50 percent: Angola, Benin, Burundi, Chad, Djibouti, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Mozambique, Sierra Leone and Sudan.

Group 4: Countries with literacy rates less than 30 percent: Burkina Faso, Niger and Somalia.

The scenario enables one to appreciate the extent of the efforts required for halving the rates of illiteracy as demanded by the 1990 World Conference on Education for All.

The Impact of Literacy Programmes

The goal of literacy is to give an impetus for the achievement of changed attitudes and behaviours on the part of neo-literates. The impact of the teaching is always difficult to assess because it cannot always be immediately observed, but still it can be affinned, judging from available reports of the various countries, that generally speaking, on the economic and political plans, literacy has greatly facilitated the more capable and effective handling by communities of their responsibilities, giving them a confirmed self-assurance and a much greater confidence for the exploitation of the possibilities open to them as are required for the purpose. The impact of Iiteracy can be seen he more positive attitudes towards innovations, greater receptivity, a boldness in thought and action, and more rational (less superstitious and more critical) attitudes and practices towards the environment and towards health matters such as vaccination and breast feeding. In all the countries, even if in varying degrees, literacy has effectively motivated integrated and grassroots development. Besides, as in Guinea, the growing interest in literacy has led to regular visits to literacy centres by leaders of public opinion.

According to studies and authoritative reports from many of the countries, literacy is used by its target populations for purposes such as the following:

- The drafting and preparation of private or official correspondence;
- The collection of elements relating to pharmacopoeia,
- Active participation in self-managed markets for training in team control and the purchase of agricultural products;
- The management of economic units, village enterprises and the private businesses of villagers themselves;
- Calculating the variations in level for the constructions of embankments and anti-erosion sites, as in Burkina Faso;
- Recording the amounts deposited in peoples banks;
- Continuous self-education for the acquisition of new knowledges in domains such as those of health, agriculture and crop production.

Curriculum, Training and Research

The term curriculum is used here in its widest sense and includes content, methods, target groups and the whole arsenal of aids used by teachers to achieve the objectives of learning in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. In this respect, the problem of pedagogy which is everywhere reported as that of the poor quality and the inadequacy of educational materials. As regards quality, the materials are ill-conceived, their contents often infantile, and the teaching methods they use unsuitable. Also the poor presentation of certain books and their doubtful quality and lack of attractiveness only serve to support or strengthen the conviction of both instructor and learner that literacy is merely a matter of the teaching of the poor.

The teaching methodology also deserves particular attention. For example, Lesotho uses the mutual and personalised teaching method (Laubach's 'Each-one-teach-one') for adults who for cultural reasons do not wish to learn side by side with the very young; but also in certain circumstances this country adopts the 'group approach' whereby a group is taught at the same time by one person.

The training of trainers also poses problems in some countries. For example in Mauritania, despite the involvement of higher education in the training, there is still the problem of insufficient candidates to be trained as well as the poor quality of the training itself.

Linguistic and pedagogical research is not accorded any particular attention, and it is perhaps this that explains the poverty both quantitatively and qualitatively of the outputs, as in Sierra Leone. Idle potentialities of literacy are everywhere unexploited, and language education research as well as basic descriptive linguistic research for the production of grammars and other such works are not al the same level of advancement from one country to an other, or even from one language to the other within the same country.

From all the reports available, the involvement of higher education and more specifically of universities in the promotion of literacy still leaves much to be desired. The absence of valid methods and strategies of evaluation and also of reliable statistics are some of the important weaknesses of the literacy policies.

Creating an Environment for Literacy

By means of audio-visual productions in the media, the organisation of literacy days or literacy weeks, as well as through newspapers, films and the operation of village libraries, a contribution has been made towards the creation of a literate environment in such countries as Burkina Faso and Tanzania. Newspaper material for new literates and for an introduction to reading and writing in national languages, as well as that of the insertion of two page supplement once a week, with articles in three of the national languages, in the three principal newspapers of the nation is being developed.

Publishing is sometimes more 'functional' as in Tanzania, where a multidisciplinary publication has been developed with varied topics of interest but which topics are geared essentially towards professional objectives. This publication however faces economic difficulties principally because structural adjustment policies have forced African nations to adopt severe budget cuts as a principle and the literacy sector. like all other sectors whose benefits however great are not immediately apparent. is among the first always to be affected by budget restrictions. However, there are other more inherent difficulties related to the inadequacy of infrastructures such as in Ethiopia and Sierra Leon, where the difficulties of communication

and distribution of newspapers and journals or of articles often results in information being out-of-date by the time it reaches its expected receivers.

Management of Literacy Programmes

Literacy activities in a number of the countries are managed by means of a centralised organisation at the government level, sometimes a special ministry but more often a national directorate for literacy. This excessive centralisation gives rise to problems, as in Sierra Leone for example, where the concentration as regards decision-making paralyses the action and dampens the enthusiasm of literacy agents, not to mention its negative effect on literacy organisations, on the trainers, as well as on the learners who thus become only the objects and consumers of literacy rather than the determiners of their own future.

The multiplicity of literacy institutions also creates difficulties as regards the management and coordination of literacy programmes, as in Burkina Faso and Tile Gambia. The dispersion of energies which this gives rise to, especially when each institution is jealous of its liberty and its methods of work, is prejudicial to the attainment of the literacy objectives, and far from creating a healthy emulation, it is often the source of rivalries. In certain cases, free meals are offered so as to ensure the maximum possible participation in literacy classes. Such a strategy may be educationally sound as a means of motivating learners and of increasing their assiduity in learning, by reducing their inconveniences and distractions to the minimum; however its indiscriminate use can result in learners becoming passive and inattentive. Such a 'populist' approach is prevalent at least in The Gambia, where certain projects use it to attract the maximum number of literacy learners and to give themselves a certain appearance of credibility, more so perhaps with an eye to attracting or soliciting more funding for their work.

Thus the reports indicate that energies are dispersed and that the absence of a single recognised and accepted authority does not facilitate the harmonious integretion of all forces towards the common objective. It is important also to note that because of this weak and ineffectual control, literacy organisations are often helpless in dealing with the powerful funding agencies, institutions and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). The method chosen by Swaziland to solve the problem is that of entrusting the management of literacy to a single organism outside government. This method has some advantages, but is also runs the risk of a monopolisation of tile literacy effort.

Communication is also a problem since coordination, follow-up and control are difficult in some countries as well as the operation of logistical arrangements, as in the Congo. Also, in mountainous countries such as Sierra Leone, Zambia and Zimbabwe, difficulties of access constitute a major obstacle to any efficient management of literacy projects.

White certain countries deplore the excessively large centralisation and the weight of bureaucracy, others such as Cameroon equally deplore the dispersal of essential roles and functions among independent agents, which are even ignorant of the importance of those roles; such a situation gives rise to difficulties in coordination. The decentralisation and separation of responsibilities adopted by both Burkina Faso and Senegal could be positive factors in stimulating creativity and facilitating decision making, provided that they do not lead to an isolationism that serves as an obstacle to any mutual enrichment. To avoid such an obstacle, organs for concerted action sometimes involving the civil populations, have been set up in several countries, namely the National Committees of the Regional Programme for the Elimination of Illiteracy.

In addition to the lack of effective coordination, the management of literacy programmes in several countries suffers from an absence of motivation on the part of both learners and teachers. Several factors are responsible for this lack of motivation some important ones being the absence of competent teaching personnel as in Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe and, as in Zimbabwe, the absence of motivation on the part of learners because of inadequate remuneration in comparison with their salaried compatriots in health and with agents of community development. The voluntary literacy workers in Zimbabwe find themselves disadvantaged and their frustration is quite evident he the nature of their output. To the register of causes of tile lack of motivation must be added the absence of suitable or numerically adequate infrastructures as in Mauritania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Also the

poor geographical distribution of the NGOs, the charitable organisations and other such bodies involved create problems of management, problems which have to be solved if a lack of balance is not to be created among regions of a country or, which is even more serious, between ethnic groups within the same country as in Burkina Faso. In Cameroon, the difficulties are in part due to ambiguities in the relationships between formal and non-formal education, while in Ethiopia, for the most part, the difficulties are caused by an alarming rate of absenteeism on the part of the learners.

In resume, the absence of reliable statistics in all cases is a major cause of the lack of effective planning and evaluation. Ail the countries are confronted with difficulties in relation to their geographical and 'geo-linguistic' situation, and in relation also to the policies of centralisation or decentralisation that they have adopted at the managerial level.

Problems Related to the Evaluation of Literacy Programmes

The options adopted by various countries in the matter of functional literacy are an expression of the desire of these countries that literacy should be the cornerstone of their economic and social development. However, there are unsolved problems as regards the creation of evaluation mechanisms for measuring the impact of the literacy programmes.

The role of evaluation is widely accepted but it is very often neglected in literacy programmes. However, at the same time as one sets any objective for literacy, thought needs to be given as to how this objective should be evaluated. It is also clear that the evaluation of attitudes does not follow the same lines as the evaluation of knowledge. Several recommendations have been formulated in connection with evaluation, and in particular the following:

- The training of specialists in evaluation research and methodology;
- The use of evaluation for remedial teaching and management purposes;
- An increase in the frequency and rigour of internal evaluation by means of setting up common units of evaluation for two or three literacy projects;
- The establishment of mechanisms and organs for the collection of data;
- The creation of a chain of evaluation activities, through the vulgarisation of basic evaluation techniques and an initiation to the use of evaluation results;
- The involvement of universities in literacy programmes.

Partnerships for the Promotion of Literacy

Some cooperation in the field of literacy is reported for Swaziland and Zimbabwe but for no other country However, in the countries where languages of wide diffusion are spoken, contacts at the level of basic as welI as applied research can only be beneficial . But the phenomenon that is most prejudicial to a coherent literacy policy is the absence of cooperation within the same country, among the different individual actors or organs involved in the same sector of literacy. file case of organs which are in rivalry has been cited above. The dispersal of resources, their overlap in use, the employment of the double shift school system as in Burkina Faso, all these account for the absence of cooperation among various literacy agents, in spite of the need for joint efforts in the use of manpower and resources for much improved efficiency.

As regards the absence of cooperation within the same country, one also notes that national universities are not always present on the terrain of literacy and that their expertise in basic and applied research is not put at the disposal of the literacy agents whether these are governmental or non-governmental organs. African universities especially in the Francophone countries have kept their operational practices in a closed vase and far away for the milieu. Inhere are only a few exceptions such as in Mauritania, where the university undertakes the training of teachers, or the Congo where the association of linguists has translated the national constitution into the two languages of the country. Also there are departments of adult education in the universities of some of the Anglophone African countries.

The spilt between outside funding and the conditionalities attached to such funding often make it difficult to respect or to put up with these conditionalities, as in the case of Benin.

Post-Literacy Programmes

Although post-literacy has a major role to play in the consolidation of literacy achievements, there is unfortunately a regrettable inadequacy in the provision of post literacy programmes in all the countries. This feature is of such importance that it requires special mention. The fact is not often taken into account that the process of post literacy has its own specific demands. Permanent or continuous training as in Burkina Faso, Uganda and Zambia and distance training as in Tanzania, Lesotho and again Zambia, are examples of strategies that may be adopted for the maximal exploitation of national capacities and the maintenance and reinforcement of the achievements of literacy. Evening classes are another approach that g may be adopted, as for example in Zambia.

Ethiopia has instituted a programme of post-literacy g for mothers. Tanzania has gone further than this, by establishing a post-literacy curriculum in 1976 within the teaching programmes of five people's colleges, which programmes should enable rural people to improve the 'capacities that would enable them to execute their social and economic programmes'. This is an important step towards an approach which goes beyond the elementary level of literacy. All this is related to coping with the problem of the ever present risk of an relapse into illiteracy; but in the majority of the countries however, post-literacy programmes have not yet found clear solutions to this problem.

Suggestions and Recommendations

The suggestions often made for the improvement of literacy programmes and projects can be summarised as follows:

- The organisation of meetings, seminars, workshops and training courses for retraining or for the conception of policies and programmes, for the benefit of personnel of the national literacy organs and their partners, so that they could develop adequate expertise in the aspects of evaluation, follow-up, control and stocktaking in particular is achievable through the organisation of seminars at the international, regional, national, and even more restricted levels.
- The strengthening of personnel and equipment in the services responsible for support and follow-up activities and for evaluation.
- The establishment of documentation centres and data banks.
- The preparation of reliable, manageable and precise tools for the collection of statistics, taking particularly into account divisions by sex, profession and age groups, etc.
- Action as regards motivation, sensitisation, and the training of grassroots partners for the keeping of village records.
- Action and the intensification of effort by BREDA in the provision of technical support to the various countries.
- Increased effort in sensitising those ministerial organs responsible for evaluation as to the importance of keeping 'literacy statistics'.
- The administration during national population censuses of questionnaires for the collection of precise information on literacy and in particular as regards the real rates of illiteracy.

Part II
Education in Africa and the Great Challenges of the Period 1990-1995

6- Democracy, National Consultative Conferences and Education

Over the past four or five years students and teachers have regularly paraded the streets of Africa's capital cities, complaining about salaries and allowances and conditions of service and study. The Iist of countries in which these demonstrations have turned violent is a long one, twenty of them at least (N'da 1993, p.524). In countries as Cameroon, Tunisia and Zaire this violence has resulted in the death of students. What makes these protests so significant however is not their frequency and level of violence, but the nature of the students' and teachers' demands. The traditional complaints about salaries and scholarships as well as lack of materials and poor facilities were translated quickly into a desire for political change: an end to one-party rule, freedom of expression, and an end to corruption. This was made very clear, for instance by a teachers' union in Cote d'lvoire, SYNARES (Eboussi Boulaga 1993, p. 59-68),[2] which stated in August 1991 that: 'the struggle for democratic and union rights stands on an equal footing with tile struggle to satisfy the material and moral demands of our militants'. Students went on strike in favour of multipartyism in Cote d'lvoire and Mali, for the liberation of Political prisoners' in Kenya and Senegal, and for the organisation of a national conference as in Togo and the Central African Republic. Indeed, students and teachers were largely responsible for the change of government and of political system which occurred in Benin, Mali, Niger and tile Central African Republic (MINEDAF VI, 1991a,p. 1).

This chapter focuses on the relationship between education and democratisation in Africa. It first tries to discover why education (the system and the actors) played such a central part in the process of political change. then it rapidly looks at the political changes, without going into a detailed discussion as regards their nature, depth and sustainability. The third part addresses the critical issue of the influence of the democratisation process on education in Africa.

The Role of Education in the Democratisation Process

The 9th of January 1989 can be regarded as marking the beginning of the recent trend towards democratisation on tile African continent. On that day. students in Benin went on strike to protest against the non-payment of their bursaries. They were quickly joined by secondary school teachers, whose salaries had not been paid for months and, by many other union workers. By autumn of that year, Benin was virtually bankrupt. Tile whole nation took to the streets, notwithstanding arrests and repression by tile security forces. The movement denounced the Marxist-Leninist military government of Mathieu Kerekou and by tile end of 1989 only two choices seem left to the government: either continued and increasingly repression, or giving in to the protest movement thle second patio was chosen; and a 'conference nationale des forces vives' (National Conference), meant to represent the whole Benillois society in all its wide variety, was called. Donor agencies approved of Kerekou's move and decided to release sufficient funds to allow payment of three months' salaries for public servants. A preparatory committee of eight members was set up, and it included four university professors who had joined an enlarged government in August 1989. Several factors, not in the least tile excellent preparatory work of this committee explain why the national conference became not just an exercise for 'letting steam off, a moment for the groups in power to gain breath but did indeed change the image of tile nation. It led to the end of the regime of Kerekou, the installation of a transitional government and the organisation of free and fair elections.[2]

Similar national conferences and multiparty elections have since become a feature of political life in many other African countries. Later, we wilI look at these in more detail. In many of tile countries students mid teachers were major actors in the process of change.

Mali and the Central African Republic are two of the more obvious examples. This is why the MINEDAF Vl working document started off with the observation that:

after some 30 years of effort devoted to nation-building and development, the vast majority of African policy-makers are lying hard-pressed by their people to tell them What they propose to do about shaping their future. Education is the overriding *leitmotif* behind many of the searching questions being asked, and the education system is very often a hotbed of opposition and resistance to the establishment and, in some instances. also of violent disturbances as though these were somehow intended to bear out the contention that it is necessary to educate or perish[3].

Why is education such a dominant issue and why teachers and wily do students play such a major role in the process of change? The explanation Iies in a set of inter-related factors.

First, student and teacher organisations show characteristics which few other groups in African countries possess: they are well organised, have clear demands, they are easy to mobilise and their motives are usually regarded as honourable. It is no surprise that student and teacher groups were also very active in the struggle for independence. Second, universities and secondary schools are highly politicised environments. Obviously, students are interested in political and ideological debates, and the charisma of a person, as a president, impresses less than the coherence of an ideology. The battle against one-party rule in Eastern-Europe and in China was followed with great attention by students throughout Africa. Moreover, in countries where freedom of expression is strongly restricted, the university is frequently the only refuge for those who want to voice contrary opinions. Third, education is meant primarily to create a critical attitude and a spirit of autonomy. Fourth, the management of schools and universities in Africa has generally been authoritarian, so that notwithstanding the policy declarations about student involvement, in most institutions decision-making has been the privilege of the authorities and students have seldom, if ever, done more than give advice. \When therefore the higher institutions are in a crisis situation, it is not surprising that the authoritarian style of leadership and the lack of student involvement are decried as reasons for this crisis. Neither is it surprising that, Len the nation is experiencing a similar crisis, the blame is put on these same characteristics, which are found in the one-party state and the reluctance to dialogue.

That brings us to the fifth factor: that of the crisis itself Indeed, the four elements mentioned so far do not explain completely why at the end of the 1980s students and teachers took to the streets. The economic crisis, which made the 1 980s a lost decade for Africa, led to a decline in the pay and conditions of teachers as well as students. Teachers' real salaries decreased steeply and probably more than that of other workers. In many countries, salaries were very irregularly paid or not paid at all. Working conditions for teachers deteriorated severely and teacher status in society compared badly with that often years earlier. Payment of students' scholarships was delayed or even withheld. Teaching facilities including laboratories and libraries were deplorable. And, more important, the future employment of students was in doubt, as graduate unemployment grew and the public service became congested. Structural adjustment programmes did not helped this situation, on the contrary, with its demands for cutting government spending and retrenching public servants, they made the situation and short-term prospects of teachers and students 'worse. To paraphrase Marx, by the beginning of this decade, students and teachers in Africa had noticing to lose but a crisis.

The Democratisation Process

Until a few years back, it was relatively simple to discuss democracies in Africa. Ally four countries were considered as 'democracies' in the Western sense of the word, namely Botswana, the Gambia, Mauritius and, with some hesitation, Senegal. Over the last five years however this situation has changed dramatically. All countries in Africa, with the possible exception of Algeria, Sudan and Libya, have in one way or another taken steps toward installing a more democratic regime, though in many cases more in intention than in actual facts. The tend 'democracy' undoubtedly involve dispute, and the democratisation process in Africa is an intricate process which is far from being finished. However, no one can deny that changes have taken place in this connection.

First, the right to the existence of more than one political party is now recognised in almost all countries. In many cases this has led to the adoption of a new constitution.: Multipartyism was

introduced in Guinea in October 1988, in Zaire in June 1990, in Zimbabwe in January 1991, in Burkina Faso in March 1991, in Djibouti in February 1992, and similarly in may other countries.

Second, elections were held in a good number of countries. Considering that for most countries the election was the first involving more than one party for a long time, the fact that there were irregularities in various places cannot be a surprise. Perhaps more surprising, and indeed an indication of some political maturity, is that in some of the countries the elections have indeed led to a change in government. Zambia, Benin, Cape Verde, South Africa, Namibia, the Central African Republic, Congo, Madagascar, Mali, Niger and Sao Tome and Principe are examples.

The recognition of the right of existence of more than one party, coupled with the organisation of multiparty elections, imply also the recognition of some essential freedoms, in particular the freedom of opinion and freedom of expression. This freedom of opinion and expression is an essential element, as it installs and strengths a democratic tradition in society, a tradition more difficult to reverse than multipartyism and elections. The granting of a little freedom indeed leads to a demand for more. If, at the same time, the independence of the judiciary and respect for the rule of law are not only written in the constitution but also acted upon in everyday life, then some indispensable foundations of a democratic society have been established.

Democracy, in the modern sense, has thus made gains on the African continent. A recent survey has classified countries as free, partly free or not free according to whether they have free and fair elections, the protection of civil liberties, multi-party legislatures, an uncontrolled press, and so on. By the end of 1993, nine African countries were counted as free, 15 as partly free and 29 as not free (*The Economist* 1994). This compares well with 1986, when only 3 were considered free and 7 partly free.

However the democratisation process in Africa is not a one-way process with a clear objective, but, like many roads in Africa it is full of pot-holes, with the occasional policeman, stopping one on the slightest pretext, and probably ending at a roundabout. The first criticism of democratisation in Africa is an obvious one: as regards the meaning of elections and a free press in countries where people do not have enough to eat and cannot send their children to school. This however is a cynical argument because non democracies have not exactly exerted themselves in the struggle against poverty and illiteracy.

But two other criticisms are more relevant as regards the influence of democratisation on education. First, it is said that democratisation has been the result of external pressure and not of internal pressure, and that it was the break-up of the Soviet Union and the defeat of communism in the Cold War that allowed the Western powers, who are or who control the main African donors, to press African governments to change their political ways, since these governments could no longer leave the Western camp and join the communist bloc. Advocates of this theory refer to developments in countries such as Zaire, Gabon or Kenya. In Kenya, President Moi's announcement in early December 1991 that a multi-party system would be installed and free elections duly held came only a few days after a meeting of aid donors, which decided to withhold new aid commitments worth $1 billion pending progress on political and economic reforms. The result of democratisation through external pressure is, it is claimed, the absence of real, deep-going democratisation. There is a conflict:

> between democratic ideals and practice, involving self-determination and independent choice by people and states as representatives of a community, and the extra coercion and undermining of sovereignty involved in external aid donors and creditors imposing political as well as economic conditionalities (Riley 1992. p. 549).

Donors have often been criticised for being concerned mainly with the facade, and the external characteristics of a democracy; and the fact that in Zaire, Gabon or Kenya the government did not change hands, are often said to confirm this pessimistic view of democratisation.

Such pessimism, while warranted in some cases, is on the whole not justified. Internal forces have played a crucial role he bringing about political change. Mention was made of the role played by students and teachers, but it should also be made of the role of market women. workers, journalists and the civil society at large. It is not surprising

that it was only when these groups were joined by external powers, that governments were brought down, as it was precisely those external forces that had kept the governments in power. Moreover, democratic change would not have become a concern of donors if the issue had not been stressed by Africans themselves. The struggle for civil rights and freedoms in Africa predates the fall of the Berlin wall. External and internal forces have interacted, although the relative weight of both forces has varied from country to country.

There is secondly a point of view which states that democratisation has been the work of the upper and middle classes, whose privileges were 'eroded' as a result of the economic crisis and structural adjustment programmes. It has also been suggested that political protests were organised and controlled mainly by urban groups and that rural populations were hardly ever involved. Again, the fact that the change has, only in a few cases, brought new groups into power, has tended to confirm these negative views. In this regard, it is claimed that 'the new power-holders come, by and large, from the same political class and even the same families as those who were close to the centre of power in the previous three decades'. While these new leaders received widespread support before coming into power, they have actually 'weak links with civil society: workers, the informal sector, women and peasants' (Barya 1993, p. 19). Once in power, and especially when forced to implement unpopular structural adjustment measures, these links quickly break.

Influence of the Democratisation Process on Education

It is difficult to determine what effect the political changes occurring in Africa will have on its education system. This is not only because the nature of this change is open to discussion, but mainly because the change is still taking place and the distance in time needed for a balanced perspective analysis is as yet lacking. African countries however are not the first to undergo a transformation from one-party rule to democracy, and the lessons learned from countries with a similar experience are helpful (De Grauwe 1991; Gomes 1993; Mitter 1993).

The first lesson is that not too much hope must be put on political changes. While there might be a large difference between the declarations of non-democratic and democratic regimes, the difference is much less striking when one looks at their achievements. Politicians indeed: 'are only one of the groups involved in the process of transforming education, and political will is only one of the preconditions for actual change' (De Grauwe 1991, p. 241).

Five factors limit the power of a government to implement rapid change. First, an education system is resilient to change. A curriculum is not replaced overnight: textbooks must be prepared, teachers retrained and so on. Even if one succeeds in introducing a new curriculum fairly quickly, all graduates of the system for the next few years will have followed the old programme for most of their school career. Second, a political change does not imply a change in administration. Some top level public servants might be replaced if alternative staff is available, but this is a condition which is not easily fulfilled in the African context. The majority of administrative personnel, groomed ill the non-democratic traditions of policy-making, will be kept he place. Even more important, head-teachers and teachers obviously will not be replaced overnight, neither will their teaching habits change suddenly. Third, political changes do not necessarily signify chalices in the social background. For instance, the gender bias in society and in the education system is not likely to disappear with the installation of a democratic government. Fourth, financial constraints limit the room for manoeuvre of both nondemocratic and democratic governments. Admittedly, donors might reward democratic governments by writing off some of their debt or offering extra aid, but the impact of these measures is open to doubt.

To appraise the impact of democratisation on education, it is equally important to examine the nature of this process. In Latin-America, for example, it has been noted that democracy emerged:

> in association with populism and corporatism. Democratic rule of this kind does not necessarily bring about the structural changes of social participation which its electors might have expected.

The focus is not on change as such, but on 'the illusion of change (Gomes 1993, p. 536). The hope that democracy will improve the prospects for education for all might be even less justified in Africa than in other continents, taking into consi-

deration the second criticism of tile democratisation process mentioned above. With regard to education, it is the elite groups within the system, in particular university students, which have led the struggle for a new regime. They have won this struggle and have now kidnapped the democratisation process to serve their own ends, namely the protection oftheir already privileged status. Under pressure of this politically very powerful group, governments cannot design policies of national interest, if these would run counter to the particular interests of the students. In other words, the universalisation of basic education will be sacrificed to the need to satisfy the pecuniary demands of university and high school students. The already existing bias will become more severe. Education for all was not one of the slogans of the street demonstrating students.

The fact that after the establishment of a democratic government, as for example he Benin and Mali, students have continued their protests which have turned violently ugly at times, seems to confirm this analysis. The protests are now much more centred on the payment of their scholarships and related complaints about their conditions, than on democracy or human rights. In other words, they come to demand their reward. On the other haled, the fact that they have to go out into the streets in order to try to get this reward, this fact indicates that governments are not control led by theme that a government has more leeway than one could think. This is the proper answer, although situations will differ from country to country and in relation to the social structure and the weight of various pressure groups within each country.

It would be very useful, to test these various arguments by examining what has actually happened in countries such as Benin or Zambia where tile democratisation process started some years back and went fairly smoothly. This is very difficult as recent data, as one can imagine, is not available.

It is tempting to conclude from the above, even without proof in confirmation, that democratisation is bad news rather than good news for education for all in Africa. Fortunately this is not the case and there are indeed hopeful signs.

First, democratic countries generally spend more resources on tile social sectors of education and health than non-democratic countries. Few of Africa s one-party states showed such benevolence and only African democracies like Tanzania, Kenya and Cote d'lvoire have probably done so. Most of the other states have relied on strict control and on repression. But (Healey *et al.* 1993:536) suggest that:

> governments which depend on keeping and gaining power through elections rather than repression and coercion appear to devote relatively less expenditure to defence and security? and more to social sectors such as health and education.

For example Namibia, after it became an independent democratic nation, allocated more than 40 percent of its government budget to education.

A second and related factor concerns the strength gained by educational pressure groups in the national debate. Reference was made of university and high school students and teachers. While such pressure groups could have a negative effect on equity within the education sector, it is undoubtedly preferable that policy is set under pressure from these groups than from the military and, say, a small elite of traders. Moreover, in a democratic environment, the influence of popular pressure groups on policy-making ought to increase.

Thirds the contributions of those in education in tile struggle for democracy, as well as the now acknowledged need for more education to improve the nature of the democratic state, have brought about a greater awareness of the importance of education. Governments realise that they can no longer disregard the education sector, for both political as well as economic reasons.

Fourth, while it is true that:

> the weaknesses and the often declining standards of public administration in many parts of Sub-Saharan Africa may well be more influential in the policy formation process than the rules for changing and choosing the political leadership (Healey et al. 1993:536).

There is a good chance that the new political climate will have a beneficial impact on the motivation and professionalism of the administration. The competition, that is intrinsic in a democratic environment, could give administrators the freedom to

Box 1: The <<etats generaux>> on Education in Senegal

The "etats generaux" on education in Senegal were organised in January 1981. A large and fruitful debate took place and a 'National Commission on the reform of education and training' was set up to write a report reflecting the conclusions of the debate and to make recommendations to the government.

This report was presented in August 1984 and contained, *inter alia,* the following recommendations:

- free and compulsory primary education from 6 to 10 years;
- abolish the traditional distinction between academic and vocational education through-the creation of a single comprehensive secondary school system;
- introducing national languages into the school curriculum; replacing the examination system by a permanent and global 'evaluation-orientation';
- establishing a policy that would lead to the disappearance of private education; in this regard, suppressing salary differences between private and public schools;
- assuming responsibility for all school children through the free provision of school lunches, school assistance, medical assistance, and the reorganisation of boarding schools, 'la bourse d'externat'.

The government accepted this report in principle and its conclusions, but made the following comments on each of the above points:

- the government does not call into question the principle of a ten-year compulsory schooling; it considers this however a long-term objective, to be attained in different steps starting from five-year compulsory schooling and a beginning age of seven years;
- the government is of the opinion that the recommendation to wipe out the distinction between secondary general and secondary technical education is not fully relevant. It therefore decides to keep these two options;
- the government believes in the need to promote the national languages. It stresses, in this regard, the need for a sufficiently prudent and realistic approach so that, at its introduction in schools, all conditions of success will be present. It thus proposes firstly the creation of a supportive environment;
- the government is of the opinion that the proposal to abolish tests and examinations can only be implemented in the long term when the problems relating to such an abolition would have been solved;
- the government makes it clear that 'while it is the government's task to create a democratic school system, it cannot impose one on parents'. It therefore cannot call into question the existence of private education; the government shares the concern relating to putting children in the best possible working conditions. It however reaffirms that the opening of boarding schools is not an emergency.

Source: Senegal Ministry of Education.1992. p.30-37.

formulate new ideas and offer sometimes controversial advice, as opposed to the practice of simply having to obey orders.

Finally, democratic governments leave tried to create a national consensus on educational policies through the organisation of 'national conferences' or "etats generaux" on education. It is with this in mind that MINEDAF Vl recommended democratising political life so as to enable tile population to take an effective part in decision-making on matters of national and local importance' (Recommendation 1, para.9). The <etats generaux> or national conferences bring together sometimes thousands of people involved in education. They discuss freely a large range of issues and give non-binding recommendations to the government. Senegal had already organised its <<etats generaux de l'education>> in 1981, not surprisingly very shortly after Abdou Diouf replaced Senghor as president. Since 1990, several other countries have followed Senegal's example such as Mali, Niger, Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, and Chad.

Doubts exist as to the impact of such an exercise on policy-making. Delegates at such conferences, inspired by tile freedom they experience, make recommendations which do not take into account the limits on governments' room for manoeuvre and which at times are contradictory. Box 1shows the discrepancies in Senegal between the recommendations of tile <<etats generaux>> and tile government's response. The <<etats generaux>>. by allowing the different partners to express their opinions and to file their complaints, releases them of the need to protest in the streets. On the other haled, they could well lead to expectations which the government cannot fulfil, and consequently create even more frustrations than exist already.

The experience of a more recent <<etats generaux>> in the Central African Republic (June 1994) may present a different picture, as its recommendations are more realistic. Its very critical attitude towards the actual state of higher education is remarkable. It says clearly that:

> considering the weak internal and external efficiency of the University of Bangui and especially the high failure rate in the first year. the scholarship system seems inefficient. not to say a waste (...) the etats Generaux agrees to reduce expenditure on scholarships and to use the savings thus made in priority areas such as basic education. equipment,

> didactic materials and research(Central African Republic, Ministry of Education 1994, p. 22).

How far this reflects a national consensus shared by students is questionable. Even these 'etats generaux' have their share of internal contradictions. For example on tile one hand participants 'are of the opinion that the strategy of intensive short-term training used in recent years to remedy the lack of teachers ought to be limited in time' (p.24); but on the other hand participants recommend that the relevant authorities would 'continue the intensive short-term training of teachers' (p.2]). They also recommend seemingly easy solutions such as the 'creation of a special education fund sustained by taxes on alcohol, beer, tobacco and video-clubs...' (p.20) and also very ambitious proposals such as that:

> the tasks of the state in relation to pre-primary and primary education still be decentralised to the village and the community, simile responsibility for secondary schools and practical training centres will be transferred to the region (p.13).

Conclusion

There is indeed an interaction between education and democratisation. Education has contributed to tile development of democracy and the political changes under way will have some influence on education. But both sides of this relationship need clarification.

The role of education in bringing about political change was much enhanced as a result of the neglect of the educational system. It was thus more the absence of education titan its presence which fed the political change process. The question needs now to be posed as to which type of education is necessary for the further development and .strengthening of democracy.

In this regard, a Round Table, organised by tile Development Policy Forum of the German Foundation for International Development, came up with the following recommendations:

> Leadership training at all levels of society is an indispensable element in consolidating democracy. Human rights education. both formal and informal, is strongly recommended for introduction in primly and secondary schools and in other institutions including medical schools, police colleges, etc. To enhance awareness and impart knowledge on democracy and human rights, the curricula of schools and universities must be revised to include civic and legal education. The outreach to the rural and predominantly illiterate population is particularly important (Practical Steps 1994).

Good ideas, undoubtedly, but the problem is how to introduce them into an education system that is at the moment not even able to teach the basic skills of reading and arithmetic. A democratic management of schools and a participatory method of teaching should be snore important to prepare students for democracy that the content of what is being taught. Such participatory styles of management and teaching are absent in most African countries.

How democratisation will influence education depends, in tile final analysis, on what type of democracy will be developed. There is no doubt that a simple adoption of the external characteristics of Western style liberal democracy has not been sufficient to root out despotic behaviour. The sad but natural question is as to whether Africa is ripe for democracy. In recent years increasing attention has been given to Africa's traditional democratic institutions and its indigenous political structures. The view has been expressed that:

> The solution to Africa's numerous problems lie in Africa itself in its own backyard, not in the corridors of the World Bank or the inner sanctum of the Cuban presidium. Africa backyard is its own indigenous traditions of participatory democracy and tree village markets. Africa had a system of government based upon consensus that by its very definition precluded despotism. No one was barred from the decision-making process (Ayittey 1992, p.325).

The reluctance in many cases to take this traditional democracy seriously is mainly a result of the abuse of the concept by some African leaders to justify their despotism. Tradition can be a useful and powerful tool even now, as has been demonstrated by the successful experience of some of tile 'conferences nationales'. The national conferences that have been organised in Benin for example. Eboussi Boulaga has indicated that the wide representation at such conferences, as well as tile free discussions are rooted in African traditions. According to him, the most useful aspect and tide particular merit of such conferences is that they ensure not only the greatest possible representation but also an an understanding of the opinions of those represented. Such national conferences call forth a mobilisation of people and a civic excitement of which the electoral perspective is entire-

ly incapable. (Eboussi Boulaga 1993, p. 142). In some cases, a national conference is also a process of catharsis. The misdeeds of previous governments are brought to the fore and forgiven, and a new start is able to be made.

Many questions remain however. Not all national conferences have been successful. In fact while 'consensus through dialogue' might work perfect at village level, it is not clear that it would work equally well at the national level. Decentralisation, the organisation of small groups at village level, empowerment and grassroots development are all elements that need to be utilised for the purpose. This makes clear, once again, the need for education for all.

Notes

1. Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African

Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Cote d'lvoire Ethiopia, Gabon. Ghana Guinea-Bissau. Kenya Madagascar, Mali, Niger. Senegal. Tunisia, Zaire, Zimbabwe.

2. Syndicat national de la recherche et de l'enseignement superieur.

3. Students and teachers seem to have occupied less of the forefront in English-speaking countries. The reasons might be, as regards students that fewer receive scholarships and that therefore the absence of these or the changes in the system have less impact, and as regards the teachers, the British tradition of political neutrality of the civil service.

4. Some political analysts go even further and decry the present democratisation process as a take, initiated by the African leaders with the support from western donors, in particular the World Bank and the IMF so as not to be forced to install real democracy. See e.g. Tshiyembe, 1993 p.47: 'democratisation in Africa is a lure. an anti-democratic enterprise, nothing more than a pile of heterogeneous gadgets which will not help in creating a new dynamism, (...) an illusory process'.

5. It is interesting to note that the issue of political democratisation figured much larger in the debates at MINEDAF Vl than at the World Conference on Education for All. Indeed, the only phrase related to this debate in either the Jomtien World Declaration or the Framework for Action is fouled in para. 10 of the latter document. where preference is expressed for an active participatory process involving groups and the community'.

7 - Education of Girls and Women

Apartheid based on race has widely been condemned and considerable progress has been achieved in efforts to put an end to it. It is time now to eliminate this other apartheid based on sex.[1]

The specialised organs of the United Nations have for two decades devoted themselves to the eradication of this sore on the international conscience, as can be attested by the high level conferences and meetings organised since the Mexico Conference.[2]

This chapter is an attempt at a mid-term evaluation of one of these meetings, the Jomtien meeting on 'Basic Education', and more specifically, it proposes to discuss the Ouagadougou Meeting of April-May 1993 on 'The Education of Girls'.

Human Development and Education of Girls

'Human development', it must be remembered, encompasses all aspects of the human being: the body, mind, all the material and spiritual activities. It considers equally as a person per *se* and as a citizen of a country, community, village or family. It is within this context that an examination of the reasons for the education of women finds its justification.

Question of Ethics

Table 19 portrays the situation in African countries with regards to illiteracy in general and of women in particular. At the end of the 1990s, when the OECD countries and Europe will register an illiteracy rate of almost nil, for both sexes, Africa, and in particular sub-Saharan Africa, will be far below the world average rate of illiteracy. The illiteracy rate for women will simply be double that of men. South Asia apart, sub-Saharan Africa will have the lowest literacy in the world. With a gap of 20.6 between men and women in illiteracy rates, this region will be one of the principal areas where women are the victims of ignorance, the other two being the Arab States and South Asia.

In 1990, in 14 out of 5I developing countries, less than 20 percent of women could read and write. In 40 low income countries (with gap of less than $500) there was a 20 percentage points gap between the enrolment rates of boys and girls. Of the 130 million children out of school, more than 60 percent were girls. These overwhelming figures alone are sufficient to make a case in favour of the moral necessity for the education of girls and literacy for women. The feminine gender are a special group because they have been the object of so much discrimination, but they are not a minority group they represent more than half of the world's peoples (UNICEF, 1994b, p. 65).

Table I9: Estimates of the Rate of Adult Illiteracy by Region

Regions	1990		2000	
	Men percent	Women percent	Men percent	Women percent
Arab States	35.7	62.0	27.1	49.4
East Asia/Oceania	11.8	28.1	7.7	16.4
Latin America/Caribbean	13.6	16.6	10.3	12.7
OECD/Europe	2.6	3.9	1.0	2.0
South Asia	40.9	67.8	33.8	58.8
sub-Saharan Africa	40.5	64.4	29.8	50.4
World	17.8	32.7	14.7	25.8

Source: UNESCO

This is enough justification for the statement that: 'absolute priority must be given to ensuring the access of girls and women to education and to improving the quality of their training'. Article 3 of the World Declaration on Education for All insists on the urgent necessity to remove all obstacles to the active participation of women in development. All sex stereotypes must be banned in Education.

Beyond Ethics

Health and Population

A positive correlation exists between the enrolment of girls in primary school on the one hand, and the gross national product and increase of life expectancy on the other. The rate of primary school enrolment diminishes with infant mortality and birth rates.

Increases in the level of girls' education improves their health as well as their offsprings. Studies on the social benefits of education reveal that the edu-

cation of mothers supplements that of their children. Besides, mothers who have had secondary schooling are more likely to adopt family planning and to follow a health programme assiduously. The higher tile educational level of women, the greater the use of contraception increases and the faster the birth rate decreases. Better results are achieved when the school curriculum includes health education. 'No matter the level of income per inhabitant, countries where the gap between the sexes is lowest are those with the longest life expectancy and the lowest infant mortality and fertility rates' among girls (Easterlin 1983-1985).

Indeed, education has a multidimensional effect on women. It improves hygiene and health and the quality of nutrition, reduces environmental hazards, and eliminates traditional customs and beliefs, and especially certain sex and nutritional taboos.

Socio-Economic Reasons

It was only in the 1970s, two hundred years after Adam Smith, that supporters of the idea to invest in human capital proclaimed that investment in human resources was the 'key to development' . Education, according to them, is the most effective means of improving returns of economic productivity. It is also a factor in the reduction of disparities in salaries and consequently in the equitable distribution of incomes.

Besides, Education is a decisive factor in the upliftment often individual and his society, because it improves his skills, arouses his potential and makes him more creative, and more innovative. Pears (1965) in his study on the relationship between the growth of primary education and per capita GNP between 1850 and 1960 for the 34 most industrialised countries, showed that no country attained significant economic growth without universal primary education. Thus it has become evident that there is a link between the development of basic education and human development.

What is true of education in general is particularly true of the education of women and girls. It is accepted at present that there is a link between the education of girls and economic well-being. Other studies have gone further to demonstrate, by means of data, that in Africa in particular, 'considerably higher number of girls benefit from primary education than boys'.

Education helps in the emancipation of women by making them become more critical and less submissive. Educated women are the first to call into question the institutional arrangements which bolster male domination.

In short, the various means of information and education to which educated women have access will help to sharpen their critical faculties and enable them to keep abreast with other social models. Consequently, they will be more sensitive to the artificial character of the social institutions which determine status and functions.

Education in general and the education of girls he particular is an investment which yields net dividend for durable human development. Strategies for the education of girls and women are therefore *asine* qua non, an urgent necessity.

What the Figures Say

Literacy

There are 139 million illiterates aged 15 years and above in Africa South of the Sahara, made up of 37.6 percent men and 62.4 percent women. Mauritius has the lowest illiteracy rate for women which is less than 21 percent. At the other extreme is Burkina Faso with 91 percent. The gap between the two sexes is around 24 percentage points in all-44 countries.

Table 20: Estimates of Illiterates aged 15 years and above by Region in millions

Regions	1990			2000		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Arab States	61.1	22.7	38.4	65.8	23.7	42.1
East Asia/Oceania	232.7	70.3	162.4	165.6	54.1	111.5
Latin America/ Caribbean	43.3	19.3	24.0	41.7	18.4	23.3
OECD/Europe	31.5	12.1	19.4	15.7	5.2	10.5
South Asia	398.1	155.9	242.2	437.1	165.8	271.3
sub-Saharan Africa	138.8	52.2	86.6	146.8	53.4	93.4
World	905.4	318.9	586.5	860.3	306.4	553.9

Source: UNESCO

Pre-Primary Education

The need for pre-primary education is being felt more and more in Africa. Growing urbanisation and its multiplied effects such as access of women to paid jobs are among the most cogent.

The general overview of the state of education in Africa pointed out the positive trends in pre-primary education summarised in Table 21 in round figures. In 1980, girls accounted for 40 percent of the pre-primary school population which increased to 44 percent in 1992. In sub-Sahara Africa, girls population was 49 percent, almost equal to that of boys. In Namibia, Gabon, and Sao Tome/Principe, the number of girls was higher than those of boys. In Cameroon, Congo and Ethiopia, Guinea Bissau, Seychelles and Togo, a balance between the sexes was practically achieved.

Table 21: Pre-Primary Education in Africa (Evolution in 1000s)

Years	Total	Girls	Percentage
1980	2212	879	40
1988	3041	1333	44
1990	3498	1534	44
1992	3885	1706	44

Primary Education

Despite considerable efforts by African countries, the combined effect of the economic crisis and of population explosion resulted in the stagnation of the sector. Primary school enrolment was stagnant, and even dropped in some cases.

The following table (22) examines the evolution of the gross rate of schooling of girls at the primary level between the end of the 1980's and the beginning of the present decade. In 7 out of 28 countries for which figures are available, this rate went down, even though in two of these it was still higher than 100 percent. It is particularly encouraging that it was only in one of the 10 countries of Group A, namely, Ethiopia, that the rate dropped. The gross enrolment rate (GER) for boys went down in 10 countries, the 7 countries mentioned above plus Burundi, Morocco and Senegal, where this

reduction in the percentage for boys was accompanied by an increase in that for girls. The percentage for girls went up by 10 percent in three countries, Chad, Mauritania and Swaziland. Gross enrolment fell in 15 countries, 5 of them in Group A, 7 in Group B and 3 in Group C, but it went up in 11 countries, 5 of them in Group A, one in group B and 5 in Group C. In two countries the rate did not change. One can conclude from these figures that there has been a slight improvement since 1988 as regards the enrolment of girls in primary schools.

Table 22: Primary Education
Evolution of Gross Rate of Enrolment

Countries	GER Primary (1988-1992)				Growth		Years
	Boys		Girls				
Group A							
Ethiopia	44	26	28	18	- 16	- 8	88/92
Burkina Faso	40	46	24	29	+ 6	+ 5	87/91
Chad	73	89	29	41	+ 16	+ 12	87/91
Mauritania	60	70	42	55	+ 10	+ 13	88/92
Sudan	58	58	41	45	0	+ 4	85/91
Burundi	77	76	60	62	- 1	+	87/92
Senegal	68	67	48	50	- 1	+ 2	87/91
Tanzania	64	69	64	67	+ 5	+ 3	88/92
Mali	29	32	17	19	+ 3	+ 2	87/91
Guinea	42	57	19	27	+ 15	+ 18	88/92
Group B							
Comoros	82	86	66	73	+ 4	+ 7	88/91
Côte d'Ivoire	87	81	61	58	- 6	- 3	88/91
Gambia	76	81	47	56	+ 5	+ 9	88/92
Ghana	78	80	62	67	+ 2	+ 5	87/91
Madagascar	94	81	90	77	- 13	- 13	89/93
Morocco	81	80	54	57	- 1	+ 3	88/92
Mozambique	76	69	59	51	- 7	- 8	87/92
Nigeria	77	85	59	67	+ 8	+ 8	87/91
Rwanda	73	78	70	76	+ 5	+ 6	88/91
Zaire	87	80	64	60	- 7	- 4	87/92
Group C							
Algeria	101	105	85	92	- 4	+ 7	88/92
Botswana	108	114	114	118	+ 6	+ 4	88/92
Egypt	104	110	88	93	+ 6	+ 5	88/91
Lesotho	100	98	123	113	- 2	- 10	88/92
Mauritius	104	104	107	108	0	+ 1	88/91
Swaziland	104	116	103	114	+ 12	+ 11	88/92
Tunisia	122	125	107	115	+ 3	+ 8	89/93
Zimbabwe	128	123	124	114	- 5	- 10	88/92

Source: UNESCO

In some countries, the figures available for 1992 indicate that more girls attended school than boys (51 percent in Botswana, 54 percent in Lesotho and 50 percent in Namibia). The rate is the same for both sexes in Kenya, Swaziland, Gabon, Tanzania, Mauritius, the Seychelles, Rwanda and Madagascar. In Chad and Guinea however the attendance rate of girls was lower than that of boys, only 32 percent.

The reduction of the gap in the rate of school attendance does not however conceal the problems that girls encounter in their school career and which results in a relatively high rate of dropouts or failures. In Senegal for example, there is a gap between boys and girls in schools. The percentage of girls in the different elementary classes seems to indicate that the number of girls continued to depreciate, from the first to the fifth year, then begins to rise slightly in the sixth year, reaching its maximum two years after.

Secondary Education

The improvement of the situation of girls at the primary level is equally visible at the secondary level. The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for girls rose by 4.6 percent between 1988 and 1992, while that for boys remained the same. The rise in the percentage for girls was therefore more rapid than for boys. (diagram 2). I he difference in the GER was 11.3 percent in 1980, 10.2 percent in 1988 and 5.6 percent in 192. One must note however that it was higher in the countries of southern Africa and the Indian Ocean than in other countries. Girls were more numerous than boys in secondary general education in Botswana(54 percent), Lesotho (59 percent) and Namibia (55 percent). In four other countries, Madagascar, Mauritius, Swaziland and the Seychelles, a balance was nearly attained. The figures enable us to compare the situation between 1988 and 1992 in 24 countries. In two of them Guinea and Swaziland the attendance rate of girls did not change. But it went down in Ghana and Lesotho. In the 20 other countries, the rate went up, with increases of 4 percent or more in Rwanda, Mozambique, Egypt and Ethiopia (in the last country however there are now fewer girls than in 1988 caused by a very large decrease in the number of boys). In three countries, Guinea, Chad and Togo, girls accounted for less than a quarter of the pupils in general secondary. We note that this last country is among those which achieved a Gross Enrolment Ratio of 100 percent.

Table 23: Secondary Education Estimates of Gross Enrolment Ratio 1980 1992, Africa(%)

Years	Total	Boys	Girls
1980	21.8	27.4	16.1
1988	27.5	32.5	22.3
1990	27.8	32.1	23.5
1992	29.8	32.5	26.9

Source: UNESCO

Higher Education

Table 26 shows that Africa, has made appreciable efforts since 1988. The number of secondary school students was believed to be 40 percent of all school aged children. The percentage of girls rose from 30 percent to 34 percent (from 25 percent to 32 percent for sub-Saharan Africa). The difference between the GER for girls and that for boys has become less significant since 1988. However two points must be noted: first, that the enrolment rates and even the actual numbers of students are still very low in comparison with other regions of the world, and second, that the disparity between the sexes is more marked here than at the lower levels of education.

In spite of the unfavourable economic environment, African countries have made appreciable efforts in the education of their girls at all levels, and in literacy for women. The strides made are remarkable considering the scarcity of resources. However, greater effort needs to be made, not only in educational funding, but also in overcoming the myths which make life difficult.

Constraints to Girls' Education

It should be stressed that sexism, arising from biases associated with sex and the arbitrary manner of characteristics and roles, is always present and constitutes an obstacle to the education of girls. It carries the weight of an ideology, no matter whether its prevalence is comparatively strong or weak according to the cultural milieu. Apea (1993) asserts that some of these sexist stereotypes in science education have given rise to what can be tanned as 'Education for men'.[3]

Table 24: Secondary General Percentage of Girls

Countries	1980	1988	1982
Group A			
Burkina Faso	33	32	34
Burundi	25	35	38
Chad	-	16	-
Ethiopia	36	40	47
Guinea Bissau	22	35	-
Guinea	28	24	24
Mali	-	32	34
Mauritania	21	31	34
Niger	29	30	-
Senegal	34	33	35
Sierra Leone	30	33	36
Sudan	37	-	45
Tanzania	33	41	43
Group B			
Benin	26	-	28
Comoros	34	-	-
Gambia	30	32	35
Ghana	38	40	39
Madagascar	-	49	50
Malawi	29	35	-
Morocco	38	40	41
Mozambique	31	35	39
Nigeria	36	34	-
Rwanda	28	34	38
Group C			
Algeria	39	42	45
Botswana	56	51	54
Cameroon	34	40	-
Cape Verde	43	50	-
Congo	40	43	-
Egypt	36	41	45
Gabon	42	46	-
Kenya	42	41	43
Lesotho	60	60	59
Libya	39	-	50
Mauritius	48	49	51
Swaziland	49	50	50
Togo	25	24	-
Tunisia	39	43	45
Zambia	35	37	-
Zimbabwe	-	42	44

Source: UNESCO

Table 25: Sccondary Technical Education Proportion of Girls, 1980 1992

Countries	1980	1988	1992
Botswana	25	33	33
Burkina Faso	40	45	48
Burundi	18	33	39*
Egypt	38	41	43
Guinea	-	27	26
Lesotho	56	54	46
Madagascar	-	40	34**
Morocco	23	33	38
Mozambique	17	18	25
Rwanda	55	43	44
Senegal	25	31	34
Seychelles	48	39	42**
Tunisia	30	38	38

*1993 - **1991

Source: UNESCO

Table 26: Higher Education Evolution by Continent, 1980-1992

Countries	Number of Students ('000)			Percentage of Women		
	1980	1988	1992	1980	1988	1992
Africa	1543	2221	3286	27	30	34
America	17957	21732	24633	49	51	52
Asia	12061	18878	23920	32	35	36
Europe	13736	15652	17941	49	50	49
Oceania	425	561	744	44	50	53
sub-Saharan Africa	528	718	1510	22	25	32
World	45722	59043	70524	43	45	45

Source: UNESCO

Table 27: Higher Education, Africa Evolution of Gross Enrolment Ratio

Years	Total	Men	Women	Male/female gap
1980	3.5	5.2	1.9	3.3
1988	4.5	6.4	2.6	3.8
1990	4.7	6.5	2.8	3.7
1992	5.3	7.0	3.6	3.4

Source: UNESCO

The major constraints arise from the inadequacy of the educational institution and its curriculum in the face of the economic and social realities of the milieu.

Curriculum and Learning Environment/ The school is to blame for breaking the links with its milieu. It does not always satisfy social demands. For example, in countries such as Niger, Senegal, Mali and Algeria, the school can be blamed for not introducing Koranic teaching in the curriculum. The importance of religion in certain areas of Senegal, for example, leads to a consideration of the school as propagating values not always conform to those of the miIieu. Also, in Chad, one deplores the fact that school assessment does not take into account productive activities carried out by women such as childcare, home management and needlework. In such countries, teaching materials help discourage girls by way of the denigrating image of women contained in the curriculum and in the course of learning. This image is often heightened by the sexist attitude of certain teachers.

School Time and Space: In several countries, school time and space are unrelated to the needs of girls and the constraints they have to contend with. For example, in Chad, where the sources of water are distant from dwellings, beginning classes at eight o'clock in the morning penalises the girls, who have to fetch water before going to class.

The geographical location of the school and the absence of transportation are constraints that were mentioned in various reports presented at the Panafrican Conference on the Education of Girls in Ouagadougou. In Chad, Mali, Niger and Algeria this is often quoted as a reason for abandoning school, because parents feel the journey to school exposes the girl to all sorts of danger.

The Upbringing of Girls/ In many parts of Africa the activities of women and girls are regulated by social norms which restrict their presence in public places and their contacts with men. The school is not always able to adapt to this system of values, and thus appears like a place of promiscuity where boys and girls live together often under the authority of a man, and parents take exception to this. Promiscuity is also suggested by the use of common toilettes and refectories, or by the absence of these, in certain countries such as Niger and Chad, and this is another reason why girls have to abandon school. Also, in Algeria, the young girl who has reached the age of puberty is considered as an 'easy prey' if she is exposed to the dangers in the streets. In Mali too, in certain milieus, the school 'exposes young girls to unwanted pregnancies.

The Legal-institutional Aspect. School rules do not always facilitate access to education for girls and their stay in school. One example of this is the expulsion of pregnant girls from schools in certain countries. Senegal is a good example of this practice in all its facets.[4]

The Cultural Reasons: Many cultural factors militate against the education of girls. In countries where girls marry at the age of 12 or 13 years, the school is considered as a hindrance to the normal development of the young girl.

School enrolment for girls in Niger for example are a case in point. Here, cultural traditions (early marriages, seclusion) are in conflict with the school as an institution. The high rate of school drop-out which occurs very early in the first year is a form of resistance against coercive methods used in the schools.

Economic Aspects: Tile high birth rate in agrarian societies gives rise to both cultural and economic problems. In certain countries, generally where income is low, the education of the young girl is seen as a waste of resources, since the time spent in school could be invested in domestic work or paid employment. In The Gambia, 10 percent of children who leave primary school have to occupy themselves with the care of their brothers and sisters. In Mauritania, Senegal, Mali, Algeria and Chad, girls work as house maids in the large towns and are expected to take care of their own needs, as well as supplement family income.

In addition, the education of the young girl involves additional expenses. In this period of crisis, it is only in rare cases that the state is able to get contributions from communities for school expenses. Also, families prefer to make sacrifices for boys, who more often remain at home, than for girls who must marry and join other clans. In Senegal, for example, educational expenses represent the third most important item in the family budget after food and equipment. It takes up 15 percent of the income of the head of the family.

The magnitude of the problem and the amount of work that remains to be done must not, however, conceal the considerable progress made so far, when one considers that these countries still suffer under the crushing debt burden and the caprices of the world market. However, * the problem of sex stereotype is always present, and continues to pose a serious problem as regards the education of girls and literacy for women.

Strategies for Promoting the Education of Young Girls and Literacy for Women

Some Preliminary Observations

These remarks should largely be considered as questions and food for though, rather than as criticisms.

- Emphasis must be placed on the urgent need for the education of girls in African countries. The exigencies of development demand that all segments of the population be mobilised, and the woman, as an agent of development, and even simply as a person, has as much right to education as the man. In addition, as mentioned above, the education of the woman has a direct impact on the health and well-being of the child.
- The preceding chapter made distinctions between factors internal to the school and external considerations. Those who study the situation, as well as decision-makers, must bear in mind the overlapping nature of these factors to avoid unrealistic conclusions or undesirable results.
- In trying to adapt the school to the milieu there are problems which are relatively easy to solve. For example, that of adapting school time-table to girls' occupations so as to achieve maximum application to study and full-time enrolment and attendance.

One of the objectives of the school is to educate in the highest sense of the term. In other words. to rid the pupils of certain undesirable habits. How then, in conditions so iconoclastic by definition, can one cultivate the critical spirit, and at the same time respect certain traditions which seem to perpetuate the strangle hold of society on women? There is no simple answer. If, as stressed above, the education of women is as much a question of justice as it is of realism, the responses must not, to use an African proverb, plunge us into a calabash under the pretext of an escape from darkness. Ordinarily, can the school, as a means of women's emancipation, promote discriminatory and segregationist attitudes against women, under the pretext of adapting itself to the milieu? It is a dilemma, a gordian knot which must be untied, but surely not with the aid of too sharp a sword.

- Here one would mention certain recommendations made repeatedly at the Ouagadougou Conference. The question was often raised, in promoting the education of girls, one has to separate them from boys. However, while this is possible in certain countries, it is difficult to impose it on others who, for budgetary reasons at least, will not have arrived at universal education by the end of this decade.
- In fulfilling their role as cooperating partners, bilateral or multilateral organisations must not impose their ideas as substitute for the political will. Solutions imposed on countries run the risk of provoking adverse reactions.
- It is interesting to note that despite many conferences and meetings on the subject, very few of the countries have prepared a specific plan of action for girls. Are they trying to face up to reality or merely perpetuate the sexist ideology?
- Literature on these matters focus more on criticisms than seek possible solutions. Is it more a matter of reviewing causes than of proposing remedies? A stage in the process or a focal point? It must be stressed that these remarks are a call for greater care and cool headedness in a debate which, for all its legitimacy, is nevertheless strewn with pitfalls.

An examination of some projects and plans of action will enable us identify some of the directions being pursued by some African countries in an attempt to find solutions. We shalI examine the cases of three Sahelian countries categorised among the world's poorest: Mali, Burkina and Chad, and this will help us understand what measures Sahelian countries are taking to enhance education of girls.

Example 1: Mali

The short tend plan of action (1995-1998) foresees 'the extension of basic education in favour of girls'.

Despite considerable efforts by this Sahelian country, one of tile poorest h1 the world, the gross enrolment rate at the primary level remained at 24 percent in 1993 with a minimum of 4.93 percent in one of its provinces. Idle gap between boys and girls was 26 percent in the province with the highest enrolment ratio.

The plan of Action seeks to increase the rate of enrolment, of success and of retention of girls in the first cycle of basic education, and to ensure the professional training of girls out of school, and of women.

The targets are girls in the first cycle of basic education, girls out of school and women.

Implementation Strategies

The Major Areas

- Strengthening of the national directorate for the education of girls;
- Raising of the gross enrolment rate at primary level from 17 percent to 50 percent between now and the year 2000;
- Restoring the balance between the sexes;
- Improving school enrolment techniques;
- Involving communities as well as other partners;
- Increasing the number of female teachers from 10.7 percent to 20 percent of the aggregate number of teachers.

Logistics

The National Authority for the Education of Girls (CNSF) will be equipped and ten training centres created. School kitchens will be built and school libraries equipped.

Research and training

Training envisaged for national and regional teams.

After the evaluation of national needs, there will be a training programme for teachers. There will be remedial training for slow retarded girls, and also parents will be able to enrol in a literacy programme.

An operational research component will be included in the project for the study of certain constraints and obstacles to the education of girls; evaluation of manuals, impact of teaching, and needs. Emphasis will be on a search for educational alternatives.

Community Awareness and Participation

Awareness programmes will be initiated in areas with a low rate of enrolment of girls, parents and other members of the community. Sketches will be used for the purpose. A one-day campaign for Girls Education will be instituted. Awareness wilI be reinforced by the creation of literacy prizes, prizes for cooking, and other forms of healthy competition.

At the level of pedagogy

The project envisages an evaluation of manuals and curricula. It also proposes to remove those manuals with stereotypes unfavourable to women and adapt them before further use. In order to attract girls and prepare them for their future roles, family education in home economics will be introduced in all programmes according to aptitude and orientation.

Collaboration

The follow-up component and evaluation of the National Pedagogical Institute makes provision for the preparation of evaluation forms for teachers. The project makes provision for the creation of a network of women teachers, as well as an association for the education of girls, in order to create solidarity among key players.

Example 2: Burkina Faso

The Plan of Action comprises two projects: satellite schools and non-formal basic education centres.

The enrolment rate in Burkina Faso increased from] 9 percent to 29 percent over the past ten years. The gap between boys and girls was 17 percent. The reduction of the difference is appreciable when one considers that Burkina is among the world's poorest countries. However, 'girls still constitute tile principal social group outside the schools'.

Satellite Schools

Definition Component *No.* I of the plan of action consists of the creation of a system of satellite schools. In each village an embryonic school will be created comprising of Cl and CP (first and 2nd year primary school) classes it should be recalled that one of the reasons for the non-attendance at school by girls is the distance between school and village and the consequent insecurity. The satellite schools should solve this problem. They will take in children from 7 to 9 years in equal proportions of girls and boys, and there will be close collaboration between these satellite schools and the normal primary school.

Pilot Projects: The project will be run on experimental bases in three provinces in villages relatively close to each other, so as to facilitate exchange of teachers. Each school will have two teachers.

Choice of Sites and Locations/ Areas and villages most disadvantaged in the education of girls will be selected. Structures will be set up using materials in the form of either open sheds or shelters. These classroom structures however will not be permanent, so that it would be possible for classes to be moved according to climatic changes.

Partners: The project will be implemented with the involvement of parents (reading and writing materials), the Ministry (training and remuneration of teachers), NGOs (Planning and supervision) and UNICEF (financing),

Recruitment and Training of Teachers/ In Burkina Faso, ten per cent of the classes are without teachers, and another 10 percent are staffed by young teachers without training. The Plan of Action envisages two new training schools for the training of 1050 teachers. The duration of training will be two years, but in the interim, a system of intensive training(one month, with close supervision) and at low cost will be initiated.

The recruitment of teachers will initially be within the communities where the satellite schools are to be established. This has two advantages: teachers will be from the milieu itself and therefore will perhaps be more acceptable to the community. Also, it makes for greater stability in the supply of teachers. A minimum of 60 percent of the teachers will be women.

CurricuIum Content and Methodology: The basic curricula for first and second years of primary school are those to be used in the satellite schools. However, flexibility and adaptation to the environment and to sex will be the guiding principles of teaching in the satelIite schools. The participation of both community members and peers will be sought.

Centres of Non-formal Basic Education .The centres of non-formal basic education will be for children of 9-15 years in the viIlages, irrespective of whether these villages are endowed with primary or satellite schools. Such children will be out of school children or school dropouts. Priority will be given to areas with poor school enrolment of girls.

Field of Actions Components and Site: The short-term plan proposes a pilot project in a maximum of three provinces. As for the satellite schools, these must be grouped to facilitate administration and interaction.

Village communities, NGOs, the target groups and the Ministry of Education will all be involved. Collaboration with satellite schools is a component of the strategy adopted by the centres. Each centre will be in the proximity of an NGO.

Curriculum content, Choice and Training of Teachers: The curriculum will be essentialIy oriented towards the needs of girls, and will start from village realities in a search for solutions to reduce tile burden of women's work. Teachers will be chosen hole among villagers, principally from among post-literates who must now he turn become literacy teachers. Three months intensive training is proposed for them, through visits and close supervision, and with tile participation often community.

The project will support and reinforce existing structures (Madressa schools, Catholic Women's Centres, NGOs).

Example 3: Chad

Chad is a Least Developed Country (LCD).

Gross enrolment rate (primary) 65 percent

Elementary education

- girls	41 percent
- boys	89 percent

Internal Efficiency (primary)

- Promotion	50.7 percent
- Repeats	34.1 percent

Pupils teacher ratio, primary 67

Teacher qualification

- probationary	50.0 percent
- instructor	4.0 percent

Annual Growth (88-89, 89-90)15.7 percent

- girls in 2nd year (CP) (average 89-92)	34.9 percent
- girls in 5th year (CMI) (average 89-92)	7.0 percent

Factors Hindering the Education of Girls

Demand Related Factors

- Parents preferring investment in the education of their sons;
- Domestic work;
- Early marriage;
- Socio-economic condition of families: low incomes.

Supply Related Factors

- School programmes not adapted to the social and cultural realities of traditional communities;
- Quality and functionality of school structures which do not take into account the intimate necessities of girls;
- The organisation of the school map and its compatibility with the domestic and agricultural duties of girls;
- Perceptions and attitudes of teachers vis-‡-vis girls, distances of schools from homes;
- Lack of teachers.

Objectives, Targets and Implementation Plan

The Integrated Regional Programme of Action (PISB)
stresses the community approach to ensure the well-being of children and women motivation to achieve the following:

- Increased access of girls to CP(2nd year of primary cycle) and in 6eme (first year of second cycle);
- Maintaining girls in the primary cycle up to CM2 (6th year of the elementary cycle);
- Improving the performances of girls in both cycles;
- Generalisation at the national level of the strategies identified, on the basis of the results achieved initially.

Girls from 6 to 15 years:

- Of school age but not in school;
- Enrolled, but withdrawn;
- Enrolled, but not applying themselves to study;
- Having abandoned school;
- Parents of pupils;
- Teachers.

implementation of Project

Phase I

Institution of Project: Organisational arrangements with a distribution of roles at the summit (central level), at the base (community level) and at intermediate stages (sub-prefectoral and prefectoral

Trainin: Existing structures for teacher recruitment will ensure both the training of teachers, the placement of future animators and their training in the techniques of animation, and finally, the training of administrators, managers and evaluators.

Infrastructure: This phase will undertake the identification of school establishments for conducting the experiments: the construction of new classes, and rehabiIitation.

Phase II

This phase will be devoted to research and preliminary studies; the preparation of teaching materials; mobilisation; and the implementation of policies of motivation for the education of girls.

Phase III

Supervision, follow-up, evaluation and preparation of manuals. Mechanisms for control on the terrain and at central level will be used for follow-up and for both formative and summative evaluation.

What is apparent in the three projects is the political will to find a solution to the problem of the inadequate education of girls and of illiteracy among women. But this is as far as policies and plans go. Actual implementation is lacking. This absence of decisions is not entirely due to budgetary problems, the psychological battle still has to be won. Perhaps even governments also need to exorcise the sexist demon.

Specifically, the links between projects and the educational system in general are not always clearly defined. For example in the case of Mali, it should be interesting to know what rapport the project has with certain other projects already in progress and with the same objectives.

- The principle of community participation and of close collaboration with communities is stressed. but the modalities of collaboration are not always very explicit.
- How are the objectives of the project integrated with other priorities of development?

Women are the least educated group. Alley constitute tile majority of repeaters. They are absent more often titan boys, they succeed less in examinations, suffer more from expulsion, and are less employed in position of responsibility after trainings Urgent measures must be taken on their behalf, and the Jomtien Conference has made such measures a priority. But the passage from thought to reality necessitates material means, and perhaps most especially an explicit political will. Besides, it is imperative for problems to be solved on a case by case basis, so as to avoid standardisation of solutions which in certain cases may be quite misleading.

Concluding Remarks

What is apparent in tile three projects is the political will to find a solution to the problem of the inadequate education of girls and of illiteracy among women. This is meritorious, but there is a penury of solutions. This absence of decisions is not entirely due to budgetary problems, tile psychological battle still has to be Would Perhaps even Governments need also to exorcise the sexist demon

The links between projects and the educational system in general are not always clearly defined; For example in tile case of Mali, it should be interesting to know what rapport the project has with certain other projects already in progress and with the same objectives, projects such as the Fund for the Support of Girls (USAID), the Education of Girls (USAID), The Project Canada, and the Project Non-Formal Education for Children out of School and the Adult (UNESCO/UNICEF). Has it profited from their experiences? Or from their errors? Has there been established a network of exchange, of communication between tile different partners involved? Is there not tile risk of reinventing the wheel? Projects should not be ghettos, jealous of their means and their experiences, in competition with each other rather than learning from each other.

The principle of community' participation and of close collaboration with communities is stressed, but the modalities of collaboration are not always very explicit. Do communities participate in the definition of the most appropriate actions? Often sensitisation is timely information, and at tile begining of a project, information on what is going to be done. And approach to sensitisation often concentrates on consumers at tile expense of those who conceived the project, and this may give rise to a lack of sustainability

What is foreseen at the end of projects? Have modalities been thought out for the integration of the projects into the educational system? Does the project remain a parallel project, or a ' School for the Poor'? Is there no fear of raising expectations and creating needs that cannot be satisfied?

Will the teachers not consider themselves as second-rate teachers? How will they be seen by other teachers? What does the project foresee in this connection? What will be their status after the project'?

How are the objectives of the project integrated with other priorities of development? For example, the application of girls and women to their studies depends essentially on their availability. And their priorities are not educational, but such as the search for wood or for water. Are there accompanying or related projects for solving these problems? In plain language, are these projects integrated'?

What is previewed as regards reinvestment of the knowledges and experiences acquired by women? What kinds of activities and post-literacy documentation are foreseen?

Often evaluation is qualitative Has thought been given to tire construction of instruments to measure qualitative aspects? The difficulty of the matter is no reason for not giving it attention.

Should boys follow exactly the same curriculum as girls?

Women are the least educated group of all. Also in school, they are tile majority of repeaters, they are absent more often than boys, they succeed less in examinations, suffer more from expulsion, and are less employed in position of responsibility after training.

(Table 28). Urgent measures must be taken on their behalf, and the Jomtien Conference has made such measures a priority. But the passage from thought to reality necessitates material means, and perhaps most especially an explicit political will. Besides, it is imperative for problems to be solved on a case by case basis, so as to avoid a standardisation of solutions which in certain cases may be quite misleading.

Table 28: Employment of Women in Modern

Qualification	Women		Men	
	Number	%	Number	%
Management Staff	47	4.0	1045	96.0
Senior Technicians	189	7.5	2306	92.5
Junior Technicians	1038	7.0	13493	93.0
Employers Workers	3016	7.0	40560	93.0
Total permanent	4290	7.0	57404	93.0

Sector Enterprises

Source: CNDIF, Dakar, March 1991.

Notes

1. Grant, UNICEF Director, New York, April 1992.

2. List of International Conferences and meetings initiated by or with the participation of specialised organs of the UN on women.

3. 'Girls are less logic than boys', 'they are at ease in routine duties'.

4. The circular No. 3566 dated April 24th, 1986 from the General Direction of Secondary Education of the Ministry of Education stipulates on this matter a follows: 'Pregnant pupils are automatically excluded from the school. This exclusion is definitive for girls in the lower secondary or unmarried in the upper secondary. In the ca e of married pupils in the secondary education, the exclusion is valid for the current school year. These pupils are authorised to repeat but only one repetition is authorised for pregnancy reason in secondary education'.

8 - Contemporary Global Problems in the African School

The contemporary world is facing problems related to population, the environment, the HlV/AIDS *inter aria* Educational systems have had to seek solutions tot these problems. The present chapter attempts an assessment of African efforts in this area in the first half of the 1990s.

Population and Family Life Education

The progress achieved in the field of the natural sciences has made it possible to contain major diseases and subsequently reduce mortality rates among all age groups. Constant evolution of medicine has been able to tackle and cure most common diseases and by so doing, provide protection for women of child-bearing age as well as ensure the survival of new-born babies.
Declining mortality and high birth rates especially among third world countries have led to unprecedented population growth. From 1800 to 1950, world population rose from 800 million to 2,368 millions people. In 1987, the population of the globe rose to over five billion. According to projections by the United Nations fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), world population should rise to more than 6.25 billions by the year 2000 and to 8.5 billions in 2025, based on projection of average population growth.

The current trend indicates that the world's population is increcasingly concentrated in the poorest regions of The globe: Asia, Latin America and Africa will account for 97 percent of the estimated increases while Africa alone will account for 34 percent.

In sub-Sahara Africa, birth rate remains Vigil even though a tendency toward decline is already in progress in many countries. On average, the African woman gives birth to 6.5 children in her life time. In this region, living conditions and chances for the survival of both mother and ChiId are lowest. For every 10,000 live-births, 183 infants die before the age of five years. Thirty-one per cent of those who survive suffer from malnutrition (UNICEF 1994). High levels of illiteracy and tile lowest life expectancy is a characteristic of sub-Sahara Africa. In many countries, more than 70 percen to the rural population live below the vital minimum and in most cases in areas where tile state of the environment is rapidly degrading. In such conditions, population pressure sustains and worsens
poverty.

If it is not put in check, digit population growth disrupts the equilibrium in many domains. The first imbalance has to do with tile gap between population and economic growth.

There are many theories on the link between population and the economic and social situation. Short of highlighting theme the important thing for a country is to have an optimal population in terms of quantity and quality, capable of taking charge of its destiny. Man is at the beginning and end of development. He constitutes the most important resource for ensuring the sustainable development of a given society. This is why tile population must be put in the best condition to improve the material and moral situation of the entire existence.

A rapidly rising population exerts pressure on all available resources. In poor countries where population continues to rise, the means with which to improve the standard of Iiving of people also tunas out to be insufficient. Rising population increasingly demands greater expenditure on infrastructure (schools, hospitals , housing). This type of situation is at the root of the over-exploitation of natural resources. It is also responsible for crude urbanisation in many third world cities. Therefore, the problem is that of balancing available resources with increasing demands Globally, this problem is posed in terms of population, environment and sustainable human development.

In the 1970s, Africa witnessed profound changes on tile question of population in relation to tile level of economic and social development, and this led to a change in attitudes in the face of the increasingly rising population.

In 1984, at the Arusha conference in Tanzania, African leaders decided to tackle the challenges posed by population growth and birth rate by adopting the 'Kilimandjaro Programme of Action'.

Among the recommendations formulated at this conference, it should be noted that:

- The governments were to take appropriate measures to protect and support the family, the basic unit of society;
- Governments and peoples were to recognise the usefulness of family planning and the spacing of births for the well-being of the family;
- Education and motivation were to be accorded particular attention, especially in the rural areas, vis-‡-vis the health, population and social problems arising from family planning;
- Family planning services were to be incorporated into maternal and child health programmes; and
- Family planning was to be integrated with the education of women, men and young people.

The last recommendation explicitly aimed at population and family life education (POP/FLE). In recommending POP/FLE, the 'Kilimandjaro Programme of Action' had among its principal objectives, to improve the standard of living of the people, promote the status of women in society, respond to the needs of specific groups and to help in achieving the objectives defined he the economic and social development plans of African countries.

Population education conceived as a philosophy of human resource development, and considered by all development partners as the response, through the school system, to the various problems associated with population rise: births, deaths, emigration, rural exodus, rapid urbanisation, environmental degradation, size and conception of family, women and development.

In almost all countries, population policies are being endowed with precise institutional and organisational frameworks, backed with appropriate legislation.

In 1990, African countries adopted the Dakar Declaration on Population Education and Development in Africa. This declaration constitutes the skeleton of the African position presented at the first International Congress on Population Education and Development held in Istambul, Turkey, in April 1993.

The Jomtien Declaration on Education for All espouses human-centred development. It urges the:

expansion of the scope of basic education to cope with the complexity. diversity and evolution of the learning needs of children, adolescents and adults (Art 5) Dispensed through formal or informal channels, the Jomtien declarations specified that such education has to do With nutrition, population, agriculture techniques. family life including information on fertility(Jomtien 1990).

UNESCO, right from its inception, has been Evolved in the promotion of POP/FLE through both formal and informal education. Its interventions could come in many forms: elaboration of strategies, development and follow-up programmes, execution of projects in the field, production of teaching aids, organisation of seminars and workshops.

It was in 1968 that UNESCO received the mandate of its General Conference to assist in tackling population problems, and a programme of action specified for her in 1972. The general objective pursued by the institution is:

to increase understanding of the causes and consequences of population changes and their interactions with other aspects of social, cultural and economic life and the environment. as well as their implications on human rights and the quality of life (UNESCO 1993).

UNESCO adopted a global and systematic pedagogical approach which aims at imparting learning, develop behavioural attitudes, establish critical aptitudes and take responsible decisions. The global action is oriented toward the wider public and target groups especially women, parents, young people, development agents, social communicators. Its basic concept has four components: population and development, population and environment, family and community life, sexuality and responsible parenthood. Ongoing activities are being implemented under the framework of the UNESCO Third medium-term Plan 1990-1995, in collaboration with other partners, notably UNFPA. The organisation is engaged in the extension phase of the programmes and institutionalisation of the educational system.

UNESCO works on the principle that population problems be linked to human rights, economic and social development of countries, their cultural integrity and national sovereignty. This is why elaboration of programmes and projects are often preceded by socio-economic studies so as to adapt them to the concrete situation in a given country. The definition of concept, objectives and strategies specific to each country and respond to the expressed needs of the countries concerned.

Socio-cultural realities determine to a large extent the orientation to be given to this education. In Mauritania? for example, the introduction of the POP/FLE is based on knowledge of sacred texts, the interpretations or the thoughts of various schools, and especially the most recent declarations (fatwa) and the most liberal of the El Azhar University or other eminent authorities. In this country, two immediate objectives were assigned to the POP/FLE programmes:

- Reinforcement of management, follow-up and planning of the POP/FLE programme in national institutions;
- Assistance for the creation of institutionalisation conditions for POP/FLE of which the first phase is the preparation of curricula in three disciplines (natural sciences, geography and civic instruction, moral and religious education and the fight against desert encroachment.

In most African countries, a programme on POP/FLE education has been introduced in the school system in one form or the other. The mode of integration of the teaching of population and development in the syllabus vary. In Guinea, the POP/FLE is introduced only in the elementary school. In countries like Togo, Benin, Madagascar, this features at the primary and secondary levels while in such other countries as Burkina Faso, Mauritania, Sao Tome and Principe, this is taught at the secondary school. Others integrate it at the primary secondary and teacher training colleges (Burundi, Niger). Education is interdisciplinary and in some cases, this subject is covered in biology, geography, civic education, home economics and economics in general, among others.

Certain conditions favour rapid progress in the adoption of population policies. Participation of the local population helps ensure the success of the programmes. In the integrated family planning, nutrition and the light against diseases project in Tanzania, acceptance of contraceptives rose from 27 percent he 1984 to 64 percent in 1988, as a result of the active participation of local people in the project. In Ghana where a similar project was introduced, the local people provided support in the form of labour, construction of houses and sometimes through financial contributions for the beginning of the project.

Use of contraceptive methods helps reduce fertility in general. In Mauritius, where the use of this method of birth control is highest he Africa, the Rate of General Fertility dropped from six children per woman in 1962 to two on average in 1987. In this country, the use of contraceptives rose from 46 percent in 1975 to 75 percent in 1987. In Zimbabwe, births per woman dropped from 6.7 in 1969 to 5.5 in 1988. This decline has been attributed to the use of contraception which went up from 38 percent in 1984 to 43 percent in 1988 (ECA 1991). Other examples consenting Tunisia, Botswana, Morocco could also be cited. Today, it is possible to draw lessons from the African experience on population education and development. These lessons point to the progress achieved as well as to the difficulties encountered.

With regards to achievements, it has been noted that the number of countries which have put in place a national programme on population education have considerably increased. Whereas only four countries had elaborated explicit policy on population in 1970, the figure had risen to 38 in 1989. Groups which have a major role to play are showing increasing interest to get involved: teachers who want to be involved in the production of more teaching manuals, parents who want their children enrolled, pupils to be integrated into the pilot projects. Presently, about 6,000 teachers are engaged in teaching the subject in Francophone and Lusophone Africa.

Experience has proved that greater success of population education programmes is achieved when the population is involved in all stages of planning and elaboration. In Tanzania, Ghana, Morocco, Rwanda, Zimbabwe, men participate in discussions on family planning. In a certain number of projects, success rates have been improved by involving the people in their implementation (Ghana, Tanzania, Kenya).

POP/FLE programmes have encountered a number of difficulties and sometimes resistance. The major source of resistance comes from a negative connotation which some groups in society associate with aspects of population education. For some, the programmes appear to be nothing short of family planning. The latter is in turn viewed by some parents and social groups as an imposition from outside to Iimit births. On the other hand, sex education is seen as the root of moral deprivation.

Another source of resistance is religious and philosophical beliefs. Contraception is viewed with a lot of suspicion among some religious circles. Finally, traditional culture and certain practices have a serious impact on the status of family, while fertility among women and the birth of children have diverse ethical interpretations.

Based on the experience acquired at tile eve of national and inter-institutional cooperation, UNESCO, national agencies, the NGOs and other interested partners recently assessed lessons to be drawn from activities in education and information on tile environment, population and development (EPD). A meeting organised by BREDAprovided the opportunity to map out a new pluri-disciplinary integration strategy and inter-institutional cooperation in this region. This strategy aims at harmonising various EPD activities and to realign objectives by focusing them mainly in tile domain of durable development. This initiative wilI end piece-meal applications of tile programmes and non-integrated activities. It has given room for a new common regional perception by drawing up a general framework for interventions on EPD-related matters in sub-Sahara Africa.

A 1995-97 Plan of Action reflections regional consensus has been elaborated. It makes people and quality of life its centre of interest (UNESCO 1995). The objective is to improve the living standards of people through formal and informal education translates into a wider perception of teaming. It conforms fully with the Jomtien Declaration school places emphasis on the rights of every human being to satisfy his or her fundamental right to education and training in other to survive improve tile quality of his or her existence and take informed decisions.

Benin's Experience on POP/FLE

Benin s experience with POP/FLE began with the reform of its educational system in 1972. The school was chosen to conduct this activity because it constitutes the institutional framework with a relatively homogeneous population and because its mission is to prepare the youth for the task donation building mid to inculcate lifelong attitudes. The elaboration of POP/FLE was based on ten problems which the country considered to be priorities in the following domains: population growth, rural exodus, unequal population distribution, the decline of the number of young girls in schools, premature marriages, biases against promotion of women imbalance between the size of families and available resources! sexually transmitted diseases including AIDS, pregnancies and abortions in schools and environmental degradation

Based on these ten stumbling blocks, the authorities established tile content of tile what is to be taught.
These were assembled into tour reference groups: socio-economic development, population, family well-being and population and sexuality. This was further broken up into 22 themes and 43 concepts taught either in nursery, primary or secondary school.

In 1976, with the support of UNFPA and UNESCO, the first phase (1976-1979) of the POP/FLE project was launched. This phase focused on tile identification of the needs of pupils, parents and teachers in such areas as information and training. The second (experimental) phase consisted of integrating POP/FLE into tile extension phase, and it is currently being implemented. An evaluation of the experimental phase made it possible to identify tile strengths and weaknesses of tile project. On its strong points, excellent collaboration with other projects which aimed at achieving similar objectives such as tile 'family well-being project' and the 'population and development Project', were observed. Good results were obtained in research activities and the production of basic documents. In 1991, these efforts helped in tile publication of a teachers handbook which places emphasis on tile method of teaching by objectives. Awareness campaigns based on posters, sketches, songs, etc. also proved to be a success. The project also encountered some difficulties. These had to do with the training of teachers, integration of POP/FLE into traditional programmes, insufficient class periods on the time-table and the absence of, or inadequate teaching materials adapted to the innovation.

Based on the lessons drawl from tile experimental phase, courses and strategy have been restructured. At tile end of tile experimentation, generalisation of POP/FLE was progressively introduced over a period of eight years. Presently, tile project is in its extension please.

Environmental Education

Data released by the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP) on this subject is disturbing. Each year, 25,400 million tomes of materials are swept away by erosion; humankind faces the risk of hosing nearly one-quarter of existing world biological diversity in tile coming 20 to 30 years; about 16.8 million hectares of forests disappear every year: the atmosphere absorbs millions of tonnes of harmful gases (sulphuric oxide, carbon oxide, nitrate oxide, carbon monoxide, etc.). Millions of particles are actually circulating in space; more titan three billion (or 60 percent of the world population) people are threatened by the rise of ocean levels and climatic changes have become a frightening reality (ASESP/NCSS 1994).

On the African continent, environmental degradation is equally threatening. Among the priority problems identified by tile Lagos Plan of Action include: desertification and drought, deforestation and soil degradation. water pollution and the threat on marine resources, human settlements, air pollution, etc. The Lagos Plan of Action recommended tile creation of national programmes on environmental education to African governments, mainly to increase awareness among the people, improve legislation, produce and publicise data to facilitate monitoring of the state of the environment on the African continent. More recently, with the Abuja Treaty, concerns over the problem led African governments to agree to prohibit importation of toxic wastes and to affirm their cooperation trans-border transportations management and treatment of such wastes produced in Africa (OAU 1991 .

The United Nations Conference on Development and Environment (UNCED) held in Rio in 1992, represented a historical moment for the international community to face the challenges posed by human activities and their impact on the environment and increased awareness on the promotion of sustainable and ecologically rational development.

'The Bamako Commitment' summarised the concerns of African governments at the Rio Earth Summit. These are: the non-realisation of food security, which have given rise to problems associated with malnutrition, lack of security of sources of energy, difficulties linked to economic stagnation and productive labour, insecurity and instability of financial resources for development and for improving the quality of life and the living environment.

All these measures point to the greater awareness of African societies of tile inter-relationship between development and the environment. The need for information and training is the educational response to tile challenges posed by the cohabitation of man and nature. The school and other channels of social communication are tile vehicles for this sensitisation.

since the United nations conference on the Environment in Stockholm in 1972, UNESCO committed itself to the international cooperation programme on environment-related education. Cooperation between her and UNEP began during this period. This cooperation was enriched and expanded through tile integration of other institutions like UNDP, FAO and UNFPA. An inter-institutional project is currently being implemented within other projects and programmes of life organisation. The ' Education Project on Information on the Environment and Population for Human Development' adopted an integrated inter-disciplinary approach to these problems.

UNESCO initiated a specific multi-component programme on environment and development called 'Science for Progress and the Environment'. Some of the major international of this programme in Africa fall under 'The Intergovernmental Programme on Man and the Biosphere' (MAB), launched since 1970. This focuses especially on research, observation and demonstration activities. file ultimate objective of the programme is to develop the scientific and technical capacities of African countries to solve problems related to development and the environments.

The strategy and the objectives of education on the environment were clearly articulated in the 1975 Belgrade Charter. This charter specifies that:

education on the environment should consider all aspects of the environment natural and man-made, ecological, political. technological, social, cultural and aesthetically (UNESCO 1977).

According to the Belgrade Charter, such education is to:

> train at the world level a population conscious and concerned with the environment and problems associated with it through knowledge, competence and state of mind, motivation and is sense of commitment. to be able to contribute individually and collectively in resolving current and future problems and prevent them from re-occurring in future

Although awareness on the phenomenon long existed, education on the environment was not always dispensed in an institutionalised, systematic and explicit manner in all African countries. The programmes were often not integrated. Nonetheless, environmental concerns were rife among some people at the various levels of schooling. In Francophone countries, this came he the fond of lessons on observation and nature shady at the elementary school, hygiene, studies of living organisms underscored this training. In the secondary and technical school, courses in biology, botany, economics, agriculture, animal husbandry and home economics, were as much channels for imparting knowledge of the environment.

Anglophone countries tend to adopt an integrated approach to the teaching of science and technology. In the area of non-formal education, many African countries have set aside days or weeks devoted to tree-planting, but often in a random manner. Associations, village organisations, the NGOs are involved in tree-planting campaigns, the fight against bush fires and clean ups.

In the past couple of years, the willingness of states to base their activities on well defined and institutionalised policies are becoming manifest. Several countries now have explicitly designated ministries of Environmental and Protection of nature. In others, the ministries of agriculture serve as the institutional framework for education on the environment. With support from international cooperation, African strategies on environment have been adopted. With the collaboration of the World Bank in particular, National Environmental Action Plans have been put together in many African countries. This plans serve as the framework for the implementation of all activities. The plans articulate major environmental problems in each country, define the policies and institutional measures to be taken as well as the necessary financial resources to tackle them. Several projects prepared within this framework are currently being executed in many African countries.

In the school, this holistic perspective is henceforth the general approach. The strategy of environmental education is centred on the capacity to solve concrete problems, promotion of positive values and the involvement of all age groups.

Within the school context, training aims at developing new attitudes and behaviour among pupils to acquire knowledge which enable them take responsible decisions for the preservation of nature and solve problems associated with environmental degradation.

The experience of the 'CILSS-EEC Training and Information Programme on the Environment' (PFIE) is rich in knowledge on the mobilisation of all segments of society required for educational environment (See the following box).

UNESCO has maintained very fruitful cooperation with sub-regional organisations in this domain. Within the context of the Man and Biosphere Programme (MAB), it has divided the continent into humid, sub-humid, arid and semi-arid zones, and cooperates actively in the domain of education either in the form of seminars and workshops, especially with members states of CILSS, IGAD, SADCC and UMA.

Teacher training and production of teaching materials are the other areas in which UNESCO provides support to African countries. Initial and continuous training activities also forth part of ongoing projects. ln 1991. BREDAlaunched three projects in this regard in Guinea Mauritius and Mauritania.

Thus, general mobilisation on environmental issues through enlarged partnership is taking root across the continent. Village associations, NGOs, parents of pupils and students, and donors are involved in field work in numerous conservation,

preservation and environmental rehabilitation projects.

Box 2: Environmental Education in the Sahel

Within the framework of cooperation between CILSS, the EU and the Sahel Institute, the 'the Training and Information Programme on the Environment' (PFIE) was launched in 1990. The PFIE was established out of the wish of member-states of CILSS to make the educational system an embryo for reflection and action for the protection of the environment and the natural habitat. The programme is part of a more ambitious objective launched by the N'djamena Summit in 1998 designated 'Sahelian Education Programme' (PSE). Its aim is to extend to the elementary (PFIE), secondary (PSE2) and higher school levels in the Sahel region.

Quantitatively, the objectives of PFIE to cover 900 primary schools, l ,800 teachers and 6,0,000 pupils. At the qualitative level, the idea is to turn the school into a privileged tool for the fight against drought, improve the performance of teachers and arouse people's conscience on the need to participate in this fight. The teaching method approach is associative (the teacher and his pupil, the school and its environment, the actors and their partners, regions and states). It is all-embracing and incorporates the environment in many disciplines such as biology, geography, history, agriculture, animal breeding. It is creative and encourages the child to take initiatives, create and innovate. All these are to be achieved through a pragmatic, inductive and experimental strategy.

Areas of PFIE intervention are: information, sensitisation teacher training, preparation of school manuals, support to schools and training and inspiring pupils.

The programme has yielded the following results: in the domain of teacher training, 75 schools with 204 classes have been reached, 218 teachers including 11 females as well as 10,339 pupils including 4,205 girls have been trained. Four teaching aids have been designed at the regional level: demonstration poster boards, a pupils' manual, a methodological and practical guide for teacher training and ecological maps. At the level of each country, several other teaching aids have been produced. In addition, the PFIE provides support which can be technical, teaching and/or financial.

Thus, the PFIE programme achieved the principal objective of its experimental phase which was to prepare conditions under which the school system would take charge of environmental education. It has made accomplishments which should be consolidated before extension and generalisation in all school systems in the Sahel region.

Education for the Prevention of HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Diseases

The AIDS pandemic became public knowledge in the 1980s. The disease quickly assumed alarming proportions. In 1992, it was estimated that about 12 to 13 million people including one million children had been infected by HIV the virus which causes AIDS. At the time, it was estimated that 40 million people world-wide would be infected by the HIV virus by the year 2000, and that an average of one million people will die of AIDS. line out of every three people infected were children. The children were born of infected mothers and were bound to die before the age of five years while the others will become orphans (United Nations 1993). The African continent is the most affected: about 50 percent of infected persons live in Africa, 40 percent in America and the rest in other parts of the globe (UNICEF 1995).

In 1992, the United Nations showed particular interest in the situation in 15 African countries which were the most affected in the world. Data obtained from these countries indicated that their population would drop by 12.4 million (4 percent) as a result of AIDS by the 2005. Between 1985 and 1990, AIDS was responsible for an average of 10 percent rise in mortality rate among all age groups. In tile course of these five years, mortality rate has doubled and even tripled for certain categories of people. Thus, AIDS is in the process of reducing the increase currently being observed in life expectancy.

The AlDS virus particularly infects adults at the height of their productive life: civil servants, teachers, farmers, labourers. It reduces by the same margin the provision of goods and services and contributes in reducing GNP growth and already affects the well-being of peoples.

In the medical field, treatment of patients involves exorbitant expenses and requires that patients be accompanied over a long period. In Burundi and Rwanda, medical expenses devoted to the cure of AIDS patients is more than 10 percent of the national health care budget. In Uganda the figure is over 15 percent. In Zaire, the annual cost of treating AIDS patients varies between 78 percent and 932 percent of per capita GNP. In Tanzania,

the amount ranges between 26 and 238 percent of GNP per capita. These expenses will be much higher in future.

So far, there is no vaccine for the prevention of infection and no drug has yet been discovered for the effective cure of infected people. Changes in sexual attitudes remain tile only means of checking tile spread of the virus. Most African countries have limited means, while existing preventive measures demand considerable resources. Thus, health education on AIDS and STD are tile major ways of combating the disease. The school and other channels of sensibilisation have an important role to play to bring awareness.

The introduction of health education programmes on AIDS in tile school system is relatively recent in many African countries. This was considered as part of health education in general and tile fight against sexually transmitted diseases in particular. Touching on sensitive areas such as sexuality? marital life, morality and sometimes on tile touristic image of the country, the fight against AIDS was initially restricted to statistical information on tile spread of tile disease. Insufficient scientific knowledge about the virus and tile disease as well as lack of teaching aids have been a draw-back on initiatives on tile issue.

In most African countries, the civil society reacted quickly especially by taking care of orphans and assistance to the sick. Many associations and NGOs involved in sensitisation in the fight against AIDS were created. Religious communities also joined in tile mobilisation. governments have intensified efforts by designing information programmes, notably on radio and television as well as by producing posters and providing the general public with a means to protect themselves from danger.

UNESCO intervenes particularly ill the area of production of methodology manuals for use by programme planners, teachers and pupils, as well as tile yearly publication of documents on AIDS and STD. At the end of the 1980s, UNESCO launched a serial publication called 'School Health Education for the Prevention of AlDS and STD' .

In its methodology manual destined for programme planners on tile subject, tile organisation designed a model programme centred on three areas:

- Increase of knowledge about AIDS/HIV and STD;
- Development of aptitudes on tile prevention of AIDS/HIV and STD;
- Change of attitudes; and
- Reinforcing motivation and initiative in support of preventive measures. The manual prepared for pupils/students places emphasis on basic knowledge on everything about AIDS/HIV and STD, promotion of responsible behaviour either through sexual abstinence or safe sexual relationships as well as in the treatment and assistance to patients.

The organisation has equally focused its action on tile training of African communicators and producers of radio and television programmes. The 'Yaounde Week' (28 April-3 May) organised for participants from Cameroon, Congo and tile Central African Republic was aimed at improving public information on health education and the fight against AIDS.

The field of communication is particularly strategic because the radio reaches all segments of tile populations while television amplifies the impact of the action envisaged through pictures.

UNESCO's intervention strategy is based on teaching methods which encourage tile participatory approach urging cohesion among families; young people associations, religious groups and other organisations. The goal is to change attitudes of individuals and groups to adopt rational behaviour and mode of life as well as general mobilisation against AIDS/HIV and STD. Within tile school environment, UNESCO takes into account tile values, attitudes and experiences of young people, as well as information they may have received outside tile school environment.

UNESCO has linked up with other institutions of tile United Nations, notably, the WHO (joint UNESCO/WHO Committee) and UNICEF for better coordination of their actions.

Experiences of African countries in the fight against AIDS/HIV and STD are numerous and varied. In Zambia, as soon as the government recognised that the AIDS epidemic is a serious public health problem, a vigorous awareness campaign was launched countrywide with the theme:

'AIDS KILLS: Only on Man or one Woman for Life'. Through posters and other forms of education campaign, the campaign appealed to the population to fight the spread of AIDS by having only one partner. Two years later, Zambian churches came together and produced a pastoral letter entitled: 'Choose Life'. The message affirmed that the most effective and acceptable way to check the spread of disease was chastity before and after marriage. Many NGOs joined in the campaign for the promotion of pre-marital chastity and conjugal fidelity. Among these were: Family Life Movement of Zambia (FLMZ), the Copper Belt Health Education Programme (CHEP) and the anti-AIDS project sponsors anti-AIDS clubs in schools(WHO 1989).

The funding of anti-AIDS campaign in the schools by Zambian pupils through the creation of anti-AlDS school clubs is a unique initialise. Members are admitted after making three promises: avoid AIDS/HIV, assist parents and friends to protect themselves and help people infected with AIDS/HIV. In two years, more than 200 clubs were in existence, each with its own structure, rules and activities.

In other countries, examples of self-help organisations and NGO groups exist. In Uganda, for example, TASO (The AIDS Support Organisation) is engaged in field work. It tries fight prejudices against AIDS patients, participates in their treatment at home. It also pros ides moral support and organises income-generating, activities.

Among countries in Central Africa, Congo. The Central African Republic and Cameroon. studies on knowledge, attitudes and behaviours vis-‡-vis AIDS have been concluded. In addition, radio/television adverts, programmes for young people and contests on the subject are also available. The Central African radio broadcasts programmes focusing on the mode of transmission of AIDS, counselling for patients and the state of research on the disease.

Health education on AIDS/HIV and STD have however been faced with difficulties. One of these derives from the meagre resources devoted to the health sector as a results of economic crisis. According to the WHO, very few African countries have responded to its appeal that 9 percent of GDP be devoted to the health sector. Available data indicate that in 1990, the share of the health sector of GDP was lower than 2.5 percent in 15 countries in the subregion. The amount ranged from 2.5 percent to 5 percent in 11 countries, and between 5 and 7.5 percent in nine others, while only five countries spent more than 7.5 percent (WHO 1994).

As a result, the financial and human resources required to meet the cost of medical care for AIDS patients makes it difficult to provide funds in other domains: the fight against malaria, expanded programme on Immunisation, mother and child health, construction and maintenance of infrastructures, etc.

Another basic constraint comes from resistance of all forms. This is because the fight against AIDS aims to change attitudes associated with norms, social values and ethical practices as well as traditions and religion. Within the family context, it is not always easy to discuss issues related to sex. Communication between adults and young people is hindered by taboos and diverse prohibitions. However, many African societies are very discreet when it comes to sex and remain very reticent to talk about it. Certain beliefs consider sickness as the handiwork of some evil spirits or a curse. Use of contraceptives is itself being resisted. Education on AIDS/HIV and STD programmes must take all these into consideration. Change in behaviour necessarily takes time.

Furthermore, health education on AIDS/HIV and STD. requires sustained effort and the positive Involvement of all partners in the school system: public authorities, teachers, pupils, parents, religious groups, health workers, associations and NGOs, the media and international cooperation.

Conclusion: The EPD Initiative

Environment and Population Education for Human Development (EPD) today represents a rewarding approach that should link and integrate the other educational programmes discussed in this chapter.

UNESCO is developing this new initiative in response to many appeals for a link-up between population, environment and development programmes. These three domains have the following common characteristics:

- All three emanate from three integrated domains and depend on inputs from several disciplines and subject areas;
- All three aims at solving problems;
- All of them are concerned with human development, though each of them places emphasis on a specific aspect of this development, that is, environment, population, or economic development.

Three major concerns emanate from these three educational domains, each tackled ill a narrow sectorial manner with very weak Iinkage. However, the development process is a whole which can only be effectively realised through multi-sectorial and integrated strategies. This gap between development and sectorial approaches justifies the need for integrated approach, such as the EPD formula which has the following characteristics:

- It brings together all general environment, population and development issues by first giving priority to the multi-sectorial nature of the problems and processes of human development;

- It assembles existing efforts in curriculum development in the three areas of study through a synthesis of their common points;

- It places human activity at the centre of development, itself conceived on the bases of a rational and healthy relationship with the environment;

- It brings to the fore constant interactions between the human being, the quality of life, social development and environmental healths by underlining the need for responsible human action vis-‡-vis the environment and population, as the basis of any sustainable development.

The EPD aims at:

- Sustainable development, taking into consideration the importance of human dignity;
- Improvement of the quality of life and the environment;
- Promotion of a culture of peace, international solidarity and understanding;
- The diversity of life, balance between rational human activities and the need to preserve natural ecosystems;
- A local holistic appreciation of the impact of' the global environment, as well as population changes;
- The initiation of training activities, promotion of individual participation and cooperation between peoples and institutions.

It is ill consideration of these concerns of the EDP that the workshop for the preparation of a global framework of action for Africa defined EPD as:

> A Functional integrated approach based on the socio-cultural realities oaths milieu and which. through information. education. communication and training. tries to develop critical awareness and responsible attitudes to enable individuals and groups to act in a rational manner on population and environmental issues. ill view of a sustained and durable development centred on man.

9 - Science and Technology Education for All

Science and technology are vital to the development of alI societies. If we are to meet the challenges of the 21st century, science and technology must be emphasised in education curricula for all in Africa.

Earlier science and technology programmes in Africa have been designed for the elite. The challenge now is to design a science and technology programme which can be of immediate use to every member of the African society. This 'includes a wide range of target groups: the youth (ill and out of school), street children, handicapped people of all ages, illiterate adults, and also educated adults.

In this context certain key elements have been identified as donning an essential basis for science and technology education for all in Africa.

The first is relevance. This means designing courses that are adapted to the needs of the population. In a science and technology for all programme, teaching must revolve around the immediate community and make use of the immediate environment. There is science ill Africa, and the African environment can be used to teach science. In other words, the programme should contain an element off *familiarity*.

Another necessary element is preparation for change. Science and technology are constantly developing, and teaching programmes roust prepare students for the science and technology of the future. By increasing the emphasis on the development of skills, especialproblem-solving skills, students may be better able to handle technological change. This is also an important skill when it comes to making use of indigenous technology. There are several reasons for introducing indigenous technology into school curricula (cost effectiveness, girls' interest and starting with the familiar and so on). However education must lead to development, and ideally people should be able to improve on these indigenous technologies, thereby improving the quality of their Iives.
The range of activities for which science and technology should be provided must be considered. Stimulating and relevant learning tasks must be provided both for fast learners and for students with learning difficulties.

Preceding the implementation of science and technology programmes, attitudes linked to the word 'technology' roust change. Many policy makers and indeed many grown-ups fear technology a word generalIy associated with computers, video equipment, ant the like. It will therefore be necessary to create an awareness of the meaning of technology for all.

Range, Goals and Targets

In Africa, learning experiences in the Some of knowlege, attitudes, skills and values in both science and technology must be made available to all individuals irrespective of nationality, gender creed, political affiliation or other characteristics.

With this objective in mind, science and technology education for all in Africa should cover the following broad objectives:

- Creating conditions for Africans to pursue a sustained enquiry to understand and master natural phenomena, their causality chains; to increase their ability for systematic reasoning, synthesis, conceptualisation and application of processes and phenomena in nature and society;

- Promoting in Africa greater efficiency in the application of empirical and scientific knowledge to the production of goods and the improvement of services;

- Integrating science and technology more efficiently into existing formal, non-formal and informal educational structures and creating new ones where needed;

- Ensuring that all African people including marginalised groups are involved at different levels in applying science and technology towards development.

Taking into account the existing programmes four key goals have been identified for programmes in science and technology education for all in Africa:

- To equip Africans, irrespective of their present or future career orientations, with basic knowledge, skills, attitudes and values in science and technology which have potential for improving the quality of life in the region;
- To provide a foundation for further education and training in science and technology for those who will ultimately go into careers in science and technology;
- To facilitate social, economic arid political development in the region;
- To increase the pool (in quality and quantity) of scientists and technicians in Africa.

Six key target groups to benefit from science and technology education for all in Africa were identified as:

- In the formal school system science and technology should be an integral part of the primary and secondary education of all children;
- The out-of-school population, children and youth who should have been in school in keeping with the universalisation of education;
- The work force, including vast numbers of functional illiterates;
- The educated adult population; scientists and technicians outside their own field;
- Girls and women, who are usually marginalised;
- People with special needs.

Content of Programmes

The contributions existing national programmes can make towards a detailed curriculum in science and technology education are limited. The differences in the environment as well as the human and material resources available in the various countries of the region make generalisation impossible. However a certain number of criteria and broad themes could guide content selection for the different target groups. Bearing in mind the unique national context in which the programme will be implemented, they are as follows:

- The objectives of the programme for a particular target group;
- The interest, motivation, abilities and other individual or group characteristics of the target group;
- Relevance to the needs of the individuals ill the target group, the needs of the community and national aspirations ill science and technology;
- Practicability contents to be selected should be those that the present and anticipated future economic positions of the adopting countries can support;
- Balance in tends of breadth and depth of content;
- Interdisciplinarity content selection should stress the fundamental unity of the sciences as well as an interdisciplinary approach to the study of technology;
- Man-environment focus contents should focus on the relationships and interactions between man and his environments

Four basic themes have been recommended to further guide the choice of content. The first two, which focus broadly on science education are *The Ways of Science and My Body at Work*. The other two themes, generally focused on technology education, *are Technology in the Service of-Humanity* and *Conserving and Preserving Natural Resonances*.

These themes are intended as guidelines. Developers of programmes for the different target groups may choose to adopt these themes or develop others more suited to their particular context. In establishing the contents of programmes in science and technology education for all in Africa, it is essential to include indigenous technology.

Traditional/indigenous technologies when studied and analysed provide fundamental knowledge and skills that enable the individual to develop interest and understanding in more conventional systems. Understanding and clarification of indigenous technological systems are already being used in the curricula and teaching materials currently being promoted at the primary and secondary educational levels.

Indigenous technology within the African culture deals with processes and materials that encompass the various branches of conventional science such as The objectives of the programme for a particular biology, chemistry, physics, geology, and agriculture, target group; among others.

With further study and elaboration of identified technologies in Africa, adequate materials will be made available for science and technology education for all. Such materials would have the advantage of being familiar, accessible, and adequate to provide the knowledge, skills and attitudes to further influence the evolution of traditional technologies from static to dynamic technologies. This evolution in indigenous technology will contribute to the economic and social emancipation of individuals and communities and promote development. Present-day experience with science curriculum development and teaching indicates that most African economies cannot provide the amount and extent of materials required for science and technology education (STE) if these countries were to depend upon imported or modern industrially manufactured products. As financial resources for basic education become scarce due to economic problems at the national, regional and global levels, the development of indigenous materials for STE for all should go a long way in facilitating STE for all.

Programme Implementation Strategies and Essential Human and Material Resources

It has been noted that many good science and technology programmes in Africa have not been successfully implemented. Ale such example is the Programme d'Enseignement des Sciences en Afrique (PESA). Also, despite the fact that it is often pointed out as an example of a successful programme, the integrated science education programme of Nigeria is still struggling to overcome a number of hurdles. Seven obstacles were described by professor T.A. Balongun during a workshop seminar held in May 1992 at the College of Education of the University of Ibadan as follows:

Flaws in the new programmes themselves Many programmes at both the primary and secondary levels have been overly ambitious, sued numb projects have been unrealistic in setting their objectives.
Poor planning It is debatable whether this can be applied to any of the various projects.
Lack of training. or insufficient training Very few primary school teachers are capable of teaching integrated science in an enlightened manner. Furthermore, a certain number of teachers' colleges and a handful of university teaching departments are only now beginning to commit themselves seriously to preparing secondary school teachers with specialised training in integrated science teaching.

Lake of resources Much remains to be done in terms of improving the learning environment in primary schools and the lower forms in secondary schools. However, part of the problem stems from a certain lack of imagination on the part of some teachers. Key should make an effort to explore the resources in their environment that could be directly used to teach science.

Incompatibility with the practices and values put for - ward by the people choosing the programmes This is vital . Our teachers need to identify and redirect their values.
Lack of teacher commitment Many of our teachers would be more effective if they were more committed to teaching integrated science. Without teacher commitment success can only be partial at best.
Lack of a monitoring system A supervisory system would be useful in order to provide assistance, support and action, and maintain links with resources, resolve conflicts, discourage disagreements, and solicit the participation of those who choose the programmes, etc., in order to maximise the impact of integrated science education programmes.

Given these past failures, effective implementation strategies must be formulated and essential human and material resources provided in order for future programmes in science and technology education in Africa to succeed. It is also worth while to mention that science and technology education should be integrated into the entire educational and development systems of African countries. Six key factors have been identified to help accomplish this goal.

The first factor is the transition from an elitist educational system towards an educational system that is embraced by the whole community. The educational systems h1 most African countries tend to alienate the beneficiaries from their own communities which they are supposed to serve. Consequently, the communities do not benefit from their investments in human resources. This trend must be changed. rifle education system must be set up in such a way as to allow local people's participation in it from its inception, and schools must contribute to promoting awareness of science and technology among the general population.

The second factor is the integration of science and technology in the African environment. Incorporating science and technology education for all as a normal aspect of learning for all in the African environment will require its integration into the ordinary course of life in the cultural and physical environment. A consequence of this relationship will be the acceleration of the effects of productive learning through science and technology that may eventually enhance the evolution of

traditional Africa towards modernity.

The third factor is the creation of a science education capacity building structure. Because science and technology for all is a medium and long term goal, it is necessary to create institutions which can accommodate all the various orientations of education, research and strategic forecasting and planning at levels comparable to the best in the world.

With this goal in mind, African institutions should make long term deliberate efforts to improve on their performance. these centres should reach the highest international levels and constitute a source of innovations in, for and by Africa. New institutions should also be created and their course structures diversified to meet the new requirements of integrating science and technology in everyday life.

Science and technology education for all in Africa should have a favourable impact on the region's large non-formal sector. Towards this end, inspiration can be drawn from regional and international programmes in science and technology dissemination.

Successful experiments in the form of science parks and exhibitions, Junior Engineers, Technicians and Scientists (JETS), and science club activities in Zambia, Nigeria, Kenya, Burkina Faso, Cote d'lvoire and Ghana are often referred to.

Outside Africa, a number of success stories can be noted. These include the Royal Institute in the UK; the French Palais de la Decouverte and the Science and Industry city of la Villette which host some three to four million visitors a year; and finally the Tsukuba Science city in Japan which hosted the International Science and Technology exhibition in 1985, visited by more than twenty million people.

Along similar lines to the above, science and technology museums, and science and technology exhibitions or science and technology weeks could be introduced in African countries or reinforced where they are already in place, such as the insect exhibition in Burkina Faso.

The fourth factor is setting priorities for the allocation of resources. Due to the financial problems faced by Africa as a whole there is a perpetual tendency of not giving top priority to science and technology programmes. However, since this type of education is closely linked with upgrading human resources.- it should be considered a priority for the reallocation of what few resources are available. Given the need for human resources for science could technology for all, intensive training and refresher courses for teachers must be started. All teacher training institutions must be equipped to train teachers especially in the area of environmental education. In some cases, teacher training should be carried out at regional levels to share experiences and at the same time realise economies of scale.

The regional dimension is also crucial to science and technology education . Scientific and technological development have not been uniform ill African countries. In some countries, there have been deliberate efforts to foster a systematic relationship between scientific practice and technological application with the aim of strengthening national technological capacity. These countries have set up production centres old units within the educational sector for scientific end technological equipment and educational materials. White pursuit the overall objectives of science and technology for all, it will be necessary for other African countries to share experiences with these production centres.

These production centres are found in a number of countries: the Federal Science and Equipment Manufacturing Centre of Enugu, Nigeria; the Science and Equipment Production Unit (SEPU), in Nairobi, Kenya; the Science and Technology Equipment Production Unit (STEPU), in Kampala, Uganda; the Zimbabwe Science Project (ZimSc); the Centre de production de materiels didactiques (Teaching Material Production Centre) in Bouake, Cote d' I voire: the Atelier de conception et de production de materiels didactiques de l'ENS (ENS Teaching Material Design and Production Workshop) in N'Djamena, Chad; and the National Science Centre in Lusaka, Zambia (Project ZAM/86/007). Ethiopia also has a science and technology equipment production unit he Addis Ababa, etc., etc.

Despite the existence of these production centres, the promotion and distribution of teaching materials

continues to pose a major problem due to insufficient government support, small-scale national markets, (except for Nigeria), communication problems and language barriers.

In most African countries, teachers have been made aware of the need to 'improvise' materials, and demonstrations and training sessions in improvisation have been organised. However, incentives ought to be set in place in order to encourage progress in this area. For example, in Mali and Chad, classes in producing teaching materials from locally available resources have been included in the training programmes for primary school teachers and lower fond secondary school teachers. This is also the practice in Nigeria, Ghana, and sierra Leone.

Conclusion

Innovations in science and technology education have been particularly stressed since MINEDAF V in 1982. This aspect of educational policy is currently the focus of intense interest and it affects alI levels of education, including basic education, as indicated in Recommendation No. I of MINEDAF Vl. In keeping with the spirit of the Jomtien conference, UNESCO has developed the Science 2000+ Project in order to meet the growing need for popularising science and technology education among the general population. In 1993, the African region first drafted a global implementation project for an African version of the 2000+ project, now known as POPSTAFRIC (Popularisation of Science and Technology in Africa).

In the overall context of UNESCO's 'Science 2000+' project, POPSTAFRIC seeks to make science and technology education available and useful to the different age groups and social classes found in African countries, in order to form a solid basis for a scientific and technological culture in the region by the year 2000. More specifically, POPSTAFRIC pursues the following objectives:

- Developing supplementary reading material on basic concepts in science and technology and their application, to be used in primary (and post-primary) education in English, French and Kiswahili;

- Organising Science and Technology Clinics for girls in certain African countries which have demonstrated particular interest; five in West Africa (Nigeria, Ghana, Cote d' Ivoire, Senegal and sierra Leone), two in Central Africa (Cameroon, Congo), and six in Eastern and Southern Africa (Kenya, Zimbabwe, Namibia, South Africa, Lesotho and Tanzania);

- Developing audio-visual material highlighting the methods and applications of science and technology for use by the out-of-school population in countries with highly developed national literacy and non-formal education programmes (Ethiopia, Tanzanian Guinea, Mali, Botswana). This material would be developed in the principal languages used in teaching and literacy training in those countries.

Within the scope of its 1994-95 programme, BREDA has cooperated with various countries in the region ill carrying out planned activities which serve to further promote large-scale participation in the project.

With the completion of four sub-regional training-the-trainers workshops in 1995, the moment is now ripe for more intensive work at the national level.

10 - Higher Education

This chapter focuses on higher education in Africa. It examines the concept of higher education, describes its present state in the African region, dwells on the current problems militating against effective development of higher education in the region and suggests some solutions.

Concept of Higher Education

In a broad sense, higher education is education at the tertiary level provided to all sorts of persons who have completed al I forms of secondary education. In Africa, learners have a wide spectrum of higher education possibiIities (UNESCO 1994) . For instance, they could be admitted to a conventional university (e.g. University of Ibadan, Nigeria) to pursue a career in arts, humanities, science, medicine, or a specialised university (e.g. Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Nigeria) to pursue a career in agriculture. There are also possibilities of being admitted to a 'grands ecole', polytechnique, or college of education. Other forms of higher education in the continent include those for training secretaries, nurses, police and military officers, agricultural and forest officers.

Box 3: The Wide Spectrum of Higher Education Institutions in Benin

The training institutions of the National University of Benin may be divided into three categories based upon the type of training provided and not upon the date of their establishment:

Vocational Training Institutes

Two levels of training are generally available:

Level I: Covers a period of 3 years after the secondary school (equivalent to the British 'A' level or the American freshman year of college). Graduates qualified to become junior or mid-level administrator/executives.

Level II : Covers a period of 2 years after the level 1. Graduates qualified to become senior executives or managerial staff.

There are two exceptions to these training programmes:

graduates qualified as agronomists or doctors after two training cycles covering a total period of 5 years and 7 years respectively.

The institutes included in this category are:

The University Polytechnical Institute (College polytechique universitaire, CPU) a three year post secondary school programme.

The Teacher Training College (Ecole normale superieure ENS), the Integrated teachers training College offers both levels (I and II) after the secondary school for training as secondary school teachers.

The National Institute for Physical Education and Sports (Institut National de l'Enseignement de Education physique et sportive, INEEPS) offers a level I three year programme intended for holders of the 'O' level or the American 10th grade level; also secondary school certificate.

The National School of Public Administration (Ecole Nationale d'Administration, ENA) post secondary school levels I and 11 training in public administration.

The National Institute for Economic Studie's Institut national d'Economie, INE), Levels I and II for training managerial staff/executives in the field of Economics.

The Faculty of Agronomy (FSA).

The Faculty of Health Sciences (FSS).

The National Institute of Social Workers (ENAS): a three-year post 'baccalaureat' programme for training social workers.

Non-Vocational Training Institutes

These are classical-oriented faculties. Students with the secondary school certificates or equivalent diplomas can seek admission, without taking entrance exams to the university system. During the first year, no scholarships are awarded, but a form of annual government subsidy is available. Successful entry into the second year entitles students to scholarships. There are two levels of studies available:

Level 1: Two years post secondary school

Level 2: Two years after level 1.

Students are allowed to repeat only one year during the level I stage. The faculties in this category are:

Science and Technology; Arts and Social Sciences; Law, Political and Economic Sciences.

Para- and Post-University Institutions

The purposes of these institutions are to ensure that the education/training provided matches the needs of specific labour markets. They are:

The Benin Centre for Foreign Languages (Centre beninois des langues etrangeres, CBELAE): Its current programme offers French language training for English-speaking candidates.

The Regional Institute for Public Health, an international institution of the WHO.

Source: UNESCO-BREDA (1994), Suture Directions for Higher Education in Africa pp. 9-10.

The illustrations so far have been centred on formal types of higher education. There could also be the non formal type as suggested by UNESCO (1994). In this type of higher education, 'mature persons are organised for building up their knowledge and skills and to apply the knowledge to the analysis and search for solutions of life problems'. In most cases, the mature persons are supposedly future leaders. Non-formal type of higher education can be illustrated using the activities of the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) and the Nigerian Institute for Policy and strategic Studies (NIPS).

It is however important to mention that ill Africa, formal university training is perceived to be at the centre of higher education. This could be attributed to the two major functions of the university:

- Teaching for the training of high level manpower in every field; and
- Conducting applied and basic research for Solving economic and social problems of the society.

Other higher education institutions do not train higher level manpower in every field, and for all practical purposes do not conduct research. It is against this background that subsequent discussions and illustrations on higher education in Africa are to be focused on the universities.

State of Higher Education

The first university in Anglophone Africa was located in Fourah Bay, sierra Leone. It started as a university college that prepared students for degrees of the university of Durham in United Kingdom as of 1876. For more than seven decades, Fourah Bay college had a regional character and produced graduates that served the Anglophone West African countries. In 1948, four other universities started as campuses of university of London in Legon (Ghana), Ibadan (Nigeria), Makerere (Uganda), and Harare (Zimbabwe). Each of these university campuses also had a sub-regional character. For instance, Makerere campus produced graduates that served the whole East Africa.

The Francophone universities evolved from being direct appendages of specific faculties and universities in France to full-fledged national universities. Their faculty structures are identical and they tend to have some cohesion through the conference des Ministres de l'Education (CONFEMEN) (Conference of Ministers of Education) and the Association des Universites Partiellement et Entierement de Langue Francaise (AUPELF).

The situation in the 1990s has changed drastically. Most African countries have more than one university as could be seen in the cases of Nigeria, Ghana, Senegal, Zambia, Tanzania, Kenya, Zimbabwe. 'The Nigerian situation is such that the number of universities increased from 1 in 1948 to 34 in 1992. However, countries like Cape Verde, Equatorial Guinea and Guinea Bissau are yet to establish university institutions.

University education in Africa lacks identity and direction (UNESCO, 1994). This situation could be attributed to some of the unresolved vital issues on university education: the position of university education in the current scheme of things the pattern it should take, whether it should admit everybody who completes secondary education, its contemporary roles in African society and its future roles, and how it can complement other forms of higher education. Over the years, university education appears to have very vague targets and action plans that are usually associated with one redone or another. Most of these reforms are just paper declarations. There is therefore a need to resolve the fore-raised issues on university education, a need to bridge the gap between thought and action, and a need to go beyond these paper declarations (reform documents) on university education in Africa (Obanya, 1989).

There is explosion in student enrolment since the 1 970s (Thiam, 1992). In fact, between 1970 and 1988, sub-Sahara Africa witnessed higher student explosion in her universities than in any other part of the world.

University institutions environments are very complex because of the rapid changes in African societies in recent years. Francophone African universities operate a centralised system of decision-making while in the Anglophone universities, the system involve management by committee models.

There is constant interference by national authorities in the selection of principal officers of the universities, and even at times in the selection of students.

University students still remain a highly privileged class when compared with members of the wider society.

There are constant strikes by students and lecturers for increased student allowances, improved learning environment and conditions of service, need for democracy and fundamental human rights, correct priorities by African/national governments, and relevant form of education which leads to employment of students (See following Box):

Box 4: Students' Cry for Democracy in Universities

Give us Back Academic Freedom

One of the greatest problems that has afflicted Africa as a result of dictatorial tendencies of African leaders to whom dissent is anathema is the endemic muzzling of academic freedom.

As a champion of democracy and human rights, I am perturbed by the systematic erosion of the academic freedom in institutions of higher learning.

Universities have been transformed into rubber-stamp academic institutions by the Goverment, which has monopolised leadership for over 28 years.

Over the years, lecturers who appeared to have an ideology that is in conflict with the official version were harassed and hauled into detention. Countless academicians have been subjected to more than their fair share of intimidation by the regime.

The most disgusting thing which falls the academic community to the bone is the tendency of the Government to flood informers in our campuses to monitor the activities of students with a view to victimising those who appear to be critical of Government.

this muzzling of academic freedom in our universities has cost a lot in social and economic tern s. since the intimidation of students ensures that they think in the line that the Government is thinking, it means therefore that they do not contribute effectively to the academic growth of this country.

The harassment of lecturers also means that most of them leave the country for security reasons, and in the process, the issue of brain drain comes in.

Source: UNESCO-BREDA (1994)

Agitation (strikes) within the universities are usually repressed by authorities within and outside the universities without attempts to understand the causes of the agitations and how they could be prevented (UNESCO, 1994).

The universities operate with minimal humans material and financial resources. Both internally and externally sourced resources are on the decline (e.g. textbooks, journals, chemicals, etc.). In most cases, the available resources are mismanaged.

Generally, the universities do not plan ahead. They do not adequately forecast needed human, material and financial resource input and they do not effectively mobilise the needed resources. When resources come in, they are used regardless of carefully worked-out rules and regulations.

The economic, political and social situations in Africa have introduced brain-drain phenomenon in African universities, the exodus of the most experienced and the most trained intellectuals in the areas of dire need (e.g. computer science, engineering, medicine) to universities in developed countries and the Gulf states.

The efforts of the universities in producing high level manpower appear to be inadequate. There are current indications that sub-Sahara Africa has fewer scientists and engineers per million of population than any other region in the world (UNESCO, 1994). In terms of quality, the study of Amonoo (1988) titled 'Falling Standards in African Universities: An Exploratory Survey of Non-vocational Areas of Higher Education' and commissioned by the Association of African Universities (AAU) expresses it in the following words:

The hypothesis of falling standards in African universities has been upheld by the majority opinion among the senior African academics, of ten years standing and more.. . There is awareness of declining standards in some disciplines in some universities. The evidence adduced is mostly the lowering of entry requirements. the better candidates opting for job-oriented courses, the intellectual passiveness of students and their performance at examinations. The causes of the decline are the poor pre-university background.... the lack of facilities, books and equipment.

lectures are not functioning lit their best level because they cannot concentrate sufficiently on their work, for economic reasons. The lack of facilities hampers research endeavours and good lecturing.

The solutions best Savoured are: improving the living conditions for staff and students. ensuring appropriate academic facilities and giving incentives.

There are other indicators (e.g. Thiam, 1992) that:

higher education in Africa does not play ids full part today. and that both the quality of the intellectuals and the pedagogical and scientific standards of the such education have to some' extent declined in recent years (SIC).

The universities are also characterised by shortage of didactic material and basic equipment, lack of relevance of the curriculum to the real environment, lack of mutual recognition of titles, grades and diplomas, lack of guidance and counselling policies that consider development needs as well as student aptitudes and abilities, high failure rates in the early years, and poor conditions of service particularly the status and remunerations of the teaching staff (UNESCO, 1992; Namuddu and Tapsoba, 1993).

There are on serious efforts to establish the much needed link between the universities, the economy and the society (UNESCO, 1994). For instances the relationship or cooperation existing between the universities and employers of future graduates is Weak a situation that results in critical imbalance in the distribution of enrolment by discipline and corresponding levels of societal needs. There are also indicators (see UNESCO, 1992) that graduates of African universities find it difficult to get integrated in the world of work and in the process of self-development.

There is serious gender disparity in student enrolment in African universities. Alele Williams (1992) estimated it to be closer to 1:7 female to male ratio. talc wide disparity could still be observed in the enrolment into various disciplines However, the number of females in the universities increases at an average annual rate of about 10 percent. Despite this, females do not account for more than 30 percent of the total student enrolment in the universities. As indicated by Lamptey (1992), 'female participation rates in higher education in Africa (student enrolment) continues to be the lowest in the world'.

There is also a skewed distribution of sexes in teaching, research and management in African universities. The disparity tends to favour males. The gender disparity could be attributed to a lot of constraints militating against women's education and participation in university teachings research and management (Alele Williams, 1992; Lamptey, 1992): cultural and religious factors, sociological and economic factors, government policy. and educational factors.

Generally, African universities are poor financed. They are essentially governmentt-funded and the funding goes to pay salaries. There is therefore very minimal funds for effective research. Usually, the researches lack relevance to societal needs particularly the development of graduates that can participate effectively in the field of material wealth production through intellectual work (Laroui, 1993).

There is also minimal cooperation among universities between and within African countries with the aim of' maximising the use of scarce human and material resources in the continent.

Problems in Higher Education

A critical review of the situation of higher- education in Africa would reveal that it is in a state of crises. The problems are interrelated and need urgent solutions. In this section, attempts are made to identify the problems and to proffer solutions to them.

The lack of direction and identity associated with university education in Africa poses a problem. For instances it makes it difficult for higher education in general to initiate and sustain an authentic educational and socio-economic development in the region.

The explosion in student enrolment and the rapid changes in African societies have turned university environments into very complex structures in fact, too complex for university authorities to massage effectively.

The centralised system of university governance where power and authority are concentrated in tow hands poses problems that border on mismanagement and abuse of public offices. On the other haled. the management-by-committee systems tend to unduly slow down decision-making.

It is generally believed that some senior officials of universities do not command the respect of their peers within the university community because these officers are usually imposed On the university communities by external authorities.

The constant agitation by students and workers within the universities disrupts virtually every university programme, Some universities (e.g. those ill Senegal and Nigeria) tend to loose as much as a

full academic year due to such agitations.

The problems of diminishing resources, inappropriate management of the little available resources and the general planlessness associated with universities in Africa pose problems of physical dilapidation which might lead to intellectual dilapidation. The brain drain phenomenon has negative effects on university teaching, research and administration.

There is also the problem of relevance in that university education in Africa seem not to be directed towards providing for the real needs of African societies. For instance, the fact that teaching and research in higher Institutions are not directed towards producing graduates who can solve societal problems particularly production of material (consumable) wealth makes members of the society to doubt the quality of the university programmes. Unlike their counterparts in developed countries, African universities have to show practical and immediate results (with respect to solving societal problems) to justify their existence (Amonoo 1992).

The poor remunerations associated with university teaching and research is demotivating. These staff members have to search for other means of survival to cushion the economic hardship in the society. The absence of effective guidance and counselling policies in the university admission processes reduces the efficiency of the universities in providing for the societal needs.

The poor state of cooperation among universities militates against setting up centres of excellence as recommended by the Special Programme for the Improvement of Higher Education in Africa (cf. Recommendation 8.2 MINEDAF V).

These problems could be resolved along the following lines(UNESCO, 1992; 1994):Policy makers in higher education in Africa need to exercise a strong political will. They also need to develop policies that would suit the prevailing socio-economic climate in the region.

There is a need for persons to be appointed to the posts of authority especially vice chancellors and registrars to undergo special training in management of hi“ institutions. Such training programmes should pay special attention to human relations, effective communication, student governance, student unionism, trade unionism.

Each university should be given a free hand to develop a procedure for selecting principal officers that are acceptable to members of the university community.

Attempts should be made to study the factors leading to constant agitations within the universities in order to proffer preventive remedies. There is a need for further dialogue, cooperation and understanding among all members of the university community.

There is a need to develop more long-term policies, a need for improved management within the institutions based on strategic planning, and a need for African countries to reprioritise and minimise waste. In addition, private sectors, national government and international agencies should endeavour to utilise the various skilIs that are available in African universities.

University teaching and learning should be more practice-oriented, directed towards analysing societal problems as welI as towards producing resourceful and creative individuals who can generate employment opportunities.

Guidance and counselling policies that cater for societal development needs as well as students' abilities and aptitudes should be an integral part of efforts to provide access to higher education institutions.

Women should be encouraged, with policy formulations, material and academic incentives, to gain access to higher education institutions. Higher education personnel should be provided with a more motivating status through more attractive remunerations.

Cooperation among higher education institutions in Africa should be seriously pursued and geared towards setting up centres of excellence since this will enhance the pooling of human and material resources together.

African governments should see the development of higher education as a major priority. The institutions should diversify their sources of funding

through outreach programmes involving industrial establishments, consultancies, among others.

In fact the l990s have become well known for the incidence of invalid academic years. Universities in Kenya were closed for most of 1993-94 due to strikes by teachers and students. Nigeria in 1992-93 experienced a succession of strikes by members of the academic staff, the non-academic staff and then students. In Senegal, the 1993-94 academic year was declared 'invalid', as students did not attend courses for the statutory minimum number of lecture hours. Congo could not operate its science faculty in 1994-95, as the facilities were destroyed in the course of student agitations. July-August 1995 was marked in Zimbabwe by teacher and student crises. The situation at the middle of the 1990 decade was in fact one in which everyone breathed a sigh of relief wherever an academic year was saved from trouble.

Conclusions

Nothing in this chapter should be construed to mean that higher education in Africa has not recorded any tangible achievements. Despite all the crises higher education is facing in Africa, it has aided socioeconomic development. Some of the research conducted in African universities have helped in solving societal problems. The universities have also produced large numbers of graduates who serve the continent and the world in general in various capacities. The uprising generated by the universities have contributed to the current drive for greater democratisation on the continent.

One area that has received serious considerations since the beginning of the 1 990s is the training of university personnel as *managers* and as *teachers*. UNESCO and the AAU (Association of African Universities) have been particularly active in these areas. Training in higher education management was the major focus of UNESCO's PRIORITY AFRICA sponsored activities for Rectors, Presidents and Vice-chancellors in*Accra*, *Dakar*, and *Alexandria* (1991-1993). Specialised workshops were also organised for the purpose by UNESCO/BREDA and AAU in 1990-1992 for Francophone countries at CESAG (Centre Africain des Sciences de Gestion) in Dakar, and for Anglophones at ESAMI (Eastern and Southern African Management Institute) in Tanzania.

After a series of pedagogic training in Ibadan, Nigeria (1990), Franceville, Gabon (1991) and Cotonou, Benin (1992), the idea of African universities establishing specialised units for pedagogical counselling of lecturers has began to gain ground. At a review workshop (UNESCO-AAU), November, 1994) it was possible for such specialised units to exchange experiences and to chart the course of their future cooperation.

UNESCO, AAU and DAE (Donors to African Education) created in the early 199Os to coordinate donor support for the development of education in Africa has given a great impetus to in-depth studies on the problems of higher education in Africa. Thus, the period 1990-95 published 'Future Directions for Higher Education in Africa', and numerous other prospective studies on such subjects and the financing of higher education, women in higher education, university-productive sector linkages and the university in Africa by the year 2000 and beyond.

The issue of the future of higher education in Africa remains a very hot one. It was the subject of in-depth discussions at the AAU conference of heads of African universities in Lesotho in January 1995. A major concern of that conference (which has been a recurring one since the 1980s) is that of the relationship between the university and the education sector as a whole. African governments are beginning to see higher education reform in this light. Related to this is the notion of *universi - te de developement* (University geared towards the needs of development). Both ideas are likely to be experimented upon with greater vigour in the years to come.

A very salutary development in the last couple of years is the renewed donor community interest ill higher education. Early in the 1990s there was so much talk about the cost-ineffectiveness of higher education. There was also a tendency to misinterpret the Jomtien recommendations as meaning an abandonment of higher education. These misconceptions are, fortunately, giving way to a conception more in fine with the view of UNESCO and of MINEDAF Vl that the strengthening of basic education does not preclude continuing attention to issues related to higher education.

11 - Research in Education

This chapter examines the concept of research in education (its nature and purpose) and describes its current state in African region (i.e., the prevalent educational research climate). It also reviews the stumbling blocks to conducting effective educational research in Africa, and suggests a number of remedial actions with a view to making research in education serve its real purpose for African societies.

Concept of Research in Education

Generally, educators are professionals who are interested in the continuous improvement of educational systems. These professionals achieve this mainly through systematic inquires geared towards surveying, observing, collecting information, analysing and reporting issues of educational interest in order to build up knowledge, develop insight and solve educational problems. It is this process of systematic inquiries on educational issues that is termed research in education.

A typical research in education might seek to evaluate the viability of some investments in education, determine the extend to which certain factors (psycho-social, personal, economic) explain learning outcomes in science, undertake a critical analysis of policies and their influence on the school system and survey the classroom interaction patterns of pre-service and practising teachers, etc.

Research in education should explore ways and means of making education to effectively contribute to the overall socioeconomic development of a society. It should provide the basics for improving the educational process itself. It should also target at the improvement of skills, insight, knowledge and values of the individual researcher, teacher, student, policy maker, and in fact all consumers of educational products.

State of Educational Research in Africa

There are many research institutions in Africa. However, these institutions are concerned mainly with socio-economic and cultural research with minimal commitment to research for educational purposes. Research in education is mainly conducted by university institutes of education and departments of education. In countries where separate curriculum development centres have been established (e.g. Uganda The Gambia, Kenya, Nigeria, sierra Leone), the centres tend to lack research capacity (e.g. lack of qualified staff, physical space, research equipment, publication facilities, fund). In some cases, as in Cote d'lvoire, the few available staff also lack orientation (Fyle, 1993) since they would prefer to conduct research on issues of interest to their colonial masters. Namuddu and Tapsoba (1993) also reported that generally, French speaking countries of Africa tend to 'lack a tradition of educational research in areas other than pedagogy'.

There is a great demand for syllabus development and teacher training. This must have made many African countries to establish curriculum development centres. However, these centres do not get really involved in various aspects of educational research because of their main concern for solving the problem of teacher-shortage which is common among African states.

Educational research is still not accorded due attention in many African countries while the regional and sub-regional organisations in Africa lack institutional capacity to make invaluable research contribution to the development of the continent. These organisations include the African Curriculum Organisation (ACO), the African Bureau of the Sciences of Education (BASE) in Zaire, the African Social and Environmental Studies Programme (ASESP) in Kenya, the Regional Centre for Functional Literacy in Arab

States, based in Egypt, and the Pan-African Institute for Development based in Cameroon. Idle institutional capacity needs of these presupposedly research based organisations include fund, quality staffing, adequate infrastructure and communication facilities.

There is a big gap between research on 'what to teach' and research on flow to teach'. Perhaps African educators are not aware of the scope and importance of these distinct aspects of research in education. After all, the Sweat to teach' and the 'how to teach constitute the two central concerns of an educational process. As Fyle (1993) puts it, most African states tend to lay emphasis on 'what to teach', while flow to teach' has been almost entirely neglected. There is a lot for research to do on 'how to teach' that is rooted in African traditional methods and techniques.

Research is not carried out at all levels of professional activities in education.-That is, the practitioners in the field of education (classroom teachers school administrator, school inspector, education systems administrator, teacher trainer and professional researcher) do not carry out their daily activities Using the expected systematic approaches.

African countries have inadequate educational research capacity. That is, the countries are lacking in technical and skilled human power, as well as in the physical development of various research institutions. According to Gichuru (1993), the research institutions are characterised by poor libraries and documentation centres and lack of modem research equipments such as computers, photocopiers, fax machines, typewriters, etc.

In as much as research institutions in Africa have a good number of researchers who hold post-graduate degrees, the practical worth of their certificates (diplomas) appear to be very low. This opinion is derived from the fact that most of these senior researchers with paper qualifications have problems with research methods (Namuddu and Tapsoba, 1993) an indication that diplomas alone do not suggest high research capacity. Again, the curriculum of graduate students in education does not emphasise research activities. Instead, emphasis is on the training of specialists in various disciplines but not research. As reported by Namuddu and Tapsoba (1993). these students graduate as masters and PhD degree holders without an adequate grasp of research as a habit. The curriculum also does not regard policy analysis as a special area of training that requires emphasise Perhaps, one call attribute this situation to the relatively young Western educated with their associated scientific research procedures. Not only this, the battered economy of African nations coupled with the poor management of the financial, material and human resources in these nations can not cope with any meaningful progress in educational research and policy analysis.

The research climate in Africa (the political, social, cultural and philosophical context in which research is conducted in Africa) is far from being conducive for effective development of research in education. This view point was illustrated by Mwiria (1992) and Gichuru (1993) when they noted that cultural inhibitions of Africans (e.g. tendency to hide information) tend to make them to either put off researchers or provide them with wrong information. Again, the serious economic hardship in Africa's states has developed a culture of self-satisfaction and corruption among the people roost of whom see research as a means of making money. The researchers and the users of research (including policy makers in education) would thus expect to be paid for cooperating With researchers. These educational researchers in Africa are often paid very low salaries (Namuddu and Tapsoban 1993).

Some of the educational researches carried out in Africa, though good and thorough do not seem to have direct impact on educational policies and systems. Obura (1993) cited some of the researches carried out in Kenya as examples to support this view. They include the insightful work of Maku (1985) on the costing of essential school facilities, the work of Kagia (1985) on women's education and the work of Sifuna (1989) on technical education.

Collaborative research is yet to be pursued with rigour. Closely related to this is the observation that in the continent, the dissemination and reading of research findings have been very inadequate and the application of research results has been very limited. Okpala (1988), Eshiwalli (1993) and Beckley (1993) had illustrated these

views by citing cases of Nigeria, Kenya and sierra Leone respectively where many completed research reports gather dust on library shelves of many universities and research institutes. The research report of Namuddu and Tapsoba (1993) also expressed that in Africa, very little communication takes place between research centres within the countries or with research centres in other countries.

The kind of research that tends to influence educational policy and practice in Africa includes research for planning and instrumental research (Beckley 1993). These types of research are usually contracted or commissioned. Funds are therefore provided for large scale dissemination of research results. Such research projects that have been able to influence educational policy and practice include the Bunumbu Project in sierra Leone, sponsored by UNDP/UNESCO and the Educational Imbalance Project in Nigeria, commissioned by the Federal Military Government of Nigeria.

Beckley (1993) also identified some of the factors that influence utilisation of research in policy formulation and classroom practice in Africa. They include the increasingly unhealthy socio-economic trends in the continent, increased attention to the role of African universities in national development, the interest of multi and bilateral donor agencies in the search for solutions to African educational problems, situational factors (e.g. global interest in certain issues) and factors of necessity, urgency and genuine concern.

In most African countries, governments acknowledge the importance of research in education although they shy away from providing financial support for education research. As reported by Namuddu and Tapsoba (1993), donor agencies support represents a sizeable portion of the total research expenditure in sub-Sahara Africa (74 percent for bilateral donors; 20 percent for multilateral institutions; and 6 percent by private foundations). This is illustrated in Table 29. However, most of this support is for improving food production capacity, alleviating population pressure and stopping environmental degradation, as against strengthening research in education.

Constraints on African Educational Research

A review of the state of research in education in Africa would show that it is facing a lot of obstacles. In this section, an attempt is made to highlight some of these prevalent constraints and proffer solutions to them.

Usually, the language of the research in education in Africa is foreign to the African subjects most of whom might not be educated enough to interact directly with researchers. This language problem makes the researcher to talk to the subjects through interpreters. This situation might lead to loss of significant information in the course of the research data collection. It might even lead to collection of wrong information as the case of subjects giving out their subjective prejudices instead of the information being sought.

Table 29: Main DonorAgencies' Support to Research for Sub-Saharian Africa (in millions)

	Research Funds		Total Allocated to SSA US $
	Total US $	Year	
Bilateral			
USAID	374.0	1989	119.0
BOSTID	2.6	1987-88	0.4
UKOAD	58.8	1986-87	22.3
SARED	56.7	1988-89	14.8
French Aid	2.4	1988	111.9
GTZ	351.8	1987	16.2
CIDA	426.0	1988-89	18.3
IDRC	150.0	1989-90	50.à
Multilateral			
World Bank	-	-	111.9
UNDP	-	-	12.8
Foundations			
Ford	9.9	1990-91	10.9
Carnegie Corporation	9.7	1988-89	7.4
Rockefeller	-	-	17.9
IFS	-	-	0.2

Source: Youth Employment and Vocational Skills, Development Department, NDE, Lagos, Nigeria

There is a big divide between educational researchers and practitioners as a result of limited communication between them. This poses a problem particularly on issues of implementation of research results irrespective of the quality of the research methods and its findings. In situations where practising teachers get to know about the findings of a relevant research that is of high quality, they are still not free to utilise the research findings until a higher authority from the ministry of education approves of it.

The lack of effective communication, reading and application of research findings lead to unnecessary repetition of education investigations by researchers in Africa. It might also explain why many policy decisions are taken in Africa 'without the benefit of research or despite contrary recommendations from actual research findings' (Sifuna, 1993).

Many Africans, particularly those in the private sector and government ministries have wrong perception of the concept of research in education and its financial demands. To them, research in education must be a highly sophisticated 'thing' that would always require huge financial input. They would therefore prefer not be involved in any research project particularly ? financially. This contributed to the inadequate funding of research no matter how viable and simple the research project is.

Increasingly, the various groups who participate in educational research process in Africa tend to demand for financial incentives in order to offer useful information. This is a source of problem for 5 researchers most of whom do not budget for this type of financial commitments.

The tendency for most practitioners in education to play minimal and passive role in course of research process makes them Adequately prepared and motivated to utilise research findings.

The lack of fund, quality staff, adequate infrastructures, reading materials, communication devices, etc. associated with African universities and other research centres militate against the development of a vibrant and conducive research environment that is capable of attracting and retaining competent researchers in education. The poor financial remunerations of educational researchers in Africa also make them not motivated enough to fully spend their time on research activities.

The weak postgraduate programmes and the lack of emphasis on policy analysis in the course of postgraduate training in African universities and among African researchers, have negative influence on the capacity of various ministries of education to the extent that government policy-making processes are rarely analysed (Namuddu and Tapsoba, 1993).

To revive and strengthen research in education in Africa, it would be necessary to undertake the following actions recommended by Namuddu and Tapsoba (1993).

- Revive and strengthen national research Institutions through:

1. A critical evaluation of the Institutions in terms of programme objectives, management achievements and outputs, target population and beneficiaries and personnel qualifications, utilisations promotion, productivity and outputs. Such evaluation should have very clear guidelines and criteria.
2. A critical evaluation of the leadership and management of research institutions with a view to providing competent and effective research management ill the continent.
3. A thorough evaluation of research facilities and equipments including libraries and books.
4. Establishing a machanism for collecting data on research institutions.
5. Establishing national research priorities by the cooperative efforts involving national research institutions, researchers and governments.

- Cultivate and nurture to maturity a vibrant and appropriate research environment through getting national policy makers and governments to:

1. Be sensitised to the importance of research in education and analytical capacity in policy debates, fomlulation and implementations and to the overalI improvement in educational practice.
2. Formulate policy guidelines for conducting and disseminating research.
3. Allocate funds for educational research in national budgets and require donors when providing funds for education to include a component for research.
4. Utilise, as much as possible, local research capacity in educational studies, reforms, pet icy fomlulation. monitoring and evaluation.
5. Encourage competition for the available resources and reward productivity with futur finds.

- Strengthen the community of educational researchers and policy analysts through:

1. Establishing a professional education association in each country to promote, coordinate and focus on educational research and its contribution to national development.

2. Strengthen the activities of network programmes such as the Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa (ERNWACA) and linking them to the most pressing educational issues in Africa.
3. Coordinating interchange and communications between existing educational research networks in Africa.
4. Creating national and regional research programmes, exchanging personnel and holding seminars and conferences.
5. Encouraging researchers to make their research activities known by marketing the contributions and findings.

- Get governments, universities, research centres and donors to strengthen documentation centres, dissemination and utilisation of research outputs through:

1. The creation and reinforcement of documentation centres at institutional, national and regional levels.
2. The establishment of a bilingual journal of educational research and newsletter to serve the interest of research communities in Africa.
3. The promotion of the idea of a Pan-African association to cater for the interests of educational researchers and policy makers.
4. The adoption of a multimedia strategy for dissemination of research results.
5. The production of annotated bibliographies on educational research in Africa by Africans.
6. The exchange of information and organisation of meetings involving researchers in African region.
7. The exchange of research materials, journals, books, etc. between libraries and documentation centres within each country and region of Africa.

Conclusions

Educational research in Africa has been a subject of concern for the past three decades. Two main approaches were adopted to address the problem. The first consisted of academic training leading to doctoral degrees in education. The cooperative effort of African, British and American universities in this area produced the first generation of staff of education faculties, mainly in the English-speaking countries.

The second approach was that of UNESCO International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP), whose training in all facets of educational management is research-based. This has had the advantage of addressing non-academic as well as academic practitioners of education. It has also produced (over the years) a good crop of alibi who have contributed to the management of educational reforms in virtually every nation of Africa.

The major missing link has been that of articulating research very closely into all facets of educational development in the way outlined in the introduction to the present chapter. With the attention flurry to basic education engendered by the post-Jomtien flutters of activities, research has been recognised as an issue that deserves very serious attention. In this connection, the educational research networks recently created in the region (ROCARE, ERNESA) are working towards:

- Demystifying research, to show that some form of useful educational research can be done by different categories of practitioners;

- Bringing professional researchers, practitioners and policy-makers to work from a common perspective;

- Strengthening African capacity for educational research, especially at the institutional level;

- Improving research communication within the region;

- Marketing research through dialogue and collaborative action between 'researchers' and 'actors'.

This seems to be the way forward, and the strengthening of the networks would be pursued more vigorously.

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* ROCARE: Educational Research Network for Western and Central Africa

* ERNESA: Educational Research Network for Eastern and Southern Africa

Part III
Building Partnerships

12 - Educational Partnerships at the National Level

The inability of many African governments, especially of the poorest countries, to offer Education to All by the year 2000 is clear to most observers. This inability is generally not because of a lack of political commitment as spending on education by African governments is relatively high. It seems however that governments have reached the limit of their spending. Also, there are indications that the education offered by governments is not what is desired by parents and/or students: in several countries private schools are proving more popular than government assisted public schools.

In Mali, for example, enrolment in public schools decreased during the 1980s, while there was at the same time an increase in enrolment in the *madras - sas*, Islamic schools, and the 'ecoles spontanees' developed by villagers themselves without government intervention. This lack of interest not so much in education itself, but in the education offered by government, is a fairly new phenomenon. The questioning of the value of formal education does not lead only to deschooling, but it can also lead to a reform originating from parents and students themselves.

This is one reason why partnership in education has become an important concern of the educational reform programmes of Africa.

The *World Declaration on Education for All* puts emphasis on the need to strengthen partnerships. The Declaration states that:

> national, regional and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all. but they cannot be expected to supply every human, financial or organisational requirement for this task. New and revitalised partnerships at all levels avid be necessary (Article 7).

In the *Framework for Action* also, 'building partnerships and mobilising resources' is identified as one of the six main fields in which action needs to be undertaken. Possible new partners are mentioned, such as:

> family and community organisations, non-governmental and other voluntary organisations, teachers' unions and other professional groups, employers, the media, political parties co-operatives, universities, research institutions and, religious bodies, as well as education authorities and other government departments and services (labour, agriculture, health, information, commerce, industry, defence, etc.) (para 28).

The same ideas can be found in the MINEDAF Vl recommendations. Recommendation I demands on the one hand that: 'the obligations of the State, regional and local authorities, non-governmental organisations and the population' be spelled out (para. 10) and, on the other hand, that: 'mutual assistance, solidarity and a participatory approach to the implementation of basic education projects' be promoted, and that: 'the scope of partnership be broadened, with the aim of diversifying the resources available for basic education projects and programmes' (para. 27 and 30). Both conferences viewed partnership mainly as a resource-mobilisation strategy. Also, the MINEDAF Vl working document notes, in discussing non-formal education, that the assumption of responsibility by the community:

> must necessarily embrace three indispensable areas: participation in design and decision-making processes; regular, structured involvement in the processes of management and evaluation, and finally financial accountability with regard to both income and contributions (pare 113). Me document mentions in this regard a process of self-education'.

Two years before the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA), the World Bank had published its influential study on education in sub-Saharan Africa. In this study it was stressed that one of the two components of any adjustment policy had to be a diversification of financing sources through an increased participation by users in financing the cost of public education, and through a more tolerant, and even encouraging attitude of public authorities towards those, other than the State, who offer education services (World Bank, 1988). The rationale for this partnership was not a concern with the quality or content of education, neither war, it with a desire

for democracy, but it was clearly a worry about the increasing burden that education represented for the government.

The Situational Context

At the time of independence it seemed obvious that it was government's duty to develop the education system, for political, social and economic reasons. Politically, there was a need to change a system developed for the purpose of colonisation (either by church or a colonial government), and a need to unify the country. The need to replace quickly the colonial administration made this argument only more convincing. Socially, colonial education had been limited to an elite, so that it was not a human right. To offer access to education to all, governments had to intervene. Private providers would never have the authority to change the system. Furthermore, such a change would undoubtedly increase the popularity of the government. Economically, education was seen as a vital element in any development strategy. It is a public good, with high public rates of return, which will not be offered on a large enough scale if left to the open market.

The historical context has changed radically since 1960, both in Africa itself and in the world at large. As a result of one of those not always rational twists of economic thinking, government intervention is now regarded with suspicion, and the buzzwords are Market, competition and government disengagement. The 1993 *World Education Report* noted indeed that:

> while no country has gone so far as to privatise its state schools in the manner that has been widely applied to state industrial enterprises, the idea of education as one of a number of traditionally state-supported activities that could be provided less bureaucratically and more efficiently especially at its post-compulsory stages if it were somehow made more responsive to 'consumer choice- and 'market forces-, has gained ground in every region of the world (UNESCO, I 993c).

This trend opposed to government intervention in African education is however not simply a reflection of a similar debate in the North. There are some good reasons to reflect on the role of the state in relation to the financial constraints on government and a distrust ,in the value of the public schools.

There is a close relationship between the democratic movement, demanding freedom of choice and 'less state control, 'and the trend toward the promotion and expansion of private education. It is believed that the public education system does not sufficiently respond to the needs and demands of the public, and that for most 'customers' an alternative has to be created. If competition should exist, through a decrease in state provision as opposed to increased provision by private schools, community schools, and church schools, this would automatically lead to higher quality for a lower price. The same argument is of course applied to other services until recently delivered exclusively by the state. But such an argument is easily dismissable as irrelevant to the situation of developing countries, since it presupposes the existence of a perfect marketplace. A perfect marketplace does not exist in Africa, where quality is a crucial problem, where particularly ill rural areas there can seldom be a demand for more than one school; and where information on school performance will continue to be scarce.

However, even where no competition is possible, the participation of communities could have positive effects. Communities feel a greater responsibility for schools, particularly those which they have constructed themselves and for whose maintenance they carry responsibility. The high level of vandalism in Zambian schools for instance is related to lack of control, as the school is felt to belong to the far-away state. Communities can also react quicker to school problems, as for instance teacher absence, without the need to go through the cajole hierarchy of local, district and central administration.

The main economic argument for limiting the role of government is that the rates of return for private investment especially in secondary and higher education are high, higher according to some studies than the returns for public investments. Private investment in secondary and higher education is a gainful proposition therefore such education does not need to be subsidised by the state. Even without government intervention, the demand for such education will be large and therefore market forces, if given sufficient freedom, will respond to this demand by creating and running schools.

As regards basic education, one issue closely related to partnership will not be discussed, namely that of decentralisation It is clear that successful partnership depends on the willingness of central authorities to decentralise responsibilities and

resources. Most governments are, at least in their policy declarations, committed to the strengthening of regional and local administrations. A detailed discussion of this crucial issue would however take us too far.

Participation of Different Partners

The range of partners, as indicated by Jomtien, is very wide. However, the role of certain partners such as research institutions or political parties will always be fairly limited. We will examine the past and present contributions of five of the most important partners, namely students, communities, private schools, non-governmental organisations and employers.

The Learners

For students, the term 'contributions is more appropriate than 'partership' as their involvement generally is in terms of payment of fees and of taking part in productive activities which are supposed to benefit the school.

For a long time free primary education was at the centre of the education poi icy of most countries. Some countries, which charged primary school fees abolished them, for example Botswana in 1980 and Malawi in 1994. However, even if officially no tuition fees are charged, students still take on several educational costs for items such as books, uniforms, stationery and transport. Regularly fees charged by the school other than for tuition are added to this, such as Parents Teachers Association (PTA) fees, examination fees and sports fees. In the rural areas of Burkina Faso, the cost of sending a child to primary school, excluding transport and the opportunity cost, was recently estimated at around 4000 FCFA ($15.00 USD). In an economy where very little money is available, this is a high cost. The full cost of sending a child to secondary school was more than what is earned in a year by the head of an average rural household or by an independent worker in the informal sector.

For some years now, precisely because of the financial constraints on government and therefore on schools, a trend towards greater cost-recovery measures both at the national level and in the individual school has been discernible. Ghana, for example, has introduced various measures of cost-recovery sincethe mid 1980s.

At primary level, school supplies are sold at cost. There is partial cost-recovery for textbooks. The total non-tuition fees stand at the moment at 250 Cedis for primary 1 and 2 (consisting of PTA, Sports and Cultural events fees) and at 500 Cedis for primary 3 to 6, where an extra fee must be paid for the textbook revolving fund. Also, parents are responsible for providing furniture. However, the devolution of responsibilities to district authorities has led these to impose additional fees, for example a regional sports levy, a district assembly educational levy, a welfare fold fee. Added to this are fees imposed without any official authority by individual schools and by PTAs. As a result, the annual cost in rural areas of fees, levies and uniforms can come up to 4000 Cedis in the lower classes and 5000 Cedis in the higher grades. It is government's official policy that no child can be sent away from school for not paying fees, but this proliferation of fees since 1991 is seen as the main cause for the decrease in enrolment in the first grade in 1991-92, the first such decrease since 1983 (World Bank, 1993b). The government has therefore committed itself to eliminate all fees for primary school children in excess of those approved by the Ministry of Education and has stipulated that:

> where local authorities or communities need to raise funds for educational development they Will be encouraged to do this through levies on adult members of the community, not on children.

But how far this will decrease the pressure on parents is yet unclear.

Textbook recovery schemes, according to which generally pupils rent textbooks for a year at a time, are being introduced for example in The Gambia, Senegal and Zambia. They indeed fond part of most of the sectoral adjustment programmes as financed by the World Bank.

In Zimbabwe, the following stipulation for the reintroduction of primary school fees was proposed for 1992:

> no fees for rural children but all children in urban areas paying a graduated fee ($20.00 USD) for high density and $50.00 USD for low density with children whose parents earn less than $50.00 USD per month and who live in the low density areas paying high density fees but attending low density schools. Children who five in high density areas but whose parents want them to attend low density schools will have to pay low density tees(Jadi, 1993: 109).

In 1988 first attempts were made to revitalise the community development movement. Government developed d system of providing matching grants for communities which were ready to undertake various smalI construction projects such as schools, health centres, public latrines and markets. One thousand such Community Initiative Projects (CIP) have been undertaken since then. An evaluation of the CIPsuggests four improvements are necessary. First, the approval and payment process should not be centralised as central authorities are not always aware of local conditions. Second, delays in providing stage payments to communities should be minimised, as these delays often destroy the motivation of the communities. Third, all projects should be designed to be completed quickly, as with inflation, the value of initially approved grants can rapidly diminish. Related to this is the need to frequently update the level of grants. Fourth, only very limited cash involvement from most communities can be expected.

The CIPwas followed by the school pavilion scheme, whereby Government provided its contribution up-front by installing school pavilions (roofs on pillars), which could be used as classrooms, even before communities completed the walls. 2,000 of these pavilions were installed in under 600 days in every corner of Ghana by one contractor. However, local communities were slow to complete the floor and walls for three reasons. First, because the Ministry of Education was slow to accept the handover of the pavilions from the contractor, and thus any initial motivation was extinguished because of a long wait. Second, the instructions given to local communities were in a technical form and were not easy to follow. Third, too much was expected from the community in terms of purchased inputs.

A further variation of the CIP system was developed whereby communities were expected to provide their contribution (one-third of estimated costs) up-front, by constructing the foundations and plinth of a secondary school before Government provided any assistance. The difficulty with this approach was that the secondary school (unlike the primary school) is not an institution that belongs to any one community. It thus proved difficult for Government to organise the substantial up-front community inputs needed. Often this could only be done through the imposition of general district level taxation.

In summary, the lessons learnt are the following. First, the total community effort needed must be kept low in absolute terms. Second, the commodities that the community will have to purchase must be kept to an absolute minimum. Third, instructions and designs must be prepared in a form that can be easily followed and understood by illiterate or semi-literate villagers. Fourth, the communities must feel that they are obligated to provide the necessary assistance before Government provides any assistance. Finally, once a community is motivated and ready to carry out a project no delays or bureaucratic impediments must be put in their way.

Source: World Bank, 1993b.

It has not been ascertained if this policy was implemented.

The attitude of most governments towards charging primary school fees can best be summarised by a statement by an official of The Gambian Ministry of Education: 'tuition is free, but not education' (UNESC0-Dakar, 1993).

This quite ambivalent attitude also often occurs in higher education. In Ghana again, at this level, food subsidies were removed in 1988 and a heavily subsidised student loan system was introduced. The government committed itself:

to ensure that hostel fees will cover the lull cost of running the hostel by 1993-94. and that through a range of application. registration and other charges. 5 percent of the academic recurrent costs will be borne by .students he 1995-96 (World Bank, 1992b).

An earlier commitment by government to introduce lodging ices was, for political reasons. not implemented. At the moment. notwithstanding the existence of some fees. cost recovery at the tertiary level represents less than 10 percent of total cost. while at the primal and secondary levels the relevant figures are respectively 5-10 percent and 15-50 percent.

In many countries, efforts have been made to gain resources through promoting productive activities in the school itself:

Such schemes exist in many countries and reports on them are available in abundance. Only a Jew or these schemes however have succeeded in collecting large funds: and most have experienced a variety of problems such as the low quality or goods produced, lack of a market. competition with existing producers; parents' refusal for children to take part in activities which they do not view as educational: lack at teachers trained in this field. development of a two-type education system one with production activities for the poorer schools and another exclusively academic for better-off schools and students the irrelevance of these productive activities to examination Faith ensuing lack of interest from students. teachers curd parents. These problems do not result in making such schemes useless. but they show how important it is that the schemes should be designed and implemented with care (UNESCO-Dakar. 1993).

Pupils' participation seldom includes decision-making in school management. In hardly any Courtly does there exist an official policy giving pupils this responsibility. Tanzania is one country where shock 1968 such a policy has existed, in Shoe with Nyerere's Education for Self-Reliance. However, although a participatory approach might well have various advantages for school manage-

ment as well as for student development, 'the majority of schools in Tanzania are still authoritarian and reinforce passive subordination among students (Harber, 1993).

Community involvement

Communities have since independence played a major role in school construction, through offering labour, funds or both.

Kenya is one of the best known countries where communities were central to the expansion of education, through the Harambee (self-help) movement. Indeed:

> it is in the development of education more than anywhere else that the Haranbee spirit has been most successful. The physical infrastructure in most primate schools has largely been built using Harambee funds. Out of the 2760 secondary schools, only 635 were bolt by the government (Lodiaga, 1992).

Similarly, in Zimbabwe, the rapid expansion of education after independence could never have been achieved without community support.

In Ghana, the official policy is that school construction in the Southern half of the country is the responsibility of the communities, churches and local committees, while in the Northern half the responsibiIity is shared. In the 1960s community involvement in construction of various social faciIities was very strong. However, the willingness and capability of communities diminished in the 1970s, in line with the economic crisis and dissatisfaction with government policies. Levies were raised to ensure that such construction took place. However, in the context of a worsening economic crisis, the financial demands on communities to construct schools were too heavy and even the maintenance of existing schools suffered. Government tried, as a result, to revitalise community participation in construction through increasing its own share, if at least communities showed willingness to contribute. That this has not been easy, is indicated by the following quotation:

Schools built with community labour are generally substantially cheaper than if contractors are involved. In The Gambia, unit costs are estimated at about half the cost of school construction by local contractors. To ensure successful construction, communities must not do it alone. In The Gambia, they receive skills training in basic construction techniques, sets of construction tools, and on-site technical advice by Mobile Construction Teams.

In more and more countries, attempts are once again being made to involve communities in more than just financing, construction and maintenance. So far, bureaucratic reluctance to include them in decision-making has been very great: professionals are amazed at the idea of involvement by non-professionals.

Parents teachers associations (PTAs) exist in all the countries and are involved at varying degrees in school management and supervision. However, such PTAs have various problems. One of these is the participation of women: in a department of the Burkinabe province of Sissili, only one out of 270 members of the PTAs was a woman (Obura, 1993a). Precisely in this province, "associations des meres d'eleves" (Association of Pupils' Mothers) were set up to motivate mothers, and through them the fathers, to be more involved and concerned about the education of their daughters. It is a commendable initiative, so far apparently successful (Obura, 1993b).

In Ghana, one step planned is to allow local leaders, a PTA member and a traditional chief or elder some involvement in the selection of headmasters. They will, together with education authorities, interview various candidates. It is hoped that headmasters will feel responsible not only to the education authorities who in fact are usually away from the locality, but also to the local community leaders. In this regard, some short orientation training of around 6000 leaders will take place (World Bank, 1993b).

In rural areas in some countries, Tanzania and Zimbabwe for instance, parents are involved in deciding on the location of a school (Dzvimbo 1994).

Communities can also be asked to provide housing for teachers in general or for the headmaster, as is the case of Kenya As regards giving incentives to teachers, local involvement has as its foremost advantage the fact that 'communities control resources that are not available to the central government'(Kemmerer, 1493).

In some countries, Senegal among others, the opportunity is now given to schools to propose a school improvement project. Proposals must be endorsed by the headmaster, the teachers involved and a representative of the local community.

Proposals which are selected by the Ministry, will receive funding under an IDA financed project. In Senegal, this School Development Fund is still at an experimental stage and only functioning in three regions. It will be interesting to follow its progress.

Mali has recently seen the development of two types of community schools, where the involvement of the community is meant to be all encompassing. The first type is that of the "ecoles spontanees", or 'cooperative schools'. These are in principle schools set up, financed and managed fully by communities. The first such school was established in 1963, but it was not until the late 1980s that the number began to expand rapidly until it reached 105 in 1991, with an enrolment of 9718 pupils (2.5 percent of total enrolment in primary schools). This rapid growth is largely due to the financial support given to the founders of the schools by the IDA-financed Education Project. The government recognises these schools and has set some rules concerning their curriculum, classroom size, the maximum number of students and the recruitment of teachers. It must be said that these rules, with the exception of those concerning the curriculum, are seldom respected. 'In their bid to sustain the enthusiasm of the people, the department of education had to ignore the rules'. More of a problem is the fact that:

> the majority of these schools were set up by individual proprietors, whereas they were originally conceived as community institutions. Seventy five out of the 105 schools were established by independent proprietors.

As these proprietors prefer to set up schools where the risks are smallest and the possible gains largest, there has been a concentration in the urban areas, with almost 70 percent of the schools in Bamako but not even one school in the far-away regions of Tombouctou and Gao:

> this raises the question as to whether the basic school has not helped to worsen inequalities in the access to education. Has it not really worked against the democratisation of education? (Tounkara, 1993). In fad, these schools can no longer be called community schools and are in fact private schools, with the same characteristics of such institutions.

One of the reasons why few if any fundamental schools were built in the poor rural regions of Mali is that the villagers could not carry the financial burden of constructing a full-fledged school . As an alternative? Save The Children-Mali has followed since 1992 a somewhat different route to bringing education into the rural areas, inspired by the well known Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) Programme. They assist the community ill constructing a smaller school, more adapted to the local environment in its content as well as in its modalities: the school year respects the agricultural calendar. Pupils and teachers attend classes for only three hours a day, and this allows them to undertake other work. The whole basic education cycle takes only three years. Classes take place in Bambara, the local language and relate to ski I Is needed and experiences gained in the rural environment. The community constructs the school and pays the teacher a modest salary, and a committee made up of village leaders, parents and at least one literate person undertakes the management. Save The Children pays for the construction and teaching materials and gives some training to the management committee.

After a little more than one year, twenty-two villages have created their own schools. The experiment seems successful: very few children have dropped out, the pass-rate has been high and girls are participating ill equal numbers as boys, a rare achievement in the Sahelian context. Some fifty other villages are demanding similar support for constructing their own schools. Save The Children has noted two factors which might well be crucial to overall success: a political climate favourable to decentralisation and community involvement, and the existence of vigorous village associations. Several doubts however remain, the most important one relating to the integration of these schools into the formal education system.

What indeed will happen to children who have completed their three years of such education and desire to continue their education? The curriculum, the language and the teaching methods of the "ecole du village" (village school) are not those of the formal education system. To pass from one to the other will be almost impossible. This criticism has led some villages, in cooperation with Save The Children, to extend the basic education cycle from 3 to 6 years. The children will then be able, if they wish, to take part in the end-of-primary-school exam. it will be interesting to note if the village school will succeed he the double task both of offering a curriculum adapted

to the rural context and at the same time of preparing pupils for an exam and secondary education, with very little relationship to the rural environment. In this regard it must be noted that, in order to be able to offer the six-year cycle, villages would expect a greater contribution from government (Velis, 1994).

An approach similar to the Malian 'ecole de village' is used by the Egyptian community schools, set up in April 1992 through partnership between the Ministry of Education, local communities and UNICEF. The Ministry provides books and salaries for the faciIitators (a tend preferred to teachers, as better indicating the pupil centred pedagogy), and participates in their training. Local communities provide space for the school, ensure that the children attend, manage the school, and infuse the school curricula with subjects relevant to their community. UNICEF trains the project team and facilitators and provides school furniture and materials. The financial contribution of the community is kept as small as possible: the educational service is supposed to be totally free of charge. Efforts are made to create income generating activities to ensure that the community will be able to maintain the schools.

In the first year some twenty five schools were set up. So far, the project has been successful, with very low drop-out rates, strong participation by girls, and enthusiastic communities. Integration with the official school system is less a problem than in Mali, as chiIdren take the official examination at the end of the school year. The real worry relates to the sustainability of this programme and its potential for large scale expansion. So far, the schools have benefited from exceptionally high donor support, not only financially but also in the form of training. Unit costs are therefore very high. The survival of these schools and even more the creation of new schools without donor support cannot be guaranteed.

The fact is that community involvement in more than construction and some financial contribution is not an easy matter. This is shovvn by the 'community junior secondary schools in Botswana. These schools were set up in 1984 again in a spirit of partnership between government and communities:

> The government \would provide classrooms. Iaboratories. half the required staff housing, basic library books and equipment. teacher salaries and a per capita grant for enrolled students. The community Would build the kitchen school hall and remaining staff'housing. \while paying the school's running costs. including maintenance and ancillary start salaries. In effect. the development of' the system has been undertaken by the government and the majority of the recurrent costs are borne by the government. Community contributions have been minor and below expectation. for example in relation to teacher accommodation(Yougman. 1992).

Private Schools

The right to existence of private schools was recognised in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which dates from 1966 and has so far been ratified by 29 sub-Saharan African states. It requires the states that are parties to the Convention to respect, 'the liberty of parents to choose for their children schools other than those established by the public authorities', and to acknowledge 'the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions', subject only to the requirement that the education provided in such schools shall 'conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the state' (UNESCO, 1993c).

In attempt to alter the role of the state, the attitude toward private education is changing. The passive acceptance characteristic of the 1960s and 1970s is being replaced by more active promotion. This generally consists of allowing private schools more freedom to set fees and assisting in the improvement of quality. In Burkina Faso for instance, the government has committed it self to liberalising private school fees, which until recently had to adhere to a fixed government ceiling. At the same time, these schools are given greater access to support services such as teacher training, inspectorate services and the provision of didactic materials. Similar pedagogical support has recently been introduced, for example, in The Gambia and Botswana.

The record of private school education is not entirely positive. For example, private schools in Ghana have generally better examination results than public ones, although their teachers generally are much less qualified. The reasons are partly that parents show more interest in their children's education and provide them with more didactic materials, and there is stricter supervision by proprie-

tors and teachers. Most of the schools moreover are situated ill town.

On the other hand, the quality of most private schools in Mauritius, Kenya and Tanzania is believed to be considerably lower than that of the public schools. In Mauritius, private schools accounted in 1991 for 24 percent of enrolment at the primary level and 80 percent at secondary level. Teachers in private schools are less qualified. Also the schools have fewer laboratories and libraries, and in general, school buildings are rented and owners are reluctant to upgrade or expand facilities. Expenditure per student is about half that of the public schools, which have lower pupil/teacher ratios and relatively more support staff. The share of private schools has decreased in the 1980s, 'because of inadequate financial incentives offered by the Ministry of Education and better returns on alternative investments' (World Bank, 1993a). The Ministry of Education plans and undertakes various actions in support of the private sector. In 1989, it developed a subsidised loan programme for improving facilities and gave increased support for the training of private teachers. Much more of such action is foreseen under the World Bank financed Education Sector Development Project. This project will spend $9.7 million USD (of which $8.4 million USD is donor funding) on rehabilitating and equipping private secondary schools.

Lesotho is a special case as here almost all schools are owned and operated by the churches, while the government has only administrative, financial and academic control. This system has several weaknesses, some related to the typical situation of Lesotho, but some also of a more general nature. The World Bank notes for instance the 'duplication of services, with more than one church group "competing" for educational customers within the same geographical area, while others remain relatively underserved' (World Bank, 1991). In the same way, preference is given to secondary schools over primary: the funds given to proprietors for primary education are diverted to secondary schools. Behind these problems lie, on the one hand, the inability of the government to exercise efficient control, and, on the other hand, the lack of coordination between proprietors and government. Many schools have a headmaster paid as all other teachers, by government, and an administrator paid by the church who are regularly in conflict. The lads of government control results in the existence of actual policies which are different from or even opposite to those intended by government.

One particular type of private school is the *madrassa*, the Islamic school Madrassas have a long tradition in all African countries where Islam is practised. Their continued or even increasing popularity among populations, who at the same time reject the formal education system, has led to a growing interest in the assistance these schools could give to education foray Moreover, the high level of community participation, especially financially, in these schools makes them even more attractive to financially handicapped governments. The Madrassas represent a complete education system, with its own curriculum, didactic materials, *examinations* and so on. The individual madrassas have quite some autonomy in what exactly they teach. They depend considerably, for the provision of didactic materials, teacher training and even financing, on the Islamic countries in North Africa and the Middle East. *Madrassas* are mainly primary schools, but there are also a few secondary madrassas. Enrolment in madrassas is estimated in Burkina Faso at some 25,000 to 50,000 pupils, in The Gambia at 7,000 and in Mali at 66,000, representing respectively 5-10 percent, 8 percent and 13 percent of enrolment in official schools.

Surveys (UNICEF, 1994a; Obura, 1993b) show that madrassas in Mali and Burkina Faso face the following problems:

- Low level of teacher training;
- Insufficiency of school materials;
- III-defined curriculum;
- Insufficient guidance and support personnel;
- Poor physical conditions;
- Lack of management and of evaluation of school performance.

As a result, *madrassas* start or close quite frequently and fewof their pupils go beyond primary schools (The same however could said of public schools in rural Mali or Burkina). *Madrassas* seem to have one advantage in the eyes of parents: they foster in chiIdren the right attitudes and outlook. The children 'obey their parents, are well integrated in the society and ready to work on the land', and girls are more willing to respect parents'

decision about their marriage. Parents describe girls leaving the *madrassas* as 'good wives and mothers', a very important factor he the society (Obura, 1993b). In the three countries mentioned above, *madrassas* have no legal status and are strongly influenced by Arab countries. This makes almost impossible their integration into the formal school system. A report commissioned by the Burkinabe Ministry of Basic Education has proposed various conditions to be fulfilled by the *madrassas* before they could be recognised by government: these include the teaching of the official curriculum, a centralisation and standardisation of examinations and a minimum of teacher training and of training of school heads in management.

Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

In principle, NGOs do not run schools on their own. Most exist precisely for the promotion of grassroots development. It would mall against their spirit not to work with local communities.

Disappointment with the development as promoted by the traditional bilateral and multi lateral institutions has led to an expansion in the number of national and international NGOs and of their roles. This is welcome, and undoubtedly most of the work of NGOs is commendable and has the advantage of a more direct, and less bureaucratic approach. But this expansion has also created problems. At the moment, in a country such as Mali, some seventy NGOs are active in the field of education. In the province of Sissili in Burkina Faso, seven different NGOs (of which two are national ones) work in education. Coordination among those NGOs and between them and the Ministry is non-existent (Obura, 1993b). The result is overlapping and inefficiency. This points to the need for a coordinating structure and a framework within which
NGOs could act.

Employers

The role of employers is most apparent not so much in basic education as in those types of education which are employment related; technical and vocational education and university education.

Two types of contribution can be noted. The first takes the fond of a compulsory financial contribution: countries such as Benin, the Central African Republic, Cote d'lvoire, Kenya and Zimbabwe all have a company tax, the proceeds of which are supposed to finance training. Secondly, firms can assist governments in offering training, or offer training themselves. The World Bank, in its 1991 policy paper on vocational and technical education, argued for an increased provision of employer-provided training, which is considered the long-term ideal. Such training would be more closely related to the job-market, and would relieve government of an expensive duty which government does not efficiently fulfil, and undoubtedly there is a need for a drastic improvement in the provision of technical and vocational education. However, not too much reliance must be placed on the private sector. A formal private sector, well managed and active and with money to spare, is rare ill Africa. There is indeed a risk of 'romanticising the capacity and willingness of industry to train'. In Tanzania:

> it is not private industry that has the greatest willingness to take on trainees but, rather, certain public utilities and some parastatal companies that believe they have a social responsibility to train beyond their own immediate needs in spite of their over staffing mud poor utilisation of production capacity (Lauglo, 1992).

An original method of employers' contribution, admittedly with Iittle impact, exists in some schools in Zimbabwe:

> Desk shares are Sold. mowing that school authorities work out the unit costs of a year's education per child and invite local firms to sponsor children donations from the firms have open been for the sponsorship of children of their senior employees but in some cases they have been unpegged donations (Jaiji, 1992).

The Many Faces of Partnership

Partnership is a tend which covers a wide continuum of realities. At the one end is the minimal level of partnership, that of financial contributions; with students paying fees, employers paying levies, and communities financing construction. At the other end, the partner takes the utmost responsibility: examples are the madrassas and other private schools. Four steps may be noted along this continuum. Step one consists of financial contributions. At step two, partners are involved in the provision of physical facilities such as the construction of classrooms or of headmaster housing, and provision of stationery and didactic materials. Step three allows partners decision-making relating to tile management of the school including selection of the headmaster, decisions on proposals to improve the school, and

disciplining of absentee teachers and unruly students. So far, the government is the stronger partner. This situation changes with step four: here partners are involved in decision-making about the design, content and structure of the school, and the government recedes to the background.

The rationale for partnership also varies along this continuum, with at the one end, a concern with efficiency and at the other end, empowerment.

The examples of partnership given above leave little doubt that since Jomtien, the involvement of students, communities and private providers in education has been growing. However, two trends within this evolution need stressing. First, participation is mainly understood as contributions in the form of funds and physical facilities. This is not surprising, since the concern of advocates of partnership has been more with efficiency and cost-sharing than with empowerment. Second, where the government has receded to the background, it has done so in favour of private providers rather than in favour of communities or 'customers'. These private providers act within the existing framework. Both trends raise some matters for concern.

Partnership, Privatisation or Poverty?

A first concern relates to the effect of cost-sharing on equity. As the 1993 *World Education Report* noted, there exists a contradiction between asking beneficiaries of education to carry part of the real costs of education, and the long-standing commitment to equality of opportunity and free primary education. It can be argued, however, that the provision of free primary education to all will remain an illusion as long as beneficiaries do not contribute financially and in relation to their wealth. Cost-control should be seen as a precondition of universal primary education, rather than as its antithesis.

As regards primary education in particular, it should indeed be remembered that before the recent increases, parents were already paying a large part of the cost of sending a child to school. In the early 1 980s, 6 percent of the costs of education in East Africa and 11 percent in West Africa were met by private spending (World Bank 1988). And in some countries the figures are much higher: in Lesotho and Zimbabwe, in 1987, private contribution, mainly by parents, represented 30 percent of the total recurrent and capital expenditure on education. In the case of Lesotho, this figure for the primary level is higher than the figure for the tertiary level.

To ask for financial contributions at the primary level can in many cases be counterproductive, if the aim is to increase enrolment. The case of Ghana mentioned above indicates this. It is true that there are counterexamples: Malawi increased fees in both primary and secondary schools in 1982, tuition fees by 25 to 50 percent, and boarding charges by 100 percent. This has not led, either in the short or the long tend to a decrease in enrolment. The question to ask in each case is what causes enrolment to be low. Quite simply, the cause can be either a lack of demand or a lack of supply. If supply exceeds demand, to increase the cost of education will only aggravate the problem, as the high cost of education is precisely one factor responsible for the low demand. Where demand exceeds supply (as was the case in Malawi), a moderate level of cost-recovery could indeed help in increasing enrolment.

Equity must be a central concern when introducing cost-recovery schemes, not only because education is a human right but because of its role in development. For example, the alternative fond of structural adjustment proposed by African organisations and by UNICEF identifies indeed as the motor of growth a substantial redistribution of assets such as land and also the provision of access to credit, health services and education. Obviously, if the cost of education increases, access to it decreases and the trend will be not towards a redistribution but rather towards a greater concentration of assets. This does not at all imply that participation of the poor is prohibited. But the issue is that of which type of contribution to demand, or which type of responsibility to give to beneficiaries, so that their access to and demand for education grows.

The second concern has to do with the role played by governments in the partnership. l f the role of the state becomes that of control and monitoring rather than of delivering services, then there is an urgent need, which will not easily be satisfied, for an improvement in the collection of data, the inter-

pretation of this data at central level and the distribution of the resultant information to the providers and customers of the services. In this regard, Crozier has made the point that the more the actors are involved and the more they are allowed freedom to express their demands, the more necessary efficient organisation and management become (Tedesco, 1989). The only partner who is able to take on that role is arguably the state. That does not mean that the state apparatus needs to be enlarged, but its planning and management capacities certainly needs to be strengthened. The Lesotho example shows indeed that, if the government is not able to control efficiently what partners undertake, actual policies can be very different from those set by government. So far, it has not been proven that the government will have an easier time or will be more able to exercise its control and management functions, neither is it clear that government can easily and cheaply acquire the information necessary to exercise these functions efficiently.. Finally, it has not yet been shown that such a division of tasks will cost the government any less.

There is one crucial problem related to giving communities full control over the development of their own school, and this is the lack of integration in the official school system, which whatever the criticisms, is still the most popular and representative system and the one recognised by society. This relates to a deeper worry, namely that the disengagement of the state in education in certain areas, on the ground that communities can offer a more relevant and cheaper education, will lead to a dual system reminiscent of colonial times: a full fledged education offered by the public and some private schools for the more well-to-do, and 'a simple good school, not too intelligent by far, exclusively interested in improving the traditional way of life', which is what a French colonial administrator, Hardy, desired in 1917 as education for the masses (Gerard, 1992). Moreover, a particular private or community school may conceivably teach values which are opposite to those that the government defends. For example the Burkinabe *madrassas* present through their teaching an image of women that helps to foster the discrimination of girls which is generally condemned. It is questionable whether such schools replace public schools or whether they should be subsidised.

Some other issues need mentioning in considering participation by communities. One of them is the problem of equity. In Mali, community schools grew much more in the richer than in the poorer regions. In Ghana, many communities were unable to construct their own school, notwithstanding government support, because of their sheer poverty. There is a related danger. In communities where little experience of participation exists, certain groups, NGOs or government officials might take over the programme and even dictate its form, content and orientation. 'The ownership of community participation programmes becomes a highly contested terrain which usually does not benefit the recipients' (Dzvimbo, 1994). The possible negative effects on quality, especially when government decides to take care solely of teachers' salaries and leaves spending on didactic materials to the community, and the doubtful sustainability of community initiatives are well known problems.

Private schools in Africa, in contrast to those in many developed regions, are not really known to guarantee higher quality or better efficiency. To generalise, there are two types of private schools: those which cater for the poor, for whom there is no place in the public system; and those which cater for the rich, for whom public schools are not good enough. To assist the former in improving the quality of their teaching might be a cheaper and more successful way of increasing enrolment for the poor than by constructing more public schools:

> But in the case where the better students tend to go to private schools privatising education could take the pressure off the Ministry of Education to improve public education, reducing access for low-income families (Haddad, 1990).

Expectations about the role of private education must not be too high. While:

> there is no question that private education mobilises additional family resources, there is little evidence that this motivates the public sector to invest the additional resources made available in more or better public schooling or that public schooling becomes more efficient as a result.

Whatever the impact of private education, there is a need for government to correct its imperfections, in preference to acting in areas where people can pay and thus perpetuating the low quality of many schools:

A final but crucial issue is whether private schools can meet the under lying social objectives of public education. such as bringing students from widely varying backgrounds into a common national social experience caned the public school (Haddad 1990).

Which Scenario for the Ideal Partnership?

This chapter might have been excessively critical about the potential of partnerships in education. If so, it is a reaction to the more common excessive optimism. There is indeed no doubt that partnership is needed and welcome. The discussion about state or private provision, seen as two opposites, is no more relevant. The experience of government intervention has shown clearly its weaknesses and limits, while the same is true as regards drastic privatisation. There is a role for the state, as well as a need for a market approach, and at the same time (Tedesco, 1989). Some observers have indeed noted that in developed countries the trend in education is not towards one of the two extremes, market or state, but rather towards a more efficient mixture of both, for example in the provision of vocational education and training (Lauglo, 1992).

But to view this partnership its an east solution applicable everywhere, and as a licence for government to abandon the field. is a recipe for disaster. The essential question has become: who does what? This question invites no easy answer, as the situation will be different from one case to another-, from one level of education to another, and from one region to another. As such the ideal partnership does not exist, and the formula for partnership needs to be rediscovered every time.

Note

1. Madrassa or medersa is the Arabic word for school. Distinction must be made between madrassas and the 'Koranic school'. While the former are authentic schools, the latter focus more exclusively on the reading of the Koran. The pupils are kept busy, rather than taught, by one adult, generally a religious leader. Many of the pupils live by begging.

13 - Regional and International Cooperation for Development and Financing of Education

> Meeting basic learning needs constitutes a common and universal human responsibility. It requires international solidarity and equitable and fair economic relations in order to redress existing economic disparities (WCEFA 1990)

International assistance to meet the challenge of basic Education for All is a moral duty for developed countries, as much as it is a necessity for developing countries. They, especially the poor sub-Saharan African countries, would not be able to take great steps forward without such assistance.

However, international assistance to education is not without its critics. There are those who claim that so far aid has been of very little significance and benefit. Indeed a World Bank document has argued: 'that external aid to education has been peripheral to the course of educational development' (Verspoor 1993). Certainly the volume of aid in comparison to global expenditure by developing country governments has been small. Their expenditure on education in 1991 was around 168 billion US dollars, where as total aid to education came up to less than 10 billion. However, the proportion of aid in capital expenditure is much more significant. And aid funds are undoubtedly important, as they are one of the few sources of funds without pre-conditions.

There are other critics who consider aid, no matter what its volume, as damaging. Such critics can be found both in donor countries as well as among recipients. Their arguments are well known. They demand that aid should be used less as a political instrument, that the share of tied aid should be decreased; that the role of recipients in aid decision-making should be increased.

The full force of these criticisms were felt at the World Conference on Education for AlI and at MINEDAF Vl . This chapter will examine the views of both conferences on international assistance and the impact of their recommendations, both explicit and implicit, on regional and international cooperation. Much more information is available on international than on regional cooperation. When discussing the latter, we shall look at three issues: the impact on aid flows, on aid policies and on aid modalities.

WCEFA and MINEDAF on Cooperation

The suggestions and recommendations of the Jomtien World Conference on Education for All and of MINEDAF Vl are concerned precisely with those three issues and with the need for a more consistent regional cooperation.

Both conferences asked for increased international funding to help the less developed countries implement their plans of action. MINEDAF Vl recommended to the international agencies to ' step up cooperation with a view to raising funds for educational development in Africa, so that the volume of assistance is increased to a level consonant with the objectives laid down' (recommendation 4). The Meeting did not however specify figures to be attained. In this regard, both Jomtien and MINEDAF stressed the need to solve the debt-problem, for example through swapping debt for education programmes. An overall increase in aid to education ought to be accompanied by an increase in the share of aid to basic education.

Much hope is expressed in the potential benefits of regional cooperation. The rationale for this is well known. Regional cooperation can engender economies of scale, exploit comparative advantages and strengthen the autonomy and self-reliance of African countries. The second recommendation of NINEDAF Vl addresses the need for African countries to cooperate, for instance, in the training of planners, managers and teachers, in quality-evaluation, in the use of the media and in textbook-production. It recommended to UNESCO to draw up, with the other agencies, a regional plan of action. Jomtien in a similar way had proposed to strengthen existing regional partnerships and to provide them with the necessary resources.

A third set of recommendations to international agencies had to do with policies. Like the developing countries themselves, agencies were asked to focus on basic education, the quality of education, equity, and an enlarged vision of basic education. In other words, national authorities and donors were asked to work together to create a different policy environment, one which would be beneficial to the development of basic education. This calls for the enhancement of national planning and management capacities and support on a long-term basis for national and regional actions. However, the creation of a supportive policy environment demands a change in the modalities of international cooperation. Donors, with the World Bank as the most vocal among them, claimed that the failure of projects to improve significantlyt he situation of education in Africa was because of their lack of integration with general education policies and the insufficient involvement of national authorities.

In this regard, the Jomtien Conference did not make explicit recommendations, but some points were raised which figure in the Framework for Action. These are as follows:

- That ultimate responsibility rests with each nation to design and manage its own education programmes;

- That external agencies should examine current practices, so as to find ways of effectively assisting basic education programmes which do not call for capital and technology-intensive assistance, but which often may demand longer-term budgetary support (para 45);

- That the coordination for external funding for education is an area of shared responsibility at country level, and mat host governments should take the lead in this matter (para 46).

The MINEDAF Vl Conference made similar comments. It noted for instance that:

> the tripartite approach to international development cooperation which was a feature of the 1970s is now changing in favour of a programme approach and of implementation by a country's own expertise (MINEDAF, 1991a). Some other element, mentioned in the MINEDAF working document are the need for a genuine transparent dialogue; for a long-term commitment; and for coordination.

Three crucial elements thus come to the fore in the new assistance relationship as advocated by the WCECAand MINEDAF: an increased role for the recipient country (the need for dialogue, for local implementation), a reconsideration of which elements (salaries or working costs) can be funded through international assistance; and the need for coordination among donors, and between them and the recipient country.

Regional Cooperation

As already stated, both the WCEFA and MINEDAF Vl stressed the role regional cooperation could play. However, attempts at regional cooperation have seldom been successful in the African context.

A distinction can be made between two types of regional cooperation: one kind is where countries or African institutions take the initiative to cooperate and where donor involvement is of very Iittle importance; another is where donors create and fund regional initiatives. In this second case, the distinction between international and regional cooperation is rather vague. Many of UNESCO's activities in Africa are at a regional level in this sense.

There have been quite a number of attempts at what may be described as 'pure' regional cooperation. That is to say, there are several regional organisations whose terms of reference cover basic education and literacy, for example the African Curriculum Organisation (ACO), the African Bureau of Educational Sciences (BASE) or the African Association for Literacy and Adult Education (AALAE), and which organise joint activities among African countries, the countries acting in cooperation. However, few if any of these organisations work without problems, while cooperation scarcely exists between one such organisation and another. A type of regional cooperation about which however very little information is available is that of immediate contacts between two countries for study-visits, exchange of experiences, the development of didactic materials. Such cooperation is not common and needs promotion.

Those attempts at regional cooperation which have succeeded have generally depended for their success on the support of a donor agency. For example, ROCARE, a network combining researchers in various West and Central African countries is Supported by external partners namely the

Canadian IDRC. It has increased cooperation between English and French-speaking researchers, and this has resulted the publication of substantial reports on the state of research in African education.

Donor support will not be sufficient without national commitment. An example is that of the regional plan of action which UNESCO was asked by MINEDAF Vl to draw up. As a follow-up to that recommendation, UNESCO and UNICEF prepared a sub-regional plan of action for Central and West-Africa, which was discussed and approved at a conference in Dakar in February 1992. So far however, implementation has progressed at an extremely slow pace. The reasons for this have been not only deficient coordination between the organising agencies, and shortage of financial support from partners in the international community, but also, and substantially, a lack of national commitment to the plan of action.

It may be asked why the record of regional cooperation in Africa is so disappointing. The practical difficulties are well known, namely shortage of funds, language barriers, poor means of transport and communication. The magnitude of these difficulties must not be underestimated; but even so these difficulties may only be a reflection of a much 'more fundamental problem, that of moving beyond the national context towards African integration' (MINEDAF, 1991a). The conclusion seems to be that attempts at long-term sustainable regional cooperation are doomed, as long as successful steps towards African integration are not taken.

International Cooperation

Aid Flows

A first set of recommendations made by the WCEFA and MINEDAF Vl pertain to the need to increase the share of aid to education, and within that share the proportion of primary education.

No comprehensive data is available which allows us to make comparisons between pre-Jomtien and post-Jomtien aid allocations. However, we can glean some information from the available data, as presented in the following tables.

Table 30 shows that the aid flow to education has grown in 1991,as compared with previous years, but in this is only because the World Bank has greatly increased its spending on education. The same cannot be said of other agencies, in particular the U.N. agencies, who in financial terms have played a more marginal role.

Table 30: Spending on Education by International Assistance Agencies (in millions of dollars)

Agency	1988	1989	1990	1991
OECD Bilateral	3650	3790	3640	
Development Banks	1254	1801	2082	2894
* World Bank	864	964	1487	2252
UN Agencies				
*UNDP	17	16	18	16
* UNFPA	5	7	8	8
* UNICEF	37	37	57	48
* WFP	187	109	157	96
* UNESCO	78	78	73	73

Source: UNESCO

Table 31 compares the share of education in the official development assistance as provided by OECD countries. Out of 19 countries in the table, nine allocated in 1991 10 percent or more on education. The most 'educated-minded' are Australia and New Zealand. The USAseems the least interested. Only 2.8 percent of its aid went to education. That situation was to change. Aid for education increased from $74 million USD in 1991 to $116 million USD in 1992 and was expected to increase further to $135 million USD.

Only four countries increased their aid to education between the end of the 1980s and 1991, and in 13 countries this share decreased. However, too much must not be read into these figures. The share of education is usually underestimated. For example, many training activities go on within rural development or health projects, which are not taken into account in these figures. Moreover, annual data can offer a very biased view, if only because the impact of the start or the conclusion of a single large project can be very great, in particular for smaller donors.

The World Bank has acted on its promise to take the education sector a priority and has increased the shareof education from under 5 percent in the second half of the 80s to over 10 percent since 1992. However, total World Bank lending to

Education in Africa, in absolute figures, decreased from $350 million USD in 1990 to $325.5 million USD in 1994. On the other hand, the share of education is higher for aid given to Africa than for global aid streams. For all developing countries, education received 9.9 percent in 1991, 8.7 percent in 1992, 8.5 percent in 1993, and 10.0 percent in 1994 of World Bank assistance.

Table 31: Share of Education in Bilateral Development Assistance

Donor	1986-89*	1991
Australia	26.5	30.1
Austria	35.3	22.3
Belgium	44.4	14.9
Canada	13.5	7.1
Denmark	4.9	9.4
Finland	8.5	4.9
France	31.4	22.5
Germany	26.5	12.9
Ireland	49.1	21.3
Italy	6.6	6.6
Japan	8.5	6.3
Netherlands	9.7	12.3
New Zealand	46.1	41.3
Norway	17.8	5.0
Spain		5.0
Sweden	8.7	9.1
Switzerland	10.5	6.4
U.K.	21.1	12.6
U.S.A	5.4	2.8

* Yearly Average

Source: UNESCO

The share of education in aid spending on sub-Saharan Africa by the World Bank was as follows: 1985-89: 4.8 percent; 1990, 8.9 percent; 1991, 7.8 percent; 1992, 10.1 percent; 1993,14.8 percent;]994,1 1.6 percent.

Information on one other donor can complete the picture. The European Development Fund (the European Union's cooperation agency) increased spending on education from 3.2 percent under the 6th EDF (which started in 1984 and is now almost completed) to 3.9 percent for the 7th EDF (which started in 1990). In absolute terms however, because of an overalI decrease in aid, this has meant a decrease from 189 million ECU to 170 million ECU. But this is probably an underestimation because firstly. for the EDF as for other agencies, much training not classified as educational goes on within other programmes: and secondly, the counterpart funds made available in local money go mostly to the social sectors. 'Idle category which has gained the most in importance is 'programme aid' (similar to structural adjustment loans): its share increased from 4.6 percent to 23.9 percent.

Information on the allocation of the aid to education to various subsectors is scarce and could be misleading, because aid is not usually allocated to a subsector as such but to education in general. For example:

> higher education projects can include teacher training and other activities whose beneficiaries are at lower levels of the education system It may also include the kind of institution building that seeks to replace expensive overseas studies with local alternatives which may then release funds for improvements in access and quality at lower levels of the education system (Lewin, 1994).

The available information shows a clear preference amongst most donors, before WCEFA, to fund post-primary education and in particular higher education and vocational education. Table 31 presents for some donors the distribution of educational assistance by subsector tip to 1990. With the exception of Sweden, the four other donors in the table allocated by far the largest part of their assistance to higher or vocational education. As mentioned above, some of' such aid probably benefits indirectly basic education. A quarter of the World Bank's assistance to higher education is used indeed for teacher training. But the conclusion however is that assistance to the primary education subsector, which is in all developing countries the largest subsector, was very small, too much so according to the WCEFA and MINEDAF Vl.

If one refers to donors' intentions, one may say that there have been changes so far. For example. one of the main aims of Dutch cooperation policy in the 1990s has been to increase spending on basic education annually by some 65 million US dollars. Also Denmark has planned to increase spending on primary education ill its three priority countries: Tanzanian Mozambique and Nepal. The World Bank focuses most of its present sectoral adjustment loans on the needs of basic education. But actual spending patterns change slowly, partly because of the need to finalise existing pro-

jects. For example, an increase in spending on basic education by the Dutch cooperation was planned to be introduced from 1990 onwards, but this has been subject to delays. For one country, the UK we can compare the years 1989 and 1991, over which period the share of aid for primary education increased from 4.8 to 13.9 percent and that of adult education from 1.1 to 4.4 percent. This increase was at the expense of secondary education, which saw its share fall from 3 7.0 to 22.9 percent. The al location for higher education changed little: from 52.0 to 52.7 percent. These however are global figures. Data per region (which is not available in detail), shows that the increase for primary education was mainly the result of an increase to South Asia, while in Africa adult education raised its share to the detriment of primary education (Lewin, 1994).

Table 32: Assistance to Education by Subsector

Subsector	U.K. 1989	World Bank 1990	Sweden 1987-89	Germany 1989	Netherlands 1989
Primary	4 8	22	52	3	2
Secondary	37.0	6	2	3	1
Higher	52.0	45	2	13	45
Vocational	3.3	9	23	40	38
Adult	1 1		10	23	8
Other Misc	1 8 •	18	6	18	6

* Research only. UN-allocated spending not taken into account

Source: UNESCO

Lewin concludes tentatively, from his case study on British assistance to education that countries with higher primary GER receive on average more aid than those with lower GER. This does not prove however that raising primary enrolment is not a priority of the UK. Some reasons may be that costs are probably higher in countries with a higher gross enrolment ratio, as these are richer countries. This inflates the sums spent. Second, assistance to secondary and tertiary education demands more funds than primary, because of their higher unit costs. Third:

> there may be a risk that the needs for assistance of those cello remain excluded from completed primary schooling are being eclipse. d by those of the relatively privileged who can articulate demands for more and Utter secondary and higher education supported by external aid (Lewin, 1994).

This last factor helps to explain why a reallocation of aid towards basic education can be difficult to attain.

There are, however, other reasons which relate more to donor preferences. Donors prefer capital and foreign-exchange intensive projects, limited in scope and geographical dispersion, large-scale and with high visibility. Projects at tertiary level or in technical and vocational education fit easier into this description than those at primary level. Moreover, donors are wary of funding recurrent expenditure, in particular salaries, which they consider the obvious task of the local authorities. But, as was noted by MINEDAF Vl working document:

> since recurrent charges and especially salaries are critical items in primary education costs and in the strategies for its universal extension. it is debatable chat alternatives international assistance could offer (MINEDAI, 1991 a).

In other words, if international assistance is serious about its involvement with basic education, then there is a need to review the modalities of cooperation. Before we explore how far aid modalities are changing and what the impact of such changes can be on the educational situation in Africa, the policies advocated and implemented by international agencies need to be discussed.

Policies of Donor Agencies

There is little doubt that education and social development issues in general have featured the agenda of donor agencies in this decade much more than in the 1980s. Various agencies do give more attention to education, not only in their aid allocations, but also ill their policy declarations, their research and their studies (Buchert, 1994). Even before WCEFA, there were two significant changes in the policies of the agencies. First, the focus shifted from educational infrastructure and vocational and technical education to quality-items and to the effectiveness of educational institutions, from hardware to software. After that, the traditional project was superseded by the programme approach, giving attention to the need for a supportive policy environment and the need to integrate activities in such an environment

This second element grew out of a realisation that a project can be successful in attaining its short-term objectives (the construction of so many schools the training of X number of teachers) but

that this is no guarantee that it will have a positive long-term influence, because it did not form a part of, and did not influence national education policies. Thus the new focus reflected:

> a growing awareness that even the best-designed projects will fail if educational policies are deficient. More school buildings and textbooks by themselves do not accomplish sustainable educational development; effective institutions and sound policies are also vital (World Bank 1990)

WCEFA and MINEDAF Vl patently adopted this view, as was noted above. Ideally:

> sub-sectoral assistance programmes, providing broad support to a time-slice of a longer-term educational development programme, will become the dominant vehicle for assistance to basic education (Verspoor, 1993).

In practice however, few countries have the necessary institutions or management capacities to handle such demanding programmes. The result is sub-sectoral programmes, which often differ little from traditional projects.

The shift from project to programme lending, whatever the impact on the field might have been, is certainly shovvn in the lending patterns of most donors. The Africa Bureau of USAID for instance has, since 1990, initiated programmes of non-project assistance (NPA), by which funds are disbursed to governments against conditions established through a plan of action jointly developed and supported by the host country government, USAID and other donors. Presently, eight countries receive NPA. The share of traditional project spending by the European Development Fund (EDF) decreased between the 6th and the 7th EDF from 65 to around 30 percent. The share of structural adjustment loans has grown, as well as that of a number of non-traditional projects. These concerns have to do for example with the financing of recurrent costs, institutional support, and the rehabilitation and maintenance of structures which were set up through foreign aid. Seventeen of the 34 countries which received structural adjustment loans from the EDF have an education component in this loan. Of these seventeen, fourteen are African countries.

The following paragraphs examine in detail two aspects of the recommendations of donors to recipients: the need to reallocate expenditure and the need to increase quality.

Reallocate Expenditure

One condition generally attached to education sector loans is that recipient governments should increase spending on education in general and on basic education in particular. The deplorable state of education in Africa easily creates the impression that governments do not prioritise education. This generalisation is not correct. Governments spend a large part of their budgets on education, in many cases more than they spend on health or security or rural development, and *pro rata*, more than their counterparts in developed countries spend on education. But in absolute terms, this is not much and certainly cannot compare with what is spent in developed countries. In many a case expenditure is too low to offer basic education of quality to alI .

Table 33 shows that on the average, an African country indeed allocates a larger share of its budget on education than the average OECD country.[1] In not one of the 17 OECD countries for which information is available does education receive more than 20 percent of the budget. In Africa, 11 out of 34 countries make this particular effort.

Table 33: Spending on Education as a Share of government Budget

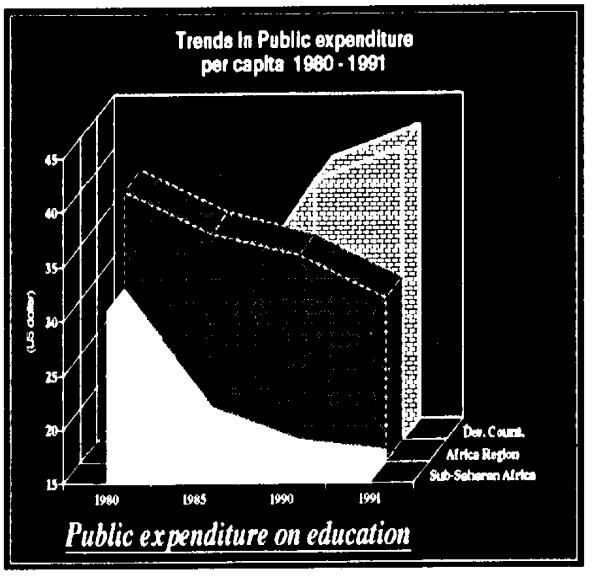
Region	Number of Countries, Spending (Percentage)			
	< 15 percent	15 percent - 20 percent	20 percent - 25 percent	> 25 percent
Africa (34)	15	8	7	4
OECD (17)	13	4	0	0

Source: UNESCO

Some country comparisons highlight, however, the wide difference in spending in absolute terms. Cameroon allocated in 1990, 16.9 percent of its budget to education, Canada slightly less: 15.6 percent. In absolute terms however, Canada spent $4600 USD per pupil in pre-primary, primary and secondary school, compared with only $94 USD in Cameroon. Another example is that of two more comparable countries: Spain and Morocco, which assigned respectively 9.7 percent (ill 15)89) and 76.3 percent (in 1991) of their budgets to education. The distribution of the education budget between the various levels is similar: around 35 per-

cent to primary, 45 percent to secondary and 15 percent to higher education. However, Spain, notwithstanding its relatively small effort on education, spent some $1300 USD per primary pupil and about $1750 USD per higher student. Morocco, giving great priority to primary education, spent around $13 5 USD per primary pupil and $800 USD per higher student. The contrast becomes still more extreme when comparison is made between LDCs and developed countries. Burkina Faso assigned throughout the 1980s more than 15 percent of its budget to education, Austria less than 10 percent. In 1989, Burkina allotted 17.5 percent to education and spent $55 USD per primary pupil and $175 USD per secondary. In 1991, Austria, another 7.6 percent to education, spent $3070 USD and $4600 USD respectively per pupil.

The question then is how to ensure, knowing the I intuits in government spending, that basic education for all can nonetheless be achieved. Three general answers are fairly obvious and were proposed by the WCEFA Framework for Action.



First, it is imperative to attract resources from outside government, that is to say from other beneficiaries of education such as students, parents, communities and employers. This is part of what Jomtien has called 'building partnerships'.

Second, there is a need to use resources more efficiently. At primary level this implies first and foremost increasing the efficiency of teachers, as they are the greatest resource in use. This question will soon be addressed in more detail below, as it figures prominently in most education sector adjustment programmes.

The third strategy combines elements of the above two: it proposes to reallocate resources to basic education. This proposal forms part of the recommendations of the WCEFA and of MINEDAF Vl and receives support from most donor agencies. Sufficient data is not available to allow us to judge if this recommendation has so far been implemented. It is certain however, that attempts are made to cut government spending on higher education (especially spending on scholarships and various welfare services) and that this has led to wide spread protests and not only on the part of students. Tile protesters mistakenly believe they are defending equity and the right to education for all.

The need to expand higher education quickly after independance and to use scholarships to achieve this end, can be easily understood when one realises that there were only 1200 university graduates in sub-Sahara Africa he 1960. As long as only a few students were enrol led in higher education? the system of indiscriminate scholarships and subsidies was sustainable. However, the continued subsidising of poor *and* rich students in rapidly expanding universities has led governments to cut down on the quantity and quality of primary education and has forced parents to contribute increasingly to the costs of this education. This has led to the deplorable situation that, in a country such as Lesotho, parents' contributions are estimate to be substantially higher at primary and secondary level than at the tertiary level .A similar although less extreme situation exists in Zambia, where:

> university students are expected to pay K4300 per year, or about nine percent of the cost of their education. It is estimated that parents contribute about K1000 or about double the per student Government contribution For the direct and indirect costs of primary education (World Bank 1992a).

The result is that very few poor people can afford the cost of sending a child to primary and secondary school. The indiscriminate subsidising of higher education thus benefits mainly the more well-to-do students who are the majority at that level, and contributes at the same time to decreasing educational opportunities for the genuinely poor.

This in no way serves equity. The Cameroon government spends almost $3000 USD per student in higher education, and Burkina Faso spends

even more, $3700 USD. In general, the disparity in expenditure per pupil between primary and higher education is very high in most African countries: the Central African Republic and Zaire spend about 35 times as much on one tertiary student as on one primary. One student in higher education costs the governments of Ghana and Zambia fifty times as much as a primary school pupil. Compare this to the situation in the South-East Asian countries: Malaysia spends only eight times as much, Thailand twice as much on a tertiary student as compared to a primary pupil, and the South Korean government actualIy spends more on a primary than on a tertiary student, about twice as much.

The alternatives to this inequitable system are well known, the most obvious being a combination of loans and selective scholarships. Another, but more costly alternative is adopted in Botswana, where government awards scholarships 'on condition that the holder is bonded for the length of period of study plus one year, paying five percent of his or her salary during this period as reimbursement to government' (Youngman 1992).

The implementation of such schemes, or better still the abolishment of the present scheme, is not a technical but a political problem. In this regard, a donor's insistence on reallocating spending toward primary education, justified on economic and social grounds, might well be counterproductive in solving the political problem, since the reallocation may be interpreted by its victims as the result of external pressure and not as an internal need, and an act of surrender by government to foreign interests as against the interests of the people. The use of conditionalities as a strategy to change education policies is of Iittle use for two main reasons. First, the intervention by a foreign interest in this politically sensitive field seems to increase rather than weaken the resistance toward change. Memories of colonial and neo-colonial oppression are still alive on the African continent. Second, to convince through coercion does not guarantee a successful implementation of policies, in a case where the true conviction of administrators, teachers, parents and other partners is crucial to success.

Quality and Role of Teachers

Since the main concern of education sector programmes is with quality and with institution-buiIding, it is interesting to see what impact the programmes have on the one institution central to an education system, the school, and on the one group crucial to teaching quality, the teachers. In later paragraphs the issue of how the change in aid modalities can affect institution-building will be discussed. At present, the concern is with teachers.

Teachers' salaries constitute the largest part of the education budget. Out of 27 African countries for which recent data is available, only one country spends less than 50 percent of its education budget on salaries (teachers and administrative staff combined), while 19 countries spend more than 70 percent, with 5 of them more than 90 percent. At the primary level, the burden of salaries is still heavier. Of 26 countries, only one spends less than 70 percent on salaries while 20 spend more than 90 percent, 17 of them more than 95 percent. At the same time, teachers still regularly complain about their working conditions, and those who know their situation can understand why.

Concern for the predicament of teachers is indeed not limited to teachers' union. The WCEFA and MINEDAF Vl as well gave attention to this issue. The World Declaration of WCEFA demanded that: 'the terms and conditions of service of teachers and their status, which constitute a determining factor in the implementation of education for all, must be urgently improved' (article 7). In the same vein, MINEDAF Vl recommended: 'enhancing the status of the teaching profession and the function of educators' (Recommendation 1). The WCEFA Framework for Action is more specific than these recommendations:

> The pre-eminent role of 'teachers as well as of 'other educational personnel in providing quality basic education needs to be recognised and developed to optimise their contribution. This must entail measures to respect teachers' trade union rights and processional freedoms, and to improve their working conditions and status, notably in respect to their recruitment, initial and in-service training, remuneration and career development possibilities, as well as to allow teachers to fulfiI their aspiration social obligations, and ethical responsibilities.

African governments thus need to find ways to decrease the cost of teachers, and use them more cost-effectively, while at the same time increasing their motivation through improving their working conditions. Donors have assisted African governments in identifying strategies for the purpose. They have shown willingness to fund some recurrent spending, realising that the financing of salaries in particular forms the main constraint on expanding primary education. The Swedish, Dutch and Danish cooperation agencies, for example, have committed themselves to increased funding of recurrent expenditures within long-term sector support rather than project support (Buchert, 1994).

One needs now to examine in more detail the attitude of governments and donors towards the issue of teachers' motivation and the need to increase teachers' cost-efficiency. In probably all countries, salaries represent the largest single part of the education budget, as education is indeed a very labour-intensive business. But the African situation is peculiar in three ways. First, salaries still gobble up more in Africa than elsewhere. Second, and more important, as the budget is already small, much less is left for other purposes. Recent data show non-salary expenditure per primary pupil in sub-Saharan Africa to amount to only about $3.00 USD. If this has to suffice to buy books and didactic materials, to upgrade classrooms and other items, there is great cause for worry. Third, in a decreasing budget the share of salaries grows as this is generally the last item to be cut. This happened in the 1 980s, when the economic crisis in many countries led to cuts in real tends in the education budget. The trend could well continue in this decade, especially in the poorest countries.

However, cuts in teachers' salaries is not only politically suicidal, it is also not the correct strategy. It is easy to claim that teachers' salaries are too high in Africa, especially in Francophone Africa. One needs only to compare these salaries with GNPper capita and observe that indeed in some cases they are 5 to 1O times as high as GNP per capita, while in other world regions the difference is much smaller. The World Bank, in its well known study on 'Education in sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalisation and Expansion', uses this comparison as its main argument for recommending a decrease ill teachers' salaries.

The comparison, however, is misleading. First, GNP per capita is not at all equal to average income, as the 'capita' includes all people in a country, employed and unemployed, young and old. When compared for example to the average wage ill the manufacturing or the service sector, teachers' salaries are not much higher, and in some cases even lower. No recent data could be found, but the following examples for nine African countries[2] from 1985 or 1986 make the point:

> in six of the nine countries primary teachers earned an average salary that \vas less than the average \wage of stenographer/typists. and in six out of eight countries teachers. On the average. earned more than auto mechanics. The mean relative wages of primary teachers to stenographer/typists and to auto mechanics are ().75 and 1.22, respectively. 'Two extreme examples exist. Mali and Cape Verde. in which teachers are paid less than both these other occupations (Zymelman. 1993).

Second, the fact that teacllers' salaries in terms of GNP per capita are higher in Africa than in the developed countries or in Latin America should not be unexpected, as the total number of people employed is much higher in those regions. In other words, it is easier to have a relatively high income in a very poor place where few people work than in a relatively rich place where most people work.

Third, to decide on the Fright' level of teachers' salaries is not merely a matter of a comparison between countries.

> The adequacy on' teacher salaries to attract and retain good teachers and the desirability and feasibility of reducing teacher salaries to lower unit costs. must be analysed and solved on a country by country basis. Simplistic observations, such as that teacher salaries as a percentage of gross national product per capita in sub-Sahara Africa are too high compared with other regions axed therefor have to be lowered. ignore not only economic and institutional Actors involved in setting salaries but also the possible adverse impact on teachers' productivity of lowering their salaries inordinately (Zymelman, 1993).

In simple terms, teachers' salaries are not high enough if they are not able to attract and retain motivated people of high quality.

However, although it is thus virtually impossible to decrease individual teachers' salaries, it is feasible to decrease the overall salary bill. For example, newly recruited teachers may have less formal qualifications (for instance secondary school rather than university) and start therefore on a lower level on the salary scale. This is parti-

cularly attractive in those countries where there are many unemployed secondary school graduates, as in most African countries. The problem here of course is with the effect on quality and student achievement. Several studies show, however, that the level of qualifications of teachers, above a certain minimum, has little if any impact on teaching quality. It is important that teachers have a level of schooling at least just above that of the students they are teaching. More intense in-service training can be given, if necessary, to ensure the upgrading of these teachers. Countries like Burkina Faso, The Gambia and Senegal have in recent years implemented such a strategy, with beneficial impact on the budget although not always without problems. In Senegal, for example, the government planned, in the framework of an IDA sponsored education project, to increase the share of 'instituteurs adjoints' (teaching assistants) to 80 percent of new recruits, the remaining 20 percent being 'instituteurs' (teachers)[3] However, during the project's first two years the share of 'instituteurs adjoints' was smaller than before and after four years had risen to only 59 percent. Various factors seem to have played a role: the lack of suitable 'lower qualified' candidates, teacher resistance, and the overall low level of recruitment.

Such a strategy is not being implemented everywhere. Countries with higher enrolment and less financial constraints than Burkina Faso or Senegal follow a different course. Botswana, Lesotho and Mauritius for instance are advised to increase teachers' qualifications, since it is believed that this would have a positive impact on teaching quality. This indicates that the argument that pre-service qualifications are of little importance to teaching quality needs careful consideration. Financial rather than pedagogical arguments are used by donors to justify the recruitment of staff with less pre-service qualifications.

A second way of increasing a teacher's cost effectiveness involves making him or her work more for the same pay, rather than to pay him or her less for the same work. This means that ways must be found to enrol more children for the same number of teachers, possibly by increasing the pupil/teacher (P/T) ratio. This has become a recurrent theme in most sectoral adjustment programmes funded by donor agencies.

Various studies have shown that, within certain limits, it is possible to increase pupil/teacher ratios to around 45/1 without a negative influence on pupil achievement. It must be noted, however, that such an increase is not at ail feasible everywhere as suggested by the following most recent data of pupil/teacher data in sub-Saharan Africa (25 in 5 countries; 25-34 in 14 countries; 35-44 in 12 countries; 45-54 in 7 countries; and 55 in 9 countries). In 16 out of 47 countries, the ratio is now already above 45/1. Such averages moreover hide big differences. Classes in capital cities such as Ouagadougou, Dakar or Bangui have regularly more than 100 students. And lower grades will almost always be worse off in this respect than higher grades. Neither are pupil/teacher ratios the same as pupil/class ratios. In Lesotho for instance, while the primary pupil/teacher ratio 55, the pupil/classroom ratio is 67. These excessively high ratios are used moreover as an excuse, *a sort of alibi for teachers who, faced with such num - bers, claim to see all their efforts come to nothing* (Burkina Faso, 1993)

Only in 19 countries is the pupil/teacher ratio lower than 34, and in a few of them there has even been a decrease in recent years. Such a decrease is not always a result of inefficient use of teachers, or of a concern for quality. It can be related to an expansion of the education system in rural areas where smaller classes are normal, or even to a decrease in enrolment unaccompanied by a decrease in the number of teachers.

It was mentioned above the claim that, within certain limits, an increase in pupil/teacher ratio does not have a negative impact on student achievement. Various studies, for instance in Zambia and Senegal, confirm this. However, achievement is mainly assessed in terms of test success. Doubts exist as to the effect of large classes on the personal and social development of the child:

> parents and teachers recognise the value of personal attention. and the importance of relationships with supportive adults; it takes a quite exceptional teacher to develop individual relationships with pupils, or to give personal attention to those with special needs in such large classes. Smaller classes could make possible a more interactive pedagogy and a wider range 0t' valuable learning outcomes (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1991).

An IDA study in Burkina Faso showed that high pupil/teacher ratios are inversely related to the acquisition of those skills which are more complex than the simple cognitive ones, such as problem-resolution, comprehension of texts, and ability to communicate. Moreover:

> studies in inner cities in the USAshow that low pupil/teacher ratios are particularly beneficial to children from a disadvantaged background. Indeed, for them the teacher is one of' the few if not the only learned person they meet. For better-off children the lack of teacher attention resulting from high pupil teacher ratios can much easier be compensated by increased attention from parents private tutors .and by the provision of educational materials (UNESCO-Dakar, 1993a).

The fact that, as in the case of 'lower-qualified' teachers, such a strategy is easily recommended for countries belonging to the Group A countries of MINEDAF Vl (low enrolment, severe financial limitations). But it is not a strategy for countries with more room for manoeuvre, where sometimes a decrease in pupil/teacher ratios is advisable.

Not with standing the above, many governments are attempting, generally withal the framework of World Bank education projects, to increase pupil/teacher ratios. In Kenya, for instance, the government has committed itself to increase pupil/teacher ratio at primary level to 40/1, from its present level of 31/1. A similar commitment has been made in The Gambia, where the increase would be from 32 to 45 (the ratio stood at 24 in 19801. However, increasing pupil/teacher ratios is not a simple mathematical operation. There are various strategies but none of them are straightforward.

Double-shift schooling is a well known strategy throughout the world. The teacher works with two cohorts of students, generally one cohort in the morning and another in the afternoon. The teacher receives a salary increase, but smaller than what the extra workload would justify. The students' schooldays is obviously shorter, but this could be compensated by lengthening the week and even the school year. Over and above the savings for government, there are two other possible advantages. Class sizes can become some what smaller. Even with classes of 35 students, one could still have a single teacher covering 70 students, and the teacher being paid only slightly more than whelp he or she was covering, say, 50 students. Double shift schooling could also decrease private costs by allowing students to combine school attendance with some employment or house-keeping for a working mother. This strategy is used in several African urban areas, for example in countries such as Ethiopia, The Gambia, Zimbabwe and Senegal. Double-shift classes are now being introduced also in Burkina Faso. The fourth IDA education project here foresees phasing in double-shift teaching in about 590 classrooms with one teacher for two cohorts of 55 pupils each, and paying an appropriate salary supplement to these teachers. The effect of this strategy on teacher motivation however is not clear. Much would depend on implementation conditions and the amount of the salary increment. Scattered evidence from several countries shows strong teacher resistance to double-shift teaching. Indeed, one could not blame a teacher for not wishing to teach two classes of 55 students each in one day, even if the school environment were not so deplorable.

A very different strategy needs to be implemented in rural areas; where classes are generally small. The obvious solution here is to merge classes of different grades. This 'multigrade teachings exists in many countries, for example in Lyle Gambia, Cameroon or Zambia. The fourth IDA education project in Burkina Faso foresees phasing in multigrade teaching in about 840 classrooms with an average pupil/teacher ratio of less than 40/1. One result of this strategy will of course be an increase in class size. If this increase is as high as planned in Burkina, with class sizes of more than 70 students, then the effect on quality of teaching is called into question. However, one advantage of the strategy lies in the possibility it offers to extend primary schools, which offer only four grades, to full six grade primary schools. Two important elements must be considered before introducing multigrade teaching: classroom size (are classrooms big enough to house 60 or 70 students?) and, of course, teacher training. One cannot expect teachers overnight to start teaching two different grades.

Rather than deciding at a central level on the 'correct' pupil/teacher ratios one could envisage allowing schools some leeway ill deciding for themselves. while setting standards at a central level.

> The present Gem of assigning resources to schools contains no penalty for over-establishment and no benefit from under establishment the system could be modified so the supernumerary staff above the norm (e.g. the average pupil/teacher ratio one wants to achieve) would have to be financed from other sources Schools below the standard ratio, short of teachers, could be compensated for this by making the salary shortfall money or some proportion of it available for any legitimate purposes (Lewin and Berstecher, 1989).

This proposal is attractive, but demands a decentralisation of decision-making which does not yet exist in most African countries. Such a decentralisation is not easy to achieve, in particular at the primary level, and perhaps it is not even desirable.

As was mentioned above, the effect of an increase in pupil/teacher ratios on teacher motivation and student achievement is not clear and the available evidence is sometimes contradictory. Some points apply to all of these strategies and need to be stressed, as follows:

- It is dangerous to focus too much on unit cost per pistil and to forget that a particular strategy might lead to an increase in unit cost per graduate.

- Teachers must, as a minimum requirement, be informed before the implementation of any strategy, which would have an impact on their working conditions. Ideally, they should be involved in its design.

- Teachers and headmasters must receive some form of training before they are asked to take on two grades or two cohorts of students. Managing a double-shift school is not a simple task and headmasters must be prepared.

- Finally, an information campaign for parents and students must be part of any strategy with a direct impact on their school habits.

All these are obvious points, but they tend to be easily forgotten in the rush toward a more cost-efficient teaching force. The realisation of such strategies will be facilitated if teachers can at the same time be more highly motivated.

It cannot be stressed enough that teachers are crucial to a successful education system, more so in developing countries than elsewhere. Indeed, in a context where didactic materials are lacking, where school buildings are dilapidated, where students come to school with their own chair but without textbooks, and where family support to students is weak, in such a context the teacher is the final guarantee of an education of quality, the only one who ensures that teaching and learning are actually taking place.

As already commented, the decrease in salaries which has distressed African teachers over the last ten to fifteen years. similarly distressing to them has been the degradation of their working environment. Classrooms without chairs and with broken down desks, a blackboard which has not been replaced in twenty years, no chalk, a school with sometimes running water but without electricity, no toilets, very few textbooks, broken down roofs, ten year old teacher guides, not to mention no map of the world, this is probably more the norm than the exception. That so many teachers in such poor circumstances continue to do their best and continue to teach Africa's children invites respect and admiration.

Salaries are thus only one element in increasing teacher motivation. This fact is sometimes used as an argument for not increasing salaries. However, salaries are indeed a crucial factor in influencing teacher motivation. Also, the importance of the financial factor probably increases in an economic crisis, as it becomes more difficult to survive even 011 a regular salary.

In several countries salaries have been raised substantially in recent years. But salary increases have given rise to a tremendous drain on the education budget, and in many cases on the whole national budget, since teachers are generally part of the civil service and all civil servants are automatically included in the salary increase. If only for this reason, most governments look for alternative ways of increasing teacher motivation.

Some of these ways involve a change in the salary structure. It is claimed in these cases that the existing salary structure, which is based on formal qualifications and length of service, does not motivate teachers, since it does not reward superior performance or extra effort. An alternative is to introduce career ladders, whereby promotion is not automatic but depends on seniority, professional competence, and performance in disservice training. A promotion leads also to increased responsibilities such as assisting younger teachers, organising in-service training courses, working as bookkeeper, and so on. Also teachers are al lowest to leave teaching for a while so as to work at the

Ministry of Education or in a regional office. Such a structure is indeed welcome as many teachers feel a need to see clear career prospects and to develop their own capacities.

The such scheme was recently implemented with donor assistance in Lesotho. Before 1991, without obtaining additional formal qualifications, there was no career progression possible in the teaching service, except for small increases based on seniority. since 1991, however:

> a new career structure, based partially on seniority and partially on merit, has been adopted to allow career progression without the acquisition of further formal educational qualifications. The new career structure involves the creation of senior teacher and resource teacher posts at primary levels and recognition for heading departments at secondary level (World Bank, 1991).

The District Resource Teacher is placed in a selected primary school in each sub-district to provide ongoing guidance to staff at the base school and neighbouring schools, and he/she receives special funds to hold workshops. Seventy such teachers had to be trained before end 1994.

Very few donor-funded projects or programmes address the issue of teachers' salaries. This is understandable, because donors are not eager to fund 'recurrent' expenditure and even less eager to touch such a politically delicate issue. They often assist in activities which have a positive influence on teachers, but are not included in the programme expressly for that particular purpose. The Sierra Leone National Education Action Plan is fairly typical of the type of programme that does not concern itself directly with teachers' salaries but aims at improving teaching conditions by various other means such as the rehabilitation of schools, construction of headmaster housing, publication of teachers' guides, construction of one centrally located resource and documentation centre, and in-service training of teachers. To some extent, almost any action aimed at improving the quality of education will have an effect on teaching conditions. The interest here however is only with those actions which have as their main objective the improvement of teaching conditions and strengthening the morale of teachers.

One original proposal is to be introduced as a pilot project in Senegal, as part of the World Bank financed Human Resources Development Programme. Schools are to be asked to propose projects for their own benefit, and some of these proposals some will be chosen for funding by the Programme. The projects should focus on improving the quality of education and on girls' participation. For reasons of equity, 60 percent of the project grants will be awarded to 'high-risk' schools.

Two other factors which play a role in motivating teachers relate to the condition of school facilities and the supervision of teachers.

The maintenance and, where necessary, rehabilitation of schools is central to the improvement of the school environment. School maintenance ought to be the task of the community. Urgent action is also needed in the provision of stationery and other basic didactic materials for schools. The World Bank financed Education Rehabilitation Project in Zambia will provide each primary school with a teaching kit comprising wall charts, maps, globes, reference materials and blackboard instruments. Each school will also receive a set of 150 books. As this type of support is not available in every country, a less ambitious alternative could be that of forming school clusters by grouping together a number of schools located close to one another, and providing each cluster with one small school library. As will be seen later, such clusters can be useful ill other contexts.

Many teachers work ill small schools in remote villages, where they seldom see a colleague or rarely have a book to read, and from where to travel to a town is a full day's journey. Regular visits by inspectors and some pedagogical support is vital in such a context. But the remoteness of the villages makes it difficult to manage such regular inspection and support. An alternative in these cases consists of promoting contacts between teachers and small schools. It is crucial to a teacher to be able to discuss formally and informally his or her problems, the bad experiences, and the good ideas. Peer contacts therefore need to be promoted. In larger schools, the kind of leadership, given by the headmaster is of great significance in this regard. For smaller schools, the composition of school clusters can help in giving such support: specialised teachers can be shared or training can be organised, especially if such a cluster includes one secondary school with several primary schools. If this is not the case, experienced tea-

chers can be assigned to such a cluster. They will receive a somewhat higher salary and will work as trainers and resource teachers. Lee Lesotho 'district resource teachers' are an example of this strategy.

The attitudes of donors towards teachers' issues waver between the realisation that teachers are crucial to quality and to an efficient education system, and a preoccupation with increasing their cost-effectiveness. On the one hand, several measures are proposed to improve teaching conditions. On the other hand, however, the central issue of salaries is seldom addressed; and when it is, the demand is generally for a decrease, and proposals are made which will inevitably make life harder for teachers. The two times 55 pupils double-shift system in Burkina Faso is a good example.

There remain other questions in connection with programme aid. These relate mainly to its impact on equity, as discussed in other chapters of this report. In summary, the point being made in this regard is that the stress on increasing non-government contributions to the cost of education will have the effect of decreasing demand for education by poor families and households.

Modalities of External Assistance

The focus on the policy environment raises a different set of issues relating to aid modalities.

> Traditional assistance was typically provided through projects in which foreign experts and donor agency staff played a key role. Sometimes its substance was hardly known to those affected by its interventions. This approach was possible because the level of resistance to hardware-induced quality improvement measures was limited since more and better hardware is generally considered desirable. Such projects could, therefore, be introduced fairly effectively following a 'top-down' approach without much consultation. This approach will not be effective for process-oriented assistance because measures that necessitate behavioural changes on the part of the stake holders in the education process are seldom effectively implemented unless those affected are adequately consulted during their preparation and motivated to cooperate in their implementation (Frederiksen, 1990).

Donors seem to have taken note of this observation and have one way or another attempted to increase the involvement of local partners, both in programme preparation for example through policy analysis, as well as in programme implementation. One characteristic of the World Bank's Sectoral investment Loan is the transfer of responsibilities traditionally held by the Bank to the borrower. The EDF, in its follow-up of the recommendations of Lome IV, has increasingly diversified its partners: rather than working solely with national authorities, it now works also with NCOs, regional administrations, local communities and professional associations. This implies a decrease in the use of expatriate technical assistance. Criticism of the more prescriptive form of international cooperation has grown in recent years and so has the desire to replace it with local alternatives which are cheaper and more appropriate for ensuring sustainability.

Several other questions remain, some of them quite practical. For example, the EDF notes that project management becomes more intricate when it attempts to involve more local partners, as important questions then need to be answered regarding the choice of the partner, the type of contract and the follow-up appropriate to each partner. As a result, management units need to be created.

> But the lifetime of such units is limited and the transfer of their tasks to the national administration, at the end of the programme, is at times difficult (European Commission. 1995).

This refers to an underlying problem. Countries where policies are not supportive and which are thus most in need of policy adjustment programmes, are precisely those countries where public management is weak, where corruption is rampant, where institutions are zombie-like. Such countries cannot be expected to be usefully and independently involved ill programme preparation and implementation.

There seems thus to exist a contradiction between the desire to involve the recipient country and the desire to develop policy-adjustment programmes. Firstly, countries where policies are not supportive do not have the capacity to do policy-analysis, to develop large-scale programmes, and more so to manage and implement such programmes successfully. Secondly, the dialogue between donors and a recipient country is not at all a dialogue of equals. Donors have a very clear idea of which policies they prefer and have the financial and technical clout to 'convince' local partners to

accept their ideas, The dialogue with the local authorities is then merely an empty act. It is a moot point whether sectoral adjustment programmes are not as much vaulted at present now as projects used to be. A final question, one which defies easy answer, is whether it is not naive to rely on local partners to define national assistance needs, since each of these partners has its own particular interests and its own position to defend.

The above remarks point to a crucial element in the development of the new type of assistance, namely the need to strengthen local institutions. The realisation that national ownership of aid programmes would be hard to achieve if national capacity and decision-making did not improve has made capacity-building to become the aid metaphor (King 1992). The success of a programme indeed depends to a great extent on the strength of national institutions. In this regard how to explain the World Bank staff strategy of creating institutions whose primary if not sole aim is to implement Bank programmes. Therefore:

> is a need to clarify the intentions behind attempts to build capacity outside existing institutions, structures and current leadership and management. For whose benefit is capacity built and how usable will it be for the society itself ? (Erneta/Norrag, l992).

One question in particular needs to be answered, as to whether one needs to work with existing institutions rather than to build new ones. The answers so far have been conflicting. But while it is true that existing institutions are weak, there is a good reason in favour of using them.

> Capacity building linked to the criterion Or institutional development means that donors have to use the ordinary routes to get things done and should not have recourse to special agency arrangements(King, 1992).

The use of existing organisations helps in evaluating local commitment. If these local organisations are not interested in preparing the proposed programme or are not able to implement it, then the programme's sustainability is seriously in doubt. Ale thing is clear, however, that a situation whereby two conflicting systems exist, one local and one donor-supported, is undesirable.

A matter which has received increasing emphasis in discussions on aid modalities, is that concerning the need for coordination among donors and between donors and the recipient country. Several coordinating mechanisms have been set up; the most active probably being the Donors to African Education, which has various working groups on different modalities of cooperation. Coordination is a complicated task, not only because it runs counter to the traditions of many agencies, but equally because it involves coordination not only among the donors themselves but also at the national level, both with and between the different ministries and partners involved. What may be a success story in this regard is the case of Botswana? where such national coordination exists, and where a division of labour between donors has taken place around sectors rather than projects, with the initiative coming from the Botswana government (Hopkins 1994).

While coordination between donors is more than welcome, it carries certain risks, as it greatly reinforces the donors' position ill dialogue with government. The result could be that donors impose internationally decided priorities on a government, without regard for specific national characteristics and constraints, and that internationally developed plans and programmes will replace nationally decided and supported ones.

Conclusion

International assistance to education has undergone profound changes he recent years, partly because of the influence of WCEFA and of MINEDAF Vl. The trend towards greater expenditure on basic education, the willingness to consider the funding of recurrent expenditures, the attention to the role of a supportive policy environment, and the realisation that assistance programmes will be of little assistance if recipients are not involved in programme design and implementation? are all welcome. It is true that many of these trends are only tentative so far and that their continued realisation will demand, from donors as welI as recipients, a break with tradition.

One big problem still remains to be solved, that of how to harmonise the desire to increase the involvement of recipients with the growing use of aid conditionalities. On the one hand, donors ideally want a government to work out its own policy, to attract national support for that policy and to be committed to its implementation. That commitment is a minimum requirement for the donors.

However, policies as proposed by governments could be different from those which donors consider correct. Assuming that national support and political commitment to policies proposed by donors could be absent, can donors then refuse funding? This is not only a moral question but a political and a practical one: will such a refusal help in ensuring commitment? Can a donor such as the World Bank whose existence depends on lending, refuse to lend for a longtime? Or can a bilateral donor, for whom geopolitical influence is probably weightier than the recommendations of the WCEFA, do the same?

Aid conditionalities would be easier to accept if they contributed to a meaningful dialogue. This however is seldom the case. Not only is the relative power of donor and recipient so different; but also donors have another advantage, in their freedom to envisage the best policies in a purely rational way, without having to take into account political factors, which severely restrict a governments' room for manoeuvre, such as the need for political survival, and the interests of the different social groups.

To ask whether international assistance should be given without any conditions is to a large extent a rhetorical question, as few donors will ever think of offering un-conditional aid. But the considerations indicated above cannot go unheeded, and they point to an urgent need to strengthen national decision-making processes and institutions. Those processes and institutions, however, need to be representative of national opinion, rather than of particular private or sectoral interests.

These are matters in connection with which UNESCO had played a technical orientation role. Assisting countries in policy-analysis, strengthening their training institutes, funding local research and promoting exchange of experiences. These are the modalities of UNESCO's assistance and they need to be further worked out and strongly pursued. Answers need to be found to burning questions such as what could be the impact of training in countries where salaries are low and working conditions miserable; howcan technical assistance become a successful strategy for counterpart training; and how to ensure that institutions become independent of international funding. At the same time, UNESCO must emphasise the importance of a democratic political environment and cooperate in the creation of such an environment.

Notes

1. Expenditure on education can be expressed in different ways. A favourite alternative is to use the share of GNP allotted. In this context, share of government budget was preferred, since it shows more clearly the level of commitment to education and since it is a factor which governments obviously influence.

2. Benin, Burkina, Burundi, Cape Verde, Kenya, Mali, Rwanda sierra Leone, Zambia

3. 'Instituteurs adjoints' have a lower secondary degree. 'instituteurs' a higher secondary.

Conclusion

In 1995, 'Gouvernments and organisations undertake mid-term evaluation of the implementation of their respective Education for all plans'. It is within this context that this report on the state of education in Africa was prepared. To conclude this report, observations will be summed up through a few key words: transition, questioning, shift in trends, solidarity, prospects.

Transition

After the 80s decade which were lost for Africa, do the 90's augur for better prospects for global development in general and educational development in particular? This decade is characterised by significative changes that occurred at the world level, being in the political (end of the cold war), economic (triumphant liberalism) social domain (the impact of information on social changes). Anxiety and optimism intermingle in the African context.

Combined internal and structural factors: economic dependence, uncontrolled demography, the debt burden, political instability and external factors such as effects of the world economic environment, volatile prices of raw materials, sharp decrease of resource transfer as public development funding, increase the continent's marginalisation. Indeed, Africa is currently undergoing an economic and social crisis characterised mainly by a fall in production, an increase in unemployment and the aggravation of poverty, all this in spite of the adoption of structural adjustment programmes.

Optimism is nevertheless justified because this period seems in many spheres, to be one of transition. It is transition towards peace in South Africa, Angola, Mozambique, pending the end of these conflicts: Liberia, Rwanda, Somalia, Sudan. Political transition towards democratisation characterised by free choice and participation. These trends are conducive to economic transition towards greater collective self-reliance and through the setting-up of major groupings.

Education which was badly affected by the upheavals of the economic and social crisis was considered as top priority at the beginning of this decade by the famous World Declaration on Education for all, Jomtien, 1990. This declaration inspired the educational strategies for the 90's in Africa advocated by the Sixth Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in the African Member-States (MINEDAF Vl), July 1991.

Shift in Negative Trends

At the qualitative level, a number of observations are highlighted from the overview on educational development in relation with Jomtien and MINEDAF Vl objectives. Concerning pre-school education, enrolments reached 3 millions in 1988, 3,900,000 in 1991, these are 7 percent of the age group concerned. Progress are, therefore, real since the proportion of girls in enrolments increased to 47 percent in sub-Saharan Africa in 1992. Despite these progress, most governments even when they are aware of the considerable advantages of pre-school education, seem nevertheless to have concentrated their attention on other priorities.

In 1988, the gross enrolment ratio (GER) at primary level in Africa stood at 73 percent, having decreased from 79 percent ill 1980. It was not so much the low level of this rate as its downward trend that was worrying. Indeed, since the period 1960-1980, the GER had increased from 42 percent to 79 percent and a continuation of this earlier trend throughout the 1 980s would have turned 'education for all by the year 2000' into a reality rather than an ambitious challenge. There is some evidence that the expected reversal of the downward trend in the 1 990s was at first achieved. The GER stabilised in 1990 at 72.9 percent, increased in 1991 to 74.4 percent but decreased slightly to 74.3 percent in 1992. White it is true that the number of children enrolled in primary schools has increased (from 76.4 million in 1988 to 86.1 million in 1992), the same is true for the number of out-of-school children of primary school age (from 43 million in 1988 to 51 million in 1992).

These various data should be replaced within the framework of the educational strategies for the 90's. Indeed, MINEDAF Vl considered that 'a number of strategic lines of thrust can be said to emerge spontaneously from the current levels reached by the different countries and from an examination of the policies which they have announced or adopted. Educational development strategies can be set out in three phases covering the whole range of objectives which any national education or training system have to fulfil but starting with basic education, which has to be subject to expansion, universalisation or consolidation, depending on the case'.

MINEDAF Vl recommended to countries with a net enrolment ratio of or less than 40 percent to define educational strategies centred on expanding basic education (primary education and literacy) and improving its quality.

There are seventeen countries concerned. From the global data, it can be deducted that gross enrolment ratios at primary education progressed from one to 11 percentage points in 9 countries and stagnated or decreased in the other countries. The situation in Somalia and Liberia cannot be assessed. In the area of illiteracy between 1990 and 1995 literacy rates for the 15 years olds and above increased from 1 to 18 points in 9 countries. To what extent have educational policies of the countries concerned been influenced by Jomtien and MINEDAF Vl? For illustration monographic studies were conducted on three countries: Burkina Faso, Senegal and sierra Leone. The result was that preoccupation for basic education was clear. The formulation of educational policies follows two main approaches. One called follow up to Jomtien leads to the preparation of education for all action plans. The second one results from the education sector adjustment plans. The latter favour the promotion of basic education with a strong emphasis on primary education.

Strategies aimed at generalising basic education were suggested to a second group of 13 countries: Benin, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, The Gambia, Ghana, Madagascar, Malawi, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Uganda, Zaire. What happened to these countries which in 1988 had literacy and schooling rates around the African average, this is to say respectively 49.9 percent and 80 percent? Between 1988 and 1992 schooling rates increased in 7 countries from 1 to 7 percentage points. on the whole, girls schooling did not decrease except in only one country. Concerning literacy, the rates for the 15 years olds and above improved in 9 countries. on the whole trends towards decrease that had been observed between 1980 and 1985 are reversing with the implementation of adequate educational policies, as confirmed by case studies on Nigeria and Uganda.

A third group of countries has or almost achieved universal basic education in 1988. On the other hand, illiteracy remains a major preoccupation. Educational strategies will therefore aim at promoting literacy, qualitative change and improving learning conditions in general. On the whole 19 countries are concerned: Algeria, Angola, Botswana, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya, Mauritius, Namibia, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. 'Will the level of educational development reached be sustained and strengthened during the period under consideration, or will it be affected by setbacks in economic growth and by financial constraints?' In other words, will strategies to consolidate achievements be effective? Four case studies: Cameroon, Cape Verde, Egypt and Mauritius confirm the rationale for these questions already asked by participants in MINEDAF Vl.

In Cameroon, an acute economic crisis affects the education sector and its weakest component. Thus pupils enrolment in primary education dropped 23 percent per year between 1990 and 1994. On the other hand, the National Forum on Education was organised in May 1995. It appeared very clearly from this forum that priority will be given to basic education and that there is a will to improve its quality by revising its curricula.

In spite of serious economic constraints, constant efforts have been made by Cape Verde to promote education. This is taking place within the framework of a general reform of the educational system which, overall, aims at: consolidation of achievements, expansion of literacy with a view to the eradication of illiteracy soon, the setting up of a complete system of education and training capable of responding to the manpower needs of the country.

In Egypt, the educational system is not spared by crisis. For instance, half of the 25,000 primary schools do not meet the minimum equipment and health standards which would be conducive to quality education. In order to face up to the situation the education sector has been elevated to the rank of national security priority. The 1990s have been declared decade for the eradication of illiteracy and decade of the Egyptian child. This option translate into reality through appropriate budget allocations to education and through mobilisation of national solidarity for supplementary resources ill a spirit of new and active partnership.

The case of Mauritius shows the various and reciprocal links which exist between education, economic development and social changes. Economic policies directed towards full employment and integrating a highly competitive world market had required among others very skilled human resources. The educational sector was made to contribute by providing the necessary skills. It should continue in the same track in order for the country to keep its rhythm of growth old take up the various related challenges.

For the review of educational strategies to be complete, it should be recalled that it was suggested to all countries on the continent to reduce their literacy rates by half for the 1990-2000 period. In 1996 the Iiteracy rate in Sub-Saharan Africa for the 15 year olds and above is estimated at 66 percent for men and 46 percent for women against 59 percent and 37 percent in 1990. Achievements are not just of quantitative nature since the impact of the programmes tends to go beyond the level of elementary literacy both for their functional character and emphasis laid on post-literacy and measures to create a literate environment.

Questioning

In spite of the above mentioned efforts, education in Africa for the 90's is to take up many challenges. One way of taking up these challenges is illustrated at the most sensitive level of society, the political level, this is when educational problems start initiating major political change. Indeed, education played an important role in the democratisation process in Africa. Benin, Central African Republic are examples among others. Without going deeply into the nature of these political changes initiated by education, it remains to know what education has gained from it. Political changes do not always have immediate, effects on education in terms of expansion and qualitative improvement due to heavy in particular economic and social constraints. In the contrary, to meet all immediate claims can sign the future away specially in cases where political decision makers who are, somehow held hostages, are too greatly influenced by the actors in the educational world. With these few exceptions, education has to gain in the democratisation process within the context of free expression and dialogue, its chances are real to be included among the top national priorities.

As regards priorities, girls and women's education requires greatest attention. It also constitutes a challenge for democracy and development: the cause is defended with vigour at the international level. Indeed the Jomtien Declaration affirms that 'the most urgent priority is to ensure access to, and improve the quality of education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation'. In reviewing educational development in the Region, it can be observed that efforts made are real and yet disparities in the areas of literacy, secondary and higher education remain too considerable.

Challenges are also to be taken up in relation with educational contents. Indeed, contemporary issues with a global dimension such as population issues, preservation of the environment, the fight against the AIDS pandemia should be taken into account in educational programmes.

Population education conceived as a philosophy of human resource development, is considered by all development partners as the response, through the school system, to the various problems associated with population rise: births, deaths, emigration, rural exodus, rapid urbanisation, environmental degradation, size and conception of family, women and development, etc. In this prospect, most African countries introduced a population and family life education programme at various levels of the school system, according to modalities which take into account sociological resistance to this type of education. Awareness on the phenomenon long existed, education on the environment was not always dispensed in an institutionalised, systematic and explicit manner in all coun-

tries. In some countries, this came in the form of courses on observation and nature study, biology, botany, economics, agriculture, animal husbandry and home economics, etc. as channels for imparting knowledge of the environment. In others, environment issues are taken into account in an integrated approach to the teaching of sciences and technology. In the school, this holistic perspective is henceforth the general approach. The strategy of environmental education is centred on the capacity to solve concrete problems, promotion of positive values and the involvement of all age groups.

The introduction of health education programmes in the area of AIDS is relatively recent in African countries. In brief, all these areas have the common characteristic of being transdisciplinary. Their integration into the school curricula is just one aspect of global integrated multisectorial strategy aimed at objectives which are not different from sustainable human development.

This same orientation also inspires science and technology programmes which are also transversal to the whole educational area including basic education: Scientific and Technological Literacy for all is necessarily the counterpart of Education for All. This is the motivation behind the UNESCO's 'Science 2000+' project, within which was developed an African component (POSTAFRIC). POSTAFRIC seeks to make science and technology education available and useful to the different age groups and social classes found in African countries.

How do higher education and research contribute to solving the various mentioned problems is subject to continual questioning.

Solidarity

The world declaration on Education for All stipulates that 'meeting basic learning needs constitutes a common and universal human responsibility and requires international solidarity and equitable and fair economic, relations in order to remedy to existing economic discrepancies'.

This solidarity requirement starts at the national level. From the range of potential partners was considered first of all the contribution of the first people concerned. These are the pupils and students. Their involvement generally is in terms of payment of school fees and of taking part in productive activities within the school. Communities represent partners with multifarious action. Building and maintenance of schools, contribution to the purchase of equipment and educational materials, involvement in school institutions management through parents associations, initiatives in innovations for the creation of educational alternatives such as community schools in Mali or Egypt for instance. Private schools constitute another type of partnership which has been developing within the context of the state's decreasing role. Private schools where go those who could not find places in government's schools are not of the same quality as the private schools chosen out of spite for the public sector by well of families. Finally there are private religious namely Islamic schools which are quite significative in some countries. These are very special types of private schools which operate in very autonomous way in relation with the global education system. At the same time, they do not always have the means to overcome some weaknesses linked with contents and teachers qualifications.

NGOs, by vocation work for the promotion of basic education in cooperation communities. National and international NGOs proliferate and quite often encounter considerable problems in coordinating their action. The role of employers is most apparent not so much in basic education as in those types of education which are employment related; technical and vocational education and university education.

In summary, partnership can be considered at various levels: financial contributions; involvement ill the provision of school facilities, equipment and educational materials; participation in school management; and finally, decision-making about the design and production of educational alternatives. The problem is to ensure that all these levels are well articulated in a real chain of national solidarity that goes beyond the state withdrawal to constitute only a new promising opportunity of profit ill the field of education.

Is partnership at the regional and international levels developing resolutely in a solidarity perspective? Inter-African state to state cooperation is both politically too discreet and perhaps technical-

ly and practically too selective to be considered and illustrated. Institutionalised co-operation through regional and sub regional governmental and non governmental bodies more visible but it generally suffers from limited resources that can be mobilised in a autonomous way. Some of these structures, training institutions and research networks benefit from external financial contributions. This level of intervention promotes exchanges and brings African countries closer but is not a main channel for international aid.

Since Jomtien and MINEDAF Vl, there has been changes ill the flow, policies and modalities of international aid to education. Has aid to education increased ill a significant way? Between the end of 1980's and 1991, out of 19 OECD countries for example, 9 devote 10 percent and more of their aid to education but only 4 increased their aid volume. It is rather the development banks which have increased their financial flow. The World Bank for instance, increased by more than 50 percent its contribution between 1990 and 1991. But these contributions are not generous gifts.

Aid policies can be changed to take more and more into consideration the educational sector and in particular the basic education sub-sector. Aid is more and more conceived as a programme approach in contrary to the project approach. Critical points of aid policies are the resource reallocation measures for basic education; or recruitment measures of teachers with lower academic qualifications in order to reduce costs.

Finally, aid modalities more and more favour participation at the level of the communities, the use of non-governmental organisations and the creation of a favourable political environment, all this within the framework of adjustment programmes.

Prospects

Prospects should be envisaged in relation with the many questions left in the dark on which this report does not highlight enough.

One first context should be taken into consideration: that of African countries where it is imperative to reconstruct educational systems ill order to strengthen peace dynamics. South Africa, Angola, Liberia, Mozambique, Rwanda, Somalia, etc. Reconstruction of the educational systems should not only be conceived from physical point of view of refurbishing and creating new facilities, but also and in particular in designing educational models which will instil in the minds and shape in the behaviours attitudes favourable to peace, respect for human rights and understanding between the peoples.

In spite of its optimistic approach, it appears from the report that at the end of the decade 8 countries would not have reached the gross enrolment ration of 50 percent (Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Guinea, Mali, Niger, sierra Leone, Sudan). Despite considerable efforts compared to their own means, the objectives of education for all will be far from being achieved. Are not these countries which have to completely reconsider their education for all strategies and objectives in a exceptional situation which deserves special external support that go beyond the usual rules in this area?

Formal education is not the only channel for promoting basic education. In various countries new educational models are emerging next to dominant systems. For example 4 years alternative schooling models provided by educators from the community and using the national languages. These approaches are not really new but they take into account African educational experience of these past 30 years and seek to provide chances worthwhile in tends of social insertion, capacity to solve current problems, aptitude to continue learning. Increasing innovations and their success in meeting particular educational needs may have among other advantages that of being continual questioning of the educational systems in general in their renovation if not reform attempts. This sums up all the problem of education quality and relevance. In this respect all countries are in the same boat. Given the globalisation process within which the future is to be prepared at the world level, each people will be present and participate thanks the quality of its education.

Statistical Annex

Total population vs school age (6-17 years) population in descending numerical order

Country	Total population				School age population (6-17 years)		
	1991		2000	average annual growth rate 1991-2000 %	1991		average annual growth rate 1991-2000 %
	% in relation regions Total pop.	population ('000)	population ('000)		population ('000)	% in relation regions Total pop.	
Nigeria	18,56	*116 980*	159 149	3,5	37 086	31,7	3,7
Egypt	8,77	*55 286*	66 710	2,1	15 998	28,9	1,9
Ethiopia	7,60	*47 926*	61 206	2,8	15 336	32	1,4
Zaire	5,90	*37 156*	49 349	3,2	11 465	30,9	3,3
Tanzania	4,50	*28 354*	39 572	3,8	9 010	31,8	4
Kenya	4,15	*26 178*	37 581	4,1	8 645	33	4,5
Algeria	4,15	*26 128*	33 248	2,7	8 126	31,1	2,6
Sudan	4,11	*25 932*	33 610	2,9	7 926	30,6	2,9
Morocco	4,08	*25 737*	31 366	2,2	7 585	29,5	1,6
Uganda	3,03	*19 100*	26 285	3,6	6 031	31,6	3,8
Mozambique	2,55	*16 083*	20 445	2,7	4 752	29,5	2,9
Ghana	2,46	*15 496*	20 418	3,1	4 703	30,3	3,4
Côte d'Ivoire	2,08	*13 085*	18 547	4	4 152	31,7	4,3
Madagascar	1,96	*12 373*	16 562	3,3	3 727	30,1	3,6
Cameroon	1,83	*11 552*	14 787	2,8	3 448	29,8	2,7
Angola	1,63	*10 297*	13 295	2,9	3 079	29,9	3
Zimbabwe	1,59	*10 029*	13 136	2,9	3 093	30,8	2,9
Mali	1,53	*9 642*	12 658	3,1	2 949	30,6	3,3
Burkina Faso	1,47	*9 264*	12 025	2,9	2 710	29,3	3,2
Zambia	1,39	*8 773*	12 197	3,7	2 765	31,5	3,3
Malawi	1,38	*8 702*	11 706	3,4	2 593	29,8	3,8
Tunisia	1,32	*8 332*	9 822	1,8	2 344	28,1	1
Somalia	1,23	*7 755*	9 803	2,6	2 385	30,8	3,2
Senegal	1,20	*7 569*	9 668	2,8	2 259	29,8	2,9
Rwanda	1,19	*7 483*	10 144	3,4	2 399	32,1	3,5
Niger	1,16	*7 329*	9 750	3,2	2 262	30,9	3,4
Guinea	1,12	*7 046*	8 879	2,6	2 045	29	2,9
Chad	0,92	*5 820*	7 337	2,6	1 672	28,7	2,9
Burundi	0,89	*5 612*	7 283	2,9	1 706	30,4	3,1
Benin	0,78	*4 894*	6 561	3,3	1 515	31	3,6
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0,75	*4 710*	6 500	3,6	1 456	30,9	3,6
Sierra Leone	0,68	*4 255*	5 399	2,7	1 253	29,4	2,9
Togo	0,57	*3 564*	4 727	3,2	1 074	30,1	3,5
Central African Rep.	0,47	*2 985*	3 765	2,6	869	29,1	2,8
Liberia	0,42	*2 638*	3 543	3,3	799	30,3	3,6
Mauritania	0,33	*2 081*	2 685	2,9	618	29,7	3,1
Congo	0,33	*2 049*	2 635	2,8	604	29,5	3
Namibia	0,31	*1 935*	2 567	3,2	592	30,6	3,3
Lesotho	0,29	*1 825*	2 354	2,9	534	29,3	3,1
Botswana	0,21	*1 332*	1 804	3,4	424	31,8	3,9
Gabon	0,19	*1 203*	1 620	3,4	279	23,2	3,6
Mauritius	0,18	*1 118*	1 240	1,2	258	23,1	-1
Guinea Bissau	0,16	*1 009*	1 244	2,4	288	28,5	2,2
Gambia	0,14	*880*	1 116	2,7	257	29,2	3
Swaziland	0,13	*817*	1 116	3,5	255	31,2	3,7
Comoros	0,08	*535*	710	3,2	165	30,8	3,2
Equatorial Guinea	0,07	*451*	562	2,5	128	28,4	2,8
Djibouti	0,07	*419*	552	3,1	128	30,5	3,1
Cape Verde	0,06	*391*	518	3,2	112	28,6	2,7
Sao Tome & Principe	0,02	*115*	149	2,9	...	...	...
Seychelles	0,01	*70*	75	0,8	...	...	...
Total	100,00	*630 295*	827 980	3,1	193 859	30,76%	3,1

Total population vs school age (6-17 years) population according to average annual growth rate

Country	Total population				School age population (6-17 years)		
	1991		2000	average annual growth rate 1991-2000 %	1991		average annual growth rate 1991-2000 %
	% in relation regions Total pop.	population ('000)	population ('000)		population ('000)	% in relation regions Total pop.	
Kenya	4,15	26 178	37 581	4,1	8 645	33	4,5
Côte d'Ivoire	2,08	13 085	18 547	4	4 152	31,7	4,3
Tanzania	4,50	28 354	39 572	3,8	9 010	31,8	4
Zambia	1,39	8 773	12 197	3,7	2 765	31,5	3,3
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0,75	4 710	6 500	3,6	1 456	30,9	3,6
Uganda	3,03	19 100	26 285	3,6	6 031	31,6	3,8
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Swaziland	0,13	817	1 116	3,5	255	31,2	3,7
Botswana	0,21	1 332	1 804	3,4	424	31,8	3,9
Gabon	0,19	1 203	1 620	3,4	279	23,2	3,6
Malawi	1,38	8 702	11 706	3,4	2 593	29,8	3,8
Rwanda	1,19	7 483	10 144	3,4	2 399	32,1	3,5
Benin	0,78	4 894	6 561	3,3	1 515	31	3,6
Liberia	0,42	2 638	3 543	3,3	799	30,3	3,6
Madagascar	1,96	12 373	16 562	3,3	3 727	30,1	3,6
Cape Vede	0,06	391	518	3,2	112	28,6	2,7
Comoros	0,08	535	710	3,2	165	30,8	3,2
Namibia	0,31	1 935	2 567	3,2	592	30,6	3,3
Niger	1,16	7 329	9 750	3,2	2 262	30,9	3,4
Togo	0,57	3 564	4 727	3,2	1 074	30,1	3,5
Zaire	5,90	37 156	49 349	3,2	11 465	30,9	3,3
Djibouti	0,07	419	552	3,1	128	30,5	3,1
Ghana	2,46	15 496	20 418	3,1	4 703	30,3	3,4
Mali	1,53	9 642	12 658	3,1	2 949	30,6	3,3
Angola	1,63	10 297	13 295	2,9	3 079	29,9	3
Burkina Faso	1,47	9 264	12 025	2,9	2 710	29,3	3,2
Burundi	0,89	5 612	7 283	2,9	1 706	30,4	3,1
Lesotho	0,29	1 825	2 354	2,9	534	29,3	3,1
Mauritania	0,33	2 081	2 685	2,9	618	29,7	3,1
Sao Tome & Principe	0,02	115	149	2,9	...	...	...
Sudan	4,11	25 932	33 610	2,9	7 926	30,6	2,9
Zimbabwe	1,59	10 029	13 136	2,9	3 093	30,8	2,9
Cameroon	1,83	11 552	14 787	2,8	3 448	29,8	2,7
Congo	0,33	2 049	2 635	2,8	604	29,5	3
Ethiopia	7,60	47 926	61 206	2,8	15 336	32	1,4
Senegal	1,20	7 569	9 668	2,8	2 259	29,8	2,9
Algeria	4,15	26 128	33 248	2,7	8 126	31,1	2,6
Gambia	0,14	880	1 116	2,7	257	29,2	3
Mozambique	2,55	16 083	20 445	2,7	4 752	29,5	2,9
Sierra Leone	0,68	4 255	5 399	2,7	1 253	29,4	2,9
Central African Rep.	0,47	2 985	3 765	2,6	869	29,1	2,8
Chad	0,92	5 820	7 337	2,6	1 672	28,7	2,9
Guinea	1,12	7 046	8 879	2,6	2 045	29	2,9
Somalia	1,23	7 755	9 803	2,6	2 385	30,8	3,2
Equatorial Guinea	0,07	451	562	2,5	128	28,4	2,8
Guinea Bissau	0,16	1 009	1 244	2,4	288	28,5	2,2
Morocco	4,08	25 737	31 366	2,2	7 585	29,5	1,6
Egypt	8,77	55 286	66 710	2,1	15 998	28,9	1,9
Tunisia	1,32	8 332	9 822	1,8	2 344	28,1	1
Mauritius	0,18	1 118	1 240	1,2	258	23,1	-1
Seychelles	0,01	70	75	0,8	...	...	...
Total	100,00	630 295	827 980	3,1	193 859	30,76%	3,1

BREAKDOWN OF COUNTRIES BY ENROLMENT RATE 1988 - 1992

Group A	Literacy Rates 15 and above		Enrolment Rates GER		NER		Pupils Enrolled Total (000)		% girls		Teachers P/T ratio		% F		Repeaters % of pupils		Spending % of educ budget		
	1990	1995	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	1988	1992	
Burkina	18	19	34	37	28	30	443	530	38	39	57	58	26	27	17	26	41,7		1988/1991
Burundi	50	36	70	69		51	568	651	44	45	69	63	46	47	18	24	45,2	44,5	1988/1992
Ctr Af Rep	38	60	65	68	48	56	297	324	38	39	70	90	25	26	34	31	51,2	52,7	1988/1989
Chad	30	49	51	65			425	591	30	32	68	64	5	6	33		64,2	47,2	1988/1991
Djibouti		47	46	41	37	34	30	33	42	43	44	42			10	13	57,3	53,4	1988/1993
Ethiopia		36	39	22	28		2856	1856	39	41	43	27	23	26	9		53,1	53,9	1988/1992
Guinea	24	36	34	42	26		303	422	31	32	39	49	22	23	20	21	23,0	35,1	1988/1992
Guinea Bissau	37	55	60				79		36						42				1988/ - - -
Mali	32	31	23	25		19	312	375	37	37	39	47	24	24	30	31	48,4	46,3	1988/1991
Mauritania	36	38	51	62			159	219	41	44	49	51	18	18	20	16	33,5		1988/1992
Niger	28	14	27	29	24	25	325	369	36	36	40	42	33	33	13	14	48,5	48,5	1988/1990
Sao Tome							18	20	48	47	35	35	59	52	35	29	55,6		1987/1989
Senegal	38	33	58	59	49	48	658	725	41	42	51	59	27	27	16	16	39,3	35,7	1988/1991
Sierra Leone	21	32	54	48			395	367	42	41	30	34	29				21,2		1988/1990
Sudan	27	47	49	51			1767	2168		43	35	34		52	.	.			1986/1991
Tanzania		68	69	68	52	51	3165	3603	50	49	33	36	41	41	6	3	41,6		1988/1992
Group B																			
Benin	23	38	67	66	53		482	506	34		35		25		26				1988/1991
Comoros		57	74	79			66	76	44	45	38	40				39	39,2	39,5	1988/1991
Côte d'Ivoire	54	40	74	69		52	1364	1448	41	42	37	37	19	19	25	27	40,2		1988/1991
Gambia	27	39	62	69		56	74	97	39	41	28	30	32	31	18	14	39,7	42,7	1988/1992
Ghana	60	65	73	74			1706	1796	45	45	26	27		36	3	3	27,9	29,2	1988/1991
Madagascar	80	81	97	79	66		1534	1490	49	49	40	38			35	33	55,1	49,1	1988/1993
Malawi		57	64	66	48	48	1203	1401	45	45					21	19	48,1		1988/1990
Morocco	50	44	68	69	56	59	2111	2728	39	41	25	28	35	38	15	12	34,8	33,0	1988/1992
Mozambique	33	41	68	60	45	42	1288	1199	44	43	63	53	22	23		25	49,0	49,8	1987/1992
Nigeria	51	57	73	76			12721	14806	45	44	37	39	45	45					1988/1991
Rwanda	50	61	72	77	68	72	1030	1105	50	50	57	58	47	47	11	14	67,7		1988/1991
Uganda	48	62	80				2633				35						20,1		1988/ - - -
Zaire	72	78	76	70	58		4356	4871	42	43					21		54,5		1987/1992
Group C																			
Algeria			93	99	87	90	3911	4436	45	45	28	27	40	40	7	9		33,3	1988/1992
Angola	42	43	105	91			1068	990	46	48	33	32				33			1988/1990
Botswana	74	71	111	116	93	96	261	301	52	51	32	29	78	77	5	3	39,0	31,1	1988/1992
Cameroon	54	64	102	101		75	1882	1964	46	46	51	51	30	30	29	29			1988/1990
Cape Verde	67	73	116	116	95	95	65	70	49		33		60		24		54,4	54,7	1988/1990
Congo	57	75					495	503	48	46	63	66	32	33	35	36			1988/1990
Egypt	48	52	96	101			7344	6542	44	45	31	24	48	54	5	7			1988/1991
Gabon	61	64					207	210	50	50	48	44	36		31	33		43,5	1988/1991
Kenya	69	78	96	95			5124	5392	49	49	33	31	36	37			57,1		1988/1990
Lesotho		72	111	106	73	70	345	363	55	54	56	51	79	79	22	21	42,1	51,0	1988/1992
Libya	64	76					1012	1239	47	48	16	12	56	67					1985/1991
Mauritius	80	83	105	106	95	89	140	135	49	49	22	21	44	45	8	7	43,0	37,6	1988/1991
Namibia			126	124		81	312	349		50				65		25			1988/1992
Seychelles							14	10	50	49	21	18	83	88	.	.	33,1	28,2	1988/1993
South Africa		82	104	109			6758	5644	50	49									1988/1992
Swaziland		77	104	115	81	91	153	180	50	49	33	33	80	78	15	15	32,9		1988/1992
Togo	43	52	103	111	72	76	569	652	39	39	55	59	20	19	37	36	35,6	30,4	1988/1990
Tunisia	65	67	113	120	95	100	1333	1476	45	47	30	26	42	48	21	18	45,0	42,7	1988/1993
Zambia	73	79	97	92	81		1426	1461	48		44		45				31,7		1988/1990
Zimbabwe	67	85	128	119			2217	2376	49	48	38	45	40	42			56,8	54,7	1988/1993

ALGERIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**26 300** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**2 381 741** sq. km	Density	**11** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,1%**	Official language	**Arab**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**DINAR** (1 Dollar = 9,7 dinars (1990))
Educational spending	**32 826** (millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**8,1%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**27,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	...	6 ans	12 ans		
Duration	...	6 ans	6 ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible		(1990)	(1990)	(1990)	(1990)
Total enrolment	...	**4 189 152**	**2 022 220**	**153 360**	**285 930**
% girls	...	45%	44%	31%	...
Latest year for which data avalaible		(1990)	(1990)		(1990)
Gross enrolment rate		**95%**	**60%**		**11,8%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**74%**
Women:	**49%**

ANGOLA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**10 303** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**1 246 700** sq. km	Density	**8** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**	Official language	**Portuguese**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**kwansa** (1 US$ = 60 KWANSAS (1991))
Educational spending	**10 856** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	...
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	7ans	11ans		
Duration	3ans	4ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1990
Total enrolment	**164 146**	**990 155**	**166 812**	**10 934**	**6 534**
% girls	*34%*	*32%*	...	...	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**53%**	**91%**	**12%**		**9%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1990
Men:	**56%**
Women:	**29%**

BENIN

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**4 889** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**112 622** sq. km	Density	**43** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,3%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994)
Educational spending	**12 426** (millions) 1980
-as % of GDP:	**4,2%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**36,8%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	...	6 ans	12ans		
Duration	...	6 ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1988	1991	1991	1985	1990
Total enrolment	**13 433**	**505 970**	**76 672**	**6 495**	**10 873**
% girls	*45%*	*34%*	*28%*	*37%*	*13%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**3,0%**	**66,0%**	**12%**		**2,8%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**49%**	
Women:	**26%**	

BOTSWANA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**1 348** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**581 730** sq. km	Density	**2** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,4%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**PULA** (1 dollar US = 2,1 Pula) (1991)
Educational spending	**426** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**6,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**14%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	14ans		
Duration	-	7ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible		1992	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	-	**308 840**	**73 909**	**3 609**	**3 567**
% girls	-	*51%*	*54%*	*31%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible		1992	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	-	**119%**	**54%**		**3,3%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**81%**	
Women:	**60%**	

BURKINA FASO

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**9 242** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**274 200** sq. km	Density	**2** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	Francs CFA (1 dollar US = 560 francs (1994))
Educational spending	**18 727** (millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**2,3%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**21,9%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3	6ans	12ans		
Duration	3	6ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1992	1992	1992	1992
Total enrolment	**7 665**	**562 644**	**89 956**	**8 379**	**8 813**
% girls	*51,0%*	*51,0%*	*59,0%*	*48,0%*	*22,8%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1992	1991		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**1,0%**	**31,7%**	**8%**		**0,7%**
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **19%**					
Women: **9%**					

BURUNDI

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**5 620** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**27 834** sq. km	Density	**202** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc Bur.** (1 dollar US = 202 francs bur. (1991)
Educational spending	**7208** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**3,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**20,2%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	7ans	13 ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1992	1991	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**2 381**	**631 039**	**40 334**	**6 174**	**3 830**
% girls	*50,0%*	*46,0%*	*41,0%*	*42,0%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	1992	1991	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	**0,7%**	**70%**	**6%**		**0,8%**
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **49%**					
Women: **22%**					

CAMEROON

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**12 239** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**475 422** sq. km	Density	**26** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,8%**	Official language	**French** **English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc Bur.** (1 dollar US = 202 francs bur. (1991)
Educational spending	**81 719** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**2,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**21,6%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3 et 4 ans	6ans	12 et 13 ans		
Duration	2 et 3 ans	6 et 7ans	7ans		
			General	***Technical***	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	
Total enrolment	**90 771**	**1 964 146**	**409 729**	**90 028**	**33 177**
% girls	*50,0%*	*46,0%*	*41,0%*	*42,0%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**13%**	**101%**	**28%**		**3,4%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1990	
Men:	**75%**	
Women:	**22%**	

CAPE VERDE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**382** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**4 033** sq. km	Density	**95** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language	**Portuguese**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Escudo** (1 dollar US = 74,6 escudos (1991)
Educational spending	**890** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**4,1%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**20,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	7ans	13 ans		
Duration	3 ans	6ans	5ans		
			General	***Technical***	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1986	1992	1993	1990	
Total enrolment	**4 523**	**73 525**	**11 224**	**588**	-
% girls	...	*49,4%*	*26,1%*	*36,0%*	-
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		-
Gross enrolment rate	**22%**	**115%**	**19%**		-

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**81%**	
Women:	**64%**	

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**3 127** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**622 984** sq. km	Density	**5** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,6%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Francs CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA.(1994))
Educational spending	**9 622** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**2,8%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	2ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1990
Total enrolment	**15 294**	**308 409**	**46 989**	**1 882**	**3 840**
% girls	...	*39,5%*	*28,3%*	*4,7%*	*13,3%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1989	1989		1989
Gross enrolment rate	**6%**	**68%**	**12%**		**2%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**68%**
Women:	**52%**

CHAD

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**5 819** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**1 284 000** sq. km	Density	**5** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,6%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Francs CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994))
Educational spending	**8 212** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**2,3%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	6ans	13ans		
Duration	-	6ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1991	1991	1989	1988
Total enrolment	-	**568 630**	**72 814**	**2 802**	**2 983**
% girls	-	*32,1%*	*17,2%*	*24,0%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1991	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	-	**65%**	**9%**		**1%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**62%**
Women:	**35%**

COMOROS

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**570** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**2 235** sq. km	Density	**7** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1991)
Educational spending	**12 841** (millions) 1994
-as % of GDP:	...
-as % of Government regular budget	**22,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	11ans		
Duration	-	4ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1991	1990	1990	1990
Total enrolment	-	**74 843**	**15 585**	**164**	**223**
% girls	-	*45,3%*	...	...	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1989	1989		-
Gross enrolment rate	-	**75%**	**17%**		-

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**64%**
Women:	**50%**

CONGO

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**2 346** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**342 000** sq. km	Density	**7** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,8%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994)
Educational spending	**36 906** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**5,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**18,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	11ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**5 810**	**74 843**	**15 585**	**164**	**223**
% girls	*50,0%*	*46,0%*	*42,0%*	*47,0%*	*19,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	...	...		1991
Gross enrolment rate	...	...	...		**6,0%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**83%**
Women:	**67%**

COTE D'IVOIRE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**12 464** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**322 463** sq. km	Density	**39** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**4,0%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA.(1994)
Educational spending	**179 447** (millions) 1985
-as % of GDP:	**6,3%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1985	1984
Total enrolment	**11 217**	**1 447 785**	**396 606**	**8 500**	**19 660**
% girls	*48,3%*	*41,7%*	*32,0%*	*37,0%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1985
Gross enrolment rate	**1%**	**69%**	**24%**		**2,5%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**50%**	
Women:	**30%**	

DJIBOUTI

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**421** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**23 200** sq. km	Density	**18** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,0%**	Official language	**French** **Arab**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc** (1 dollar US = 177,7 francs (1990)
Educational spending	**2 872** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**3,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**11,1%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	5ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	1an	6ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1992	1992	1992	1992	
Total enrolment	**218**	**30 589**	**8 083**	**1 545**	
% girls	*65,0%*	*43,0%*	*39,0%*	*66,0%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	1992	1991	1991		1985
Gross enrolment rate	**1%**	**39%**	**14%**		**-**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**60%**	
Women:	**33%**	

EGYPT

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**54 688** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**1 001 449** sq. km	Density	**55** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,6%**	Official language	**Arab**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Livre égyp.** (1 dollar US = 2,7 livres (1994)
Educational spending	**2 406** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**3,4%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	6ans	11ans		
Duration	2ans	5ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**198 742**	**6 541 725**	**4 165 362**	**478 103**	**708 417**
% girls	*87,0%*	*44,0%*	*43,0%*	*43,0%*	*35,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1990
Gross enrolment rate	...	**101%**	**80%**		**19,2**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**64%**	
Women:	**39%**	

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**356** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**28 051** sq. km	Density	**13** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,5%**	Official language	**Spanish**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 (1994))
Educational spending	**527** (millions) 1988
-as % of GDP:	**1,4%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**3,5%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	2ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	4ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible		1983	1982	...	1988
Total enrolment	-	**61 532**	**4 368**	...	**404**
% girls	-	...	...	...	...
Latest year for which data avalaible		1983	...		
Gross enrolment rate	-	**149%**	...		...

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**90%**	
Women:	**68%**	

ETHIOPIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**53 383** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates, 1991)	
Land area	**1 221 900** sq. km	Density	**44** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Birr** (1 dollar US = 2,1 birrs (1990)
Educational spending	**494** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**4,0%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**11,1%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1988	1990
Total enrolment	**58 444**	**2 063 636**	**775 211**	**4 101**	**34 076**
% girls	*50,0%*	*42,0%*	*45,0%*	...	*18,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1985
Gross enrolment rate	**1%**	**25%**	**12%**		**0,8%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**46%**
Women:	**25%**

GABON

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**1 212** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**267 667** sq. km	Density	**5** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,4%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994)
Educational spending	**47 774** (millions) 1987
-as % of GDP:	**5,1%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	11ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1991	1988
Total enrolment	**950**	**210 000**	**42 871**	**8 477**	**4 077**
% girls	*52,0%*	*50,0%*	...	...	*30,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	...	...		1991
Gross enrolment rate	...	...	...		**3,3%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**74%**
Women:	**53%**

GAMBIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**884** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**11 295** sq. km	Density	**78** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,7%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dalasi** (1 dollar US = 9,4 dalasis (1991)
Educational spending	**75** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**2,6%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**13,2%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	7ans	11ans		
Duration	3ans	4ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1990	1990	
Total enrolment	**13 118**	**90 645**	**14 453**	**1 107**	-
% girls	...	*41,0%*	*30,0%*	*38,0%*	-
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1990		-
Gross enrolment rate	**25%**	**68%**	**18%**		

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**53%**	
Women:	**25%**	

GHANA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**15 509** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**238 533** sq. km	Density	**65** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,1%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Cedi** (1 dollar US = 370 cedis (1991)
Educational spending	**53 664** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**2,9%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**27,1%**

EDUCATION

(Un.)-Université seulement

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	2ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	(Un.)
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1990	1990	1989	1990
Total enrolment	**323 406**	**1 945 422**	**768 603**	**20 777**	**9 609**
% girls	*48,0%*	*45,0%*	*39,0%*	*15,0%*	*22,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1991	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**39%**	**77%**	**38%**		**1,5%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**76%**	
Women:	**54%**	

GUINEA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**5 931** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**245 857** sq. km	Density	**24** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,6%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc Guin.** (1 dollar US = 816 francs gui. (1991)
Educational spending	**15 330** (millions) 1988
-as % of GDP:	...
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	11ans		
Duration	-	6ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible		1992	1991	1991	1988
Total enrolment	-	**421 869**	**97 533**	**9 278**	**6 245**
% girls	-	*31,7%*	*24,3%*	*29,5%*	*10,2%*
Latest year for which data avalaible		1990	1990		1988
Gross enrolment rate	-	**37%**	**10%**		**1,4%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**50%**
Women:	**22%**

GUINEA BISSAU

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**984** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**36 125** sq. km	Density	**27** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,4%**	Official language	**Portuguese**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Peso** (1 dollar US = 3271 pesos (1991))
Educational spending	**2 473** (millions) 1987
-as % of GDP:	**2,8%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1988	1988	1988	1988	1988
Total enrolment	**754**	**79 035**	**5 505**	**649**	**404**
% girls	*49,0%*	*36,0%*	*35,0%*	*56,0%*	*6,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1988	1988	1988		
Gross enrolment rate	**2%**	**60%**	**7%**		...

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**68%**
Women:	**42%**

KENYA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**25 905** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**580 367** sq. km	Density	**45** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**4,1%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Shilling**	(1 dollar US = 29,1 shillings (1991)
Educational spending	**11 000**	(millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**5,8%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**19,0%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	14ans		
Duration	3ans	8ans	5ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1990
Total enrolment	**850 000**	**5 392 319**	**614 161**	**8 880**	**35 421**
% girls	*53,0%*	*49,0%*	*44,0%*	*24,0%*	*28,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1991	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**34%**	**95%**	**29%**		**2,2%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**86%**	
Women:	**70%**	

LESOTHO

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**1 935** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**30 355** sq. km	Density	**60** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Maloti**	(1 dollar US = 2,9 malotis (1989)
Educational spending	**145**	(millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**4,7%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**25,3%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	6ans	13ans		
Duration	-	7ans	5ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1991	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**-**	**361 144**	**46 572**	**1 600**	**4 164**
% girls	-	*55,0%*	*59,7%*	*53,5%*	*53,2%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1991	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**-**	**107%**	**25%**		**2,7%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**81%**	
Women:	**62%**	

LIBERIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**2 520** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**111 369** sq. km	Density	**23** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,3%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dollar Lib.** (1 dollar US = 1 dollar liberian)
Educational spending	**53** (millions) 1980
-as % of GDP:	**4,9%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**27,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1984	1986	1984	1980	1987
Total enrolment	**70 507**	**80 048**	**43 273**	**2 322**	**5 095**
% girls	...	...	...	*27,0%*	*23,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1984	1986	1984		1987
Gross enrolment rate	**35%**	**35%**	**17%**		**2,5%**
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **54%**					
Women: **22%**					

LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**4 712** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**1 759 540** sq. km	Density	**3** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**4,3%**	Official language	**Arab**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dinar Lib.** (1 dollar US = 0,7 dinar (1990)
Educational spending	**506** (millions) 1986
-as % of GDP:	**7,7%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**37,1%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	6ans	15ans		
Duration	2ans	9ans	3ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1985	1991	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**15 028**	**1 238 986**	**138 660**	**37 157**	**72 899**
% girls	*48,0%*	*48,0%*	*50,0%*	*64,0%*	*46,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1990
Gross enrolment rate	...	...	...		...
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **88%**					
Women: **63%**					

MADAGASCAR

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**11 493** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates. 1991)	
Land area	**587 041** sq. km	Density	**20** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,3%**	Official language	**Malgache French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc Malg** (1 dollar US = 1316 francs malg.(1991))
Educational spending	**64 964** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**1,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	11ans		
Duration	2ans	5ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	1990	1990	1990	1991
Total enrolment	...	**1 570 721**	**322 772**	**17 033**	**35 824**
% girls	...	*49%*	*50%*	*41%*	*45%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	1990	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	...	**92%**	**18%**		**3,4%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1990
Men:	**88%**
Women:	**73%**

MALAWI

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**8 556** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates. 1991)	
Land area	**118 484** sq. km	Density	**72** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,4%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Kwacha** (1 dollar US = 2,9 Kwachas (1991)
Educational spending	**117** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**2,4%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**9,8%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	6ans	14ans		
Duration	-	8ans	4ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1990	1990	1990	1989
Total enrolment	-	**1 400 682**	**32 275**	**780**	**5 594**
% girls	-	*45,0%*	*34,0%*	*63,0%*	*28,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1990	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	-	**66%**	**4%**		...

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**72%**
Women:	**42%**

MALI

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**9 507** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**1 240 192** sq. km	Density	**8** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,1%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Franc CFA**	(1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994))
Educational spending	**19 030**	(millions) 1992
-as % of GDP:	**2,6%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**17,7%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	8ans	14ans		
Duration	-	6ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1992	1992	1992	1992
Total enrolment	-	**438 302**	**95 994**	**9 476**	**7 582**
% girls	-	*38,0%*	*30,5%*	*32,8%*	*14,7%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1991	1991		1990
Gross enrolment rate	-	**25%**	**7%**		**0,8%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**39%**
Women:	**23%**

MAURITANIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**2 036** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**1 025 520** sq. km	Density	**2** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**	Official language	**Arab** **French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Ouguiya**	(1 dollar US = 86,6 ouguiyas (1991))
Educational spending	**3 188**	(millions) 1988
-as % of GDP:	**4,7%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**22,0%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	3ans	5ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	1992	1992	1992	1992
Total enrolment	...	**218 215**	**40 147**	**1 030**	**7 501**
% girls	...	*44,4%*	*33,8%*	*14,1%*	*14,8%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	1991	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	...	**55,0%**	**14%**		**3,3%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**50%**
Women:	**26%**

MAURITIUS

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**1 070** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)		
Land area	**2 040** sq. km	Density	**525**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**1,2%**	Official language	**English**	**#VALEUR!**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Roupie** (1 dollar US = 16,5 roupies (1991))
Educational spending	**1 287** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**3,4%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**14,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	5ans	11ans		
Duration	2ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1982	1991	1990	1990	1989
Total enrolment	**10 617**	**135 233**	**78 110**	**1 119**	**2 179**
% girls	*0,49*	*49%*	*50%*	*32%*	*34%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1990
Gross enrolment rate	...	**106%**	**54%**		**2,1%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**87%**	
Women:	**79%**	

MOROCCO

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**26 698** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)		
Land area	**446 550** sq. km	Density	**58**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,4%**	Official language	**Arab**	

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dirham** (1 Dollar US = 8,2 dirhams (1990))
Educational spending	**10 755** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**4,7%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**32,5%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	5ans	7ans	12ans		
Duration	2ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1991	1990
Total enrolment	**788 326**	**2 578 566**	**1 151 771**	**17 147**	**221 217**
% girls	*29%*	*40%*	*41%*	*37%*	*36%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1990	1990	1990	1990
Gross enrolment rate	57%	**66%**	**34%**		...

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**57%**	
Women:	**31%**	

MOZAMBIQUE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**16 084** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**801 590** sq. km	Density	**20** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,7%**	Official language	**Portuguese**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Metical**	(1 US$ = 1503 meticals (1991))
Educational spending	**46 064**	(millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**4,0%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**17,5%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	6ans	7ans	12ans		
Duration	1ans	5ans	7ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1986	1992	1992	1991	1987
Total enrolment	**45 100**	**1 199 847**	**144 671**	**9 729**	**2 335**
% girls	*46%*	*42,0%*	*39,0%*	*19,0%*	*22,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1992	1990	1990		1985
Gross enrolment rate	**-**	**60%**	**7%**		**0,1%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**58%**
Women:	**23%**

NAMIBIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**1 837** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**824 292** sq. km	Density	**2** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Rand**	(1 dollar US = 2,9 rands (1991))
Educational spending	**259**	(millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**4,4%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**40,5%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	...	7ans	14ans		
Duration	...	7ans	5ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1991
Total enrolment	**5 649**	**313 528**	**61 801**	**1 175**	**4 157**
% girls	*53,0%*	*52,0%*	*56,0%*	*29,0%*	*64,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**13%**	**119%**	**41%**		**3,3%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	
Men:	...
Women:	...

NIGER

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**7 984** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)		
Land area	**1 267 000** sq. km	Density	**6**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language		**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Francs CFA** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994))
Educational spending	**15 545** (millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**2,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**13,6%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	5ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	2ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	***Technical***	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1990
Total enrolment	**9 434**	**368 732**	**74 337**	**843**	**4 506**
% girls	*48%*	*36%*	*29%*	*9%*	*15%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1991		1989
Gross enrolment rate	**2,0%**	**29,0%**	**7%**		**0,7%**
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **21%**					
Women: **7%**					

NIGERIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**112 163** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)		
Land area	**923 768** sq. km	Density	**121**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,5%**	Official language		**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Naira** (1 dollar US = 22 nairas (1994)
Educational spending	**728** (millions) 1986
-as % of GDP:	**1,1%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**19,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible		1990	1990	1989	1990
Total enrolment	...	**13 776 854**	**2 691 740**	**113 556**	**9 609**
% girls	...	*44,0%*	*43,0%*	*45,0%*	*24,2%*
Latest year for which data avalaible		1991	1991		1989
Gross enrolment rate	...	**71%**	**38%**		**1,5%**
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **67%**					
Women: **47%**					

RWANDA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**7 491**	(Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)		
Land area	**26 338**	sq. km	Density	**284**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,4%**		Official language	**French**	

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Francs**	(1 dollar US = 129,5 francs (1991))
Educational spending	**6 793**	(millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**3,9%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**29,1%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	7ans	15ans		
Duration	4ans	8ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1986	1990	1990	1990	1989
Total enrolment	**8 000**	**1 100 437**	**16 173**	**39 849**	**3 389**
% girls	*44%*	*50%*	*36%*	*44%*	*19%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		1989
Gross enrolment rate	...	**71%**	**8%**		**0,6%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**70%**
Women:	**52%**

SAO TOME & PRINCIPE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**124**	(Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)		
Land area	**964**	sq. km	Density	...	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**		Official language	**Portuguese**	

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dobra**	(1 US$ = 260 dobras (1991))
Educational spending	...	
-as % of GDP:	...	
-as % of Government regular budget	...	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	6ans	7ans	11ans		
Duration	1ans	4ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1989	1989	1989	-
Total enrolment	**3 446**	**19 822**	**7 446**	**101**	-
% girls	*51%*	*47%*	*46%*	*33%*	-
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	...	...		-
Gross enrolment rate	...	...	...		-

Literacy rates (15 and above)	
Men:	...
Women:	...

SENEGAL

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**7 533** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**196 722** sq. km	Density	**38** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,8%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Francs CF** (1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994))
Educational spending	**61 686** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**3,7%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**27,4%**

EDUCATION

(U).-Université seulement

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	4ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	(U)
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**17 432**	**725 496**	**183 071**	**7 571**	**21 562**
% girls	*49%*	*42%*	*35%*	*34%*	*24%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1989	1990	1990		1989
Gross enrolment rate	**2,0%**	**59,0%**	**16%**		**2,9%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**43%**	
Women:	**23%**	

SEYCHELLES

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**68** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**455** sq. km	Density	... inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,8%**	Official language	**English/ french/ créole**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Roupie** (1 dollar US = 5,4 roupies (1991))
Educational spending	**153** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**8,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**16,9%** (1989)

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	6ans	15ans		
Duration	2ans	9ans	2ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1991	1980
Total enrolment	**3 257**	**14 669**	**2 891**	**302**	**144**
% girls	*50%*	*49%*	*49%*	*68%*	*89%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	...	...		...
Gross enrolment rate	...	...	...		...

Literacy rates (15 and above)		
Men:	...	
Women:	...	

SIERRA LEONE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**4 260** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**74 740** sq. km	Density	**59** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,6%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Leone** (1 dollar US = 310 leones (1991))
Educational spending	**577** (millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**1,3%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	5ans	12ans		
Duration	-	7ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1990	1990	1990	1990
Total enrolment	-	**367 426**	**97 049**	**5 425**	**4 742**
% girls	-	*41%*	*36%*	*52%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible		1990	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	-	**48%**	**16%**		**1,3%**
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1995					
Men: **45%**					
Women: **18%**					

SOMALIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**7 691** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**637 657** sq. km	Density	**12** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,6%**	Official language	**Somali**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Shilling** (1 dollar US = 2620 shillings (1991))
Educational spending	**290** (millions) 1986
-as % of GDP:	**0,3%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	4ans	6ans	14ans		
Duration	2ans	8ans	4ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1985	1985	1985	1985	1986
Total enrolment	**1558**	**196 496**	**39 753**	**5 933**	**15 672**
% girls	57%	34%	37%	23%	20%
Latest year for which data avalaible	1985	1985	1985		1991
Gross enrolment rate	**5%**	**19%**	**8%**		...
Literacy rates (15 and above) 1990					
Men: **36%**					
Women: **14%**					

SOUTH AFRICA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**36 070** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**1 221 037** sq. km	Density	**30** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,3%**	Official language	**English** **Afrikaans**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**RAND**	(1 dollar = 2,9 RANDS (1991))
Educational spending	...	
-as % of GDP:	**4,6%**	(1986)
-as % of Government regular budget	...	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	...	...	...	...	
Duration	...	...	...	...	
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	1989	1989		1989
Total enrolment	...	**6 700 000**	**2 400 000**		**294 000**
% girls	...				
Latest year for which data avalaible	...	...	...	...	...
Gross enrolment rate	...	...	...	...	...

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**82%**
Women:	**82%**

SUDAN

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**25 941** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**2 505 813** sq. km	Density	**10** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,7%**	Official language	**Arab**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Livre soud.**	(1 dollar US = 12,2 livres (1990)
Educational spending	**580**	(millions) 1985
-as % of GDP:	**4,0%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**15,0%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	5ans	7ans	13ans		
Duration	2ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1989
Total enrolment	**283 126**	**2 042 743**	**695 964**	**30 332**	**60 134**
% girls	*35,0%*	*43,0%*	*44,0%*	*22,0%*	*40,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		1990
Gross enrolment rate	**18%**	**50%**	**22%**		**2,9%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**58%**
Women:	**35%**

SWAZILAND

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**817** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)		
Land area	**17 364** sq. km	Density	**47**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,5%**	Official language		**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Lilangeni**	(1 dollar US = 2,9 emalangeni (1991))
Educational spending	**88**	(millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**5,6%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	**25%**	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	13ans		
Duration	3ans	7ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1991	1991	1985	1990
Total enrolment	**12 000**	**172 908**	**44 085**	**395**	**3 224**
% girls	*65,0%*	*50,0%*	*50,0%*	*15,0%*	*47,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	-	**111%**	48%		**4,7%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**78%**
Women:	**76%**

TOGO

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**3 643** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)		
Land area	**56 785** sq. km	Density	**64**	inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language		**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Francs CFA**	(1 dollar US = 560 francs CFA (1994))
Educational spending	**22 720**	(millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**5,3%**	
-as % of Government regular budget	...	

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	7ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990	1990	1989
Total enrolment	**10 949**	**651 862**	**117 153**	**8 392**	**7 826**
% girls	*49%*	*39%*	*25%*	*26%*	*13%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1990	1990	1990		1989
Gross enrolment rate	**3%**	**111%**	**23%**		**3%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**67%**
Women:	**37%**

TUNISIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**8 362** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**163 610** sq. km	Density	**51** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate	**2,2%**	Official language	**Arab**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dinar** (1 dollar US = 0,83 dinar (1990)
Educational spending	**639** (millions) 1991
-as % of GDP:	**5,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**17,0%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	3ans	6ans	12ans		
Duration	3ans	6ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991	1991	1991
Total enrolment	**58 448**	**1 426 215**	**568 555**	**20 503**	**76 097**
% girls	..	*46,0%*	*44,0%*	*39,0%*	*41,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	1991	1991	1991		1991
Gross enrolment rate	**9%**	**117%**	**46%**		**9,4**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**79%**	
Women:	**55%**	

UGANDA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**19 517** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**235 880** sq. km	Density	**83** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,6%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Shilling** (1 dollar US = 801 shillings (1991)
Educational spending	**6 188** (millions) 1987
-as % of GDP:	**2,8%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**30,6%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	6ans	13ans		
Duration	-	7ans	6ans		
			General	Technical	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1988	1988	1988	1990
Total enrolment	-	**2 632 764**	**240 334**	**6 556**	**17 578**
% girls	-	...	...	...	*28,0%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1988	1988		1988
Gross enrolment rate	-	**80%**	**14%**		**1%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995	
Men:	**74%**	
Women:	**50%**	

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**28 359** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**945 087** sq. km	Density	**30** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,8%**	Official language	**Kiswahili**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Shilling** (1 dollar US = 230 shillings (1991))
Educational spending	**20 599** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**5,1%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	14ans		
Duration	-	7ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible		1991	1991	1991	1989
Total enrolment	-	**3 512 347**	**166 812**	...	**5 254**
% girls	-	*51%*	*54%*	...	...
Latest year for which data avalaible		1991	1991		1989
Gross enrolment rate	-	**69%**	**5%**		**0,2%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**79%**
Women:	**57%**

ZAIRE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**36 672** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates 1991)	
Land area	**2 344 858** sq. km	Density	**16** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,2%**	Official language	**French**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Zaïre** (1 dollar US = 13720 zaïres (1991))
Educational spending	**14 357** (millions) 1988
-as % of GDP:	**0,9%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**6,4%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	14ans		
Duration	-	7ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1987	1987	1987	1988
Total enrolment	-	**4 356 516**	**507 944**	**291 743**	**61 422**
% girls	-	*42%*	*30%*	*35%*	...
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1987	1987		1987
Gross enrolment rate	-	**76%**	**24%**		**2%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**87%**
Women:	**68%**

ZAMBIE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**8 780** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**752 618** sq. km	Density	**12** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**3,7%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Kwacha** (1 dollar US = 71 kwachas (1991))
Educational spending	**2 382** (millions) 1990
-as % of GDP:	**2,5%**
-as % of Government regular budget	**8,7%**

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	14ans		
Duration	-	7ans	5ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1990	1998	1998	1989
Total enrolment	-	**1 464 206**	**161 349**	**4 181**	**14 465**
% girls	-	...	*37%*	*22%*	*28%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1990	1988		1991
Gross enrolment rate	-	**92%**	**20%**		**2,2%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**86%**
Women:	**71%**

ZIMBABWE

GENERAL INFORMATION

Population	**10 019** (Thousands)	(mid-year estimates: 1991)	
Land area	**390 759** sq. km	Density	**26** inhabitants per sq. km
Growth rate:	**2,9%**	Official language	**English**

NATIONAL EXPENDITURE

National currency	**Dollar ZW** (1 dollar US = 3,9 dollars ZW (1991))
Educational spending	**1 025** (millions) 1989
-as % of GDP:	**8,2%**
-as % of Government regular budget	...

EDUCATION

INDICATORS	Pre-school	1st level	2nd level		3rd level
Entry age	-	7ans	14ans		
Duration	-	6ans	6ans		
			General	*Technical*	
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1992	1992	1985	1992
Total enrolment	-	**2 301 642**	**657 344**	**292**	**61 553**
% girls	-	*38%*	*44%*	...	*27%*
Latest year for which data avalaible	-	1992	1992		1992
Gross enrolment rate	-	**119%**	**48%**		**6,1%**

Literacy rates (15 and above)	1995
Men:	**90%**
Women:	**80%**

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