Three years after Jomtien

EFA in the Eastern and Southern Africa region

edited by C. Wright and R. Govinda

Report of a Seminar on
‘Education for All: three years after Jomtien’
organized in Kampala, Uganda,
from 21 to 23 September 1993
Three years after Jomtien: EFA in the Eastern and Southern Africa region
Three years after Jomtien

EFA in the Eastern and Southern Africa region

Report of a Seminar on
‘Education for All: three years after Jomtien’
organized in Kampala, Uganda
from 21 to 23 September 1993

Edited by:
Cream Wright and Rangachar Govinda

Paris 1994
UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning
The views and opinions expressed in this volume are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of UNESCO or of the IIEP. The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout this volume do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO or IIEP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

The international cost of this study has been covered by a contribution from UNICEF.

This volume has been typeset using IIEP’s computer facilities and has been printed in IIEP’s workshop

International Institute for Educational Planning
(established by UNESCO)
7-9, rue Eugene-Delacroix, 75116 Paris

Cover design by
Thanh-Hoa Desruelles © UNESCO June 1994 IIEP/jv
Preface

In March, 1990, 155 Member States of the United Nations Organization adopted the World Declaration on Education for All in Jomtien and agreed upon the Framework of Action to meet fundamental educational needs capable of realizing the goals set forth in the declaration.

The first article of the declaration lays down the objective to be reached; namely, to respond to the fundamental requirements of every human being. Six further articles specify the nature of the desired education and the ways and means of implementing it. The final three articles focus on the requisite conditions for the success of this colossal undertaking: flanking policies, the mobilization of resources, and greater international solidarity.

The framework of action contemplates three main levels: (i) direct action within countries; (ii) co-operation between groups of countries which have some features in common and which share some concerns; and, (iii) bilateral and multilateral co-operation within the world community.

Furthermore, it proposes intermediate and specific targets as well as guidelines for instituting a tentative agenda for the realization of phases throughout the 1990s. The preparatory phase was 1990/91, and from 1990 through 1993 the apparatus for consultation and co-operation among all the partners was to be consolidated and set in motion, with the attendant follow-up procedures.

On balance, what has been the outcome of the three-year follow-up in the different Member States represented since the above commitments were given?

UNICEF, one of the major promoters of the Jomtien Conference (along with UNDP, UNESCO, and the World Bank) made a special pledge to help meet the goals adopted and hence took the initiative of
organizing - in conjunction with the IIEP - a series of meetings for high ranking decision-makers in various regions and sub-regions of the world.

Such seminars meet the concern of UNICEF and the IIEP to provide support to national efforts in favour of Education for All, to facilitate the sharing of difficulties, successes, and initiatives, and to voice the results achieved to all partners involved in bilateral and multilateral co-operation.

The first seminar in this series of meetings was held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, from 6 to 8 April 1993, which brought together decision-makers from six countries of the Sahelian region. This present volume contains the report of a second such meeting held in Kampala, Uganda, from 21 to 23 September 1993.

Jacques Hallak
Director, IIEP
## Contents

Preface v  
List of abbreviations x  

**Part I** Seminar organization and proceedings 1  
I. Seminar organization 5  
II. Seminar proceedings 10  
III. Conclusions and implications for action 21  

**Part II** A review of developments in seven eastern and southern African countries 25  

**Chapter I** Jomtien Conference: a watershed of vision and commitment 28  
1. Placing the Jomtien initiative in context 28  
2. Essentials of Jomtien 29  
3. Making progress towards the Jomtien goals 30  

**Chapter II** The context of basic education 31  
1. Demographic/geographic factors 31  
2. Economic factors 35  
3. Political factors 38  

**Chapter III** Developments in basic education 40  
1. First steps after Jomtien 40  
2. Developments since Jomtien 40  

**Chapter IV** Achievements and future challenges 58  
1. Working against all odds 58  
2. Progress made on access to primary education 59  
3. Improving retention rates 61  
4. Enhancing quality 62  
5. Paying for EFA 63
Contents

Chapter V  Overview of critical issues  65
1. Alternative patterns of provision  65
2. Getting a hold on retention  67
3. Harnessing and channelling resources  69
4. Action on quality  71
5. Protecting hard-won gains  72

Part III Case studies presented by the national teams  75

Theme I Expanding basic education facilities: focus on equity  79
Overview  79
1. Integration of traditional Islamic education with formal pre-school and primary education - Kenya  81
2. Pre-primary madrassah education - Zanzibar (Tanzania) 85
3. Girls’ attainment in basic literacy and education (GABLE) programme - Malawi  87

Theme II  Strengthening the links between community and basic education  91
Overview  91
1. Kariobangi urban development project in Nairobi - Kenya  94
2. School health education project (SHEP) - Uganda  98
3. The role of educational media in basic education for all - Ethiopia  103
# Contents

Theme III  Basic education for better living: linking education and development  108

Overview  
1. Basic education for national development (BEND) project - Uganda  110  
2. The role of (BDECs) and (CSTCs) in promoting rural development - Ethiopia  114  
3. Basic schools in Zambia - Zambia  118

Theme IV Improving the quality of basic education  121

Overview  
1. Malawi special teacher education programme (MASTEP) - Malawi  123  
2. Self-help action plan for education (SHAPE) - Zambia  126  
3. The NGO’s collaboration in book production initiatives for basic education - Tanzania  129

Appendices  135

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Information note</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>List of participants</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Seminar programme</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Opening address</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADB</td>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIDS:</td>
<td>Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASAL</td>
<td>Arid and Semi-Arid Land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BDEC</td>
<td>Basic Development Education Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEND</td>
<td>Basic Education for National Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAC</td>
<td>Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBP</td>
<td>Children’s Book Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDD</td>
<td>Control of Diarrhoeal Diseases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDEP</td>
<td>Community Development Educational Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDA</td>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CODE</td>
<td>Canadian Organization for Development through Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COPE</td>
<td>Community-Oriented Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSTC</td>
<td>Community Skill Training Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAE</td>
<td>Donors to African Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DANIDA</td>
<td>Danish Agency for International Development Aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DICECE</td>
<td>District Centre for Early Childhood Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVV</td>
<td>German Adult Education Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>European Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECE</td>
<td>Early Childhood Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECEC</td>
<td>Early Childhood Education and Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of abbreviations

EMA          Educational Media Agency
EPRC         Education Policy Review Commission
ESARO        Eastem and Southern African Regional Office
FINIDA        Finnish International Development Agency
GABLE        Girls’ Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education
GER          Gross Enrolment Ratio
GNP          Gross National Product
HIV          Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HMT          Harold Macmillan Trust
IEP          International Institute for Educational Planning (Paris)
KWPCS        Kagera Writers and Publishers Co-operative Society
MASTEP        Malawi Special Teacher Education Programme
MIE          Malawi Institute of Education
MOE          Ministry of Education
NER          Net Enrolment Ratio
NFE          Non-formal Education
NGOs         Non-Governmental Organizations
NPA          National Programme of Action
ODA          Overseas Development Administration
OPEC         Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
PA           Peasant Association
PTC          Primary Teachers’ Certificate
PIU          Project Implementation Unit
SHAPE        Self-Help Action Plan for Education
SHEP         School Health Education Project
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SIDA</td>
<td>Swedish International Development Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIDO</td>
<td>Small Scale Development Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TGE</td>
<td>Transition Government of Ethiopia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOT</td>
<td>Training of Trainers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USE</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Education (Hamburg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>US Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WCEFA</td>
<td>World Conference on Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YWCA</td>
<td>Young Women Christian Association</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part I
Seminar organization and proceedings
World leaders from more than 150 Member States of the United Nations Organization, including a number of heads of states, gathered for a World Conference at the beginning of 1990 in Jomtien, a coastal town of Thailand. Interestingly, the leaders had not come together under any geo-political grouping or for discussing any strategic political agenda. In fact, the prime movers of the Conference were international organizations concerned with human welfare and development such as UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP and the World Bank. At this historic World Conference, a Joint Declaration was adopted to work towards the goal of providing Basic Education for All children by the year 2000. In order to ensure that the World Declaration does not remain an empty statement on paper, it was followed by the adoption of a corresponding Framework of Action.

Following this Conference, which was undoubtedly a significant landmark in the history of basic education, all governments have embarked on a difficult journey towards ensuring that they meet the minimum basic learning needs of every child in their countries. The path towards this goal has been ridden with innumerable problems, this is particularly true for the countries of Africa struggling to tackle the fundamental problems of economic and social adjustment on several fronts.

How are the countries moving towards this goal of providing universal basic education? In order to answer this question, it is desirable that we take continuous stock of the situation instead of waking up to reality at the end of the decade. It is only through such continuous monitoring that the countries, as well as the concerned international and bilateral agencies, would be given the necessary leeway to introduce corrective measures to move towards the goal of EFA in a steady fashion. It is exactly with this in mind that UNICEF and the International Institute
for Educational Planning joined forces to organize a series of policy-level seminars on basic education in different regions. These seminars intend to bring together policy-makers from the countries of specific regions to review the situation prevailing in these counties and to share the experience of implementing various measures towards achieving the goal of Education foresail. What follows here is a brief report of one such seminar held from 21 to 23 September 1993, in Kampala, Uganda.
I. Seminar organization

Three years after the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, March 1990) UNICEF, in co-operation with the IIEP (UNESCO), initiated a series of seminars to take stock of progress, problems and prospects with respect to EFA in different countries. The second in this series of seminars was hosted by the Government of Uganda, in Kampala, from 21 to 23 September 1993, for seven countries in eastern and southern Africa, i.e. Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania (Mainland and Zanzibar), Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Since co-operation among groups of countries sharing certain characteristics and concerns is one of the areas highlighted for concerted action in the World Declaration on Education for All, regional seminars need to be organized periodically. UNICEF, like many other agencies, has been supporting and co-operating with national governments to implement a wide range of programmes, in order to achieve the goals of EFA. Using such support, a number of countries have been able to develop a ‘National Programme of Action’, in which they have tried to set EFA goals for the year 2000. Within the framework of their National Programmes of Action countries have embarked on a wide range of initiatives and activities, in partnership with international agencies. A great deal of concerted effort is therefore being put into achieving EFA goals.

However, at the same time many countries, particularly in Africa, are also experiencing quite unprecedented and rapid changes which have implications for their capacity to cope with EFA goals. In many countries, the economy is either stagnating or deteriorating. There is also a new wave of political uncertainty in force, as some countries sink into conflict and civil strife, while others emerge from years of trauma, or seek to transform long standing forms of government. Natural disasters such as drought and famine also continue to haunt some countries. These and many similar conditions have tended to divert vital resources,
undermine economic capacity, and in general weaken the thrust for development.

Given these circumstances, it is quite a challenge trying to keep track of progress and future prospects for EFA. It is therefore appropriate that three years after the Jomtien Declaration countries such as those taking part in the seminar should have the opportunity to meet, share experiences, and take stock of the situation relating to EFA in the region.

1. Objectives of the seminar

The general aim of the seminar was to facilitate an exchange of experiences and ideas, in order to strengthen implementation of Education for All in the participating countries (see Appendix 1). In more specific terms, the main objectives of the seminar were to:
- reflect on the relevance and significance of the Jomtien Declaration on Education for All, taking into account the difficulties involved in the expansion and improvement of basic education in the region;
- share major national experiences relating to progress, problems and prospects in the area of basic education for all;
- analyze some significant basic education innovations which are being implemented in different participating countries;
- identify experiences which could influence future EFA strategies in the region, and explore promising innovations which have a potential for adaptation in other countries of the region.

2. Participants

Around 56 participants and observers from the seven countries of the eastern and southern African region, namely, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania (Mainland and Zanzibar), Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe, attended the meeting. The organizing agencies were represented by Delegates from UNICEF, New York, UNICEF-ESARO, and the IIEP, Paris.

Five of the country delegations included an Education Project Officer from the respective UNICEF country office. Several invited Aid Agencies, including the DAE Secretariat, sent representatives to the seminar as observers. There was also a strong representation from within Uganda in the form of observers from Government Ministries, local
NGOs, educational organizations and agencies operating in the coun-
try. A full list of participants and observers at the seminar is given in
Appendix II.

3. Seminar programme

The work of the seminar was organized around the following four
major themes, chosen to reflect the concerns of participating coun-
tries, and the critical issues relating to basic education in the region:

Theme I. Expanding basic education facilities: focus on equity.
Theme II. Strengthening the links between community and basic
education.
Theme III. Basic education for better living: linking education and
development.
Theme IV. Improving the quality of basic education.

The seminar was structured into six working sessions, starting
with an introductory session of general presentations on the Jomtien
Declaration and an overview of basic education in the participating
countries. This was followed by four sessions, each dealing with one
of the four themes of the seminar. The final working session was allo-
cated to summing up on the seminar, and discussing implications for
further action. The full seminar programme is given in Appendix III.

The Government of Uganda organized a formal opening ceremo-
ny, at which the official inauguration speech was given by the Rt.
Hon. George Cosmos Adyebo, Prime Minister of the Republic of
Uganda. Statements were delivered by the UNICEF Representative in
Uganda, the Regional Director UNICEF-ESARO and the Senior
Programme Coordinator of IIEP. There was also a formal closing cere-
mony, at which the closing speech was delivered by the Minister of
Local Government. The opening speech delivered by the Prime
Minister which set the tone for further discussions during the seminar
is given in Appendix IV.
4. Preparation of documents for the seminar

Preparation of documents for the seminar began with the specification of detailed guidelines at the IIEP with respect to three documents. These were: (a) a country paper on the status of Education for All in each of the participating countries; (b) a basic reference document giving an overview of the developments in Education for All during the last three years after the Jomtien Conference; and (c) case studies of selected innovations in basic education in each of the participating countries. The guidelines for the preparation of the country paper and the case studies were sent to the Ministries of Education several months in advance along with an information note on the seminar. The ministries were specifically requested to set up a national team of experts who could take up the task of preparing these documents for use in the seminar. The respective UNICEF country offices were requested to co-ordinate the activities for this purpose.

Preparation of the basic reference document involved a technical mission by an IIEP consultant to the various participating countries lasting more than one month. During this visit the IIEP consultant held extensive discussions in each country with the officials of the concerned governments, the UNICEF officers and others involved in the development of Education for All programmes. The IIEP consultant, in collaboration with the national team of experts in different countries, prepared the basic reference document based on the information gathered through the discussions as well as the quantitative and qualitative information provided by the concerned national governments.

Thus, the inputs for the seminar consisted of the following documents:

• The basic reference document which provided a status analysis and review of critical issues in Basic Education for All, for the seven countries participating in the seminar. It gave the participants a regional perspective and a comparative analysis of the situation regarding basic education for all three years after the Jomtien Declaration (See Part II)

• A total of twelve Case Studies, providing a summary account of selected innovations which the participating counties were to share at the seminar. All these case studies were presented during the
seminar, and formed the basis for discussions on the seminar themes (See Part III).
• A *Country Paper* prepared by each participating country, giving a fairly detailed account of developments in EFA for that particular country. These country papers were circulated in order to provide further information for the seminar discussion, as well as for future reference.
Three years after Jomtien

II. Seminar proceedings

The working sessions of the seminar started with some general presentations on the status of EFA, three years after the Jomtien conference. This was intended to provide a general reminder and an overview of ERA issues, before participants moved on to the specific themes in terms of which the seminar was organized.

1. Recalling the Jomtien Declaration

There was a brief introduction dealing with the objectives and organization of the seminar. This was followed by a presentation on the Jomtien Declaration and its relevance to the participating countries. Using a wide range of statistical data the participants were reminded of the situation of basic education worldwide, which formed the background for the Jomtien Declaration. The presentation recalled key articles in the declaration, and went over the priority actions and strategies at national, regional and worldwide levels, as recommend in the framework for action agreed at Jomtien. Summary information was also provided on the progress being made in implementing EFA goals worldwide. This was mainly about how far countries had taken action on incorporating EFA goals in their national plans, and created mechanisms for the implementation and monitoring of these goals.

2. Overview of ERA in the seven participating countries

Drawing on the basic reference document, a presentation was made to give an overview of achievements and constraints in progress towards EFA for the seven countries participating in the seminar. It was pointed out that even though considerable efforts have been made against great odds, in improving access to education, there is a disturbing sense of stagnation in this area. Indeed some countries have even experienced
significant slippage in primary school enrolment ratios and reversals in hard-won literacy levels. Overall, however, there has been a welcome achievement in reducing gender inequality in primary school enrolment.

Poor retention in the school is the most serious problem facing the seven countries as they move towards EFA. Irregular attendance, absenteeism, frequent repetition and high drop-out rates are recognized as major factors which contribute to the problem of poor retention. But, reliable data are not readily available on these factors. Countries are therefore grappling with the need to have a better understanding of the underlying causes, and develop more appropriate strategies for dealing with this important problem.

Quality of education is another major problem faced by these countries in their efforts to achieve EFA goals. Besides other factors, provision of trained teachers and instructional materials is now being addressed, as countries begin to accept that quality is a multi-faceted issue which needs to be tackled through a fairly comprehensive set of measures.

Financing of education is a major constraint in the progress towards EFA. Most countries have diversified the sources of educational financing, with greater emphasis on community support and user contribution.

Critical needs highlighted for these countries include the need for more accurate statistics, the need for realistic goals and measurable indicators and the need to get a better understanding of problems relating to retention. There is also a strong need for strategies to safeguard hard-won gains and to promote more efficient use of limited resources. These countries also have to work out new ways of improving the quality of education in a more comprehensive manner. Most importantly, they have to be clear about the ultimate outcome expected from their basic education systems. The end product needs to be defined in such terms that they imply positive changes in the lives of people.

3. Summary of EFA in each participating country

Against the background of these general presentations, each of the participating countries made an initial general statement on progress towards EFA. The head of each delegation gave an overview of what had been done since Jomtien, highlighting achievements and challenges,
as well as the major concerns/experiences they wished to share with other seminar participants.

4. Presentation of case studies

Theme I. Expanding basic education facilities: focus on equity

Under this theme, three case studies of country experiences were presented to the seminar. Kenya presented a case study on the integration of traditional Islamic education with formal pre-school and primary education. Zanzibar gave a presentation on the strengthening of early childhood education through the *madrassah* schools. The third case study was presented by Malawi, dealing with a project to promote girls attendance in basic literacy and education.

During discussions on the case studies, a number of key issues were raised in relation to the focus on equity in the expansion of access to basic education. In general, it was acknowledged that communities which were suspicious of formal education on cultural grounds, posed a special challenge as regards access. The case studies from Kenya and Zanzibar had shown that it was possible to break the mould of conventional patterns of schooling in order to accommodate the preferences of these communities. The strategy of integrating secular education into traditional muslim schools was regarded by participants as an illustration of a more general principle: «Countries could build on traditional forms of education in order to promote equitable access and participation in basic education, for disadvantaged communities.»

It was seen as unfortunate that many African countries paid little attention to building on the traditional forms of education, even where this had clear advantages for some populations. What had been achieved by integrating secular education into traditional muslim education, could *ipso facto* be achieved with forms of traditional African education. Many of the participants suggested that instead of always seeking to impose conventional formal education, countries might make more use of traditional child care practices and forms of education, as a foundation for basic education.

A second and more controversial issue concerned the rationale for interventions at the *Early Childhood Education (ECE)* level, at a time when most countries cannot afford full participation at the primary level.
Would the time, effort and resources not be better utilized at primary level? How beneficial is this intervention at pre-school level, and what is the evidence of benefits? In the wake of these searching questions, participants engaged in a very lively exchange of views and experiences. Some of the main points emerging from this exchange include:

- There is often a need to intervene at the earliest level (ECE), in order not to marginalize certain disadvantaged communities.
- Evidence from Kenya suggests that before the integration strategy, many children who attended *madrassah* schools did not go on to conventional primary schools. Instead they usually went on to some higher form of *koranic* schooling which meant their education was purely religious.
- There is substantial evidence of improved performance and persistence at primary level, for children who attend some form of preschool. Intervention at pre-school level helps to free young girls and mothers from childcare chores, and allows them to focus on education and income-generating activities (as has been tried out in Malawi).
- Where there is a substantial cultural gap between formal secular schools and the local population (e.g. Zanzibar), intervention at pre-school level could help to promote school readiness and ensure a smooth transition into the primary school system.

Another issue raised during the discussions was on integrating secular education into traditional religious education as in Kenya and Zanzibar. Some participants felt that this would lead to a dilution of religious education, and so defeat the main purpose of these *koranic* schools. The Kenyan Delegation offered some examples from its integrated curriculum to show that this was not necessarily the case. It was however suggested that there had to be clear limits to secularization, if these schools are to serve the main functions which the local communities expect of them. On the other hand, some participants argued that using what are essentially religious schools for secular education has implications for the place of religion in the school system. In Zimbabwe for instance, traditional religious teaching was left to religious leaders and institutions (churches, mosques, etc.), and the formal schools were concerned with moral and ethical education which cuts across specific religions. Zimbabwe even has a policy which gives ‘right of entry’ to people from religious bodies, to enter schools at certain times, and
provide religious instruction to pupils. The general thrust of arguments was: "Integration of secular education into traditional religious education has its advantages, but could also be counter productive if it distorts the functions of these religious schools. It might also be prudent to maintain some degree of separation between traditional religious instruction and secular education."

The issue of quality was raised in relation to the pre-schools which integrated secular education into traditional religious education. In particular, the training of Islamic teachers in secular methodology (as explained in the case studies) was seen as inadequate. Most of these teachers had very little formal secular education to start with, and the crash training given to them could not compensate for this inadequacy. It was generally agreed that there should be more focus on improving the quality of these integrated madrassah schools in Kenya and Zanzibar, if their potential benefits should be fully realized.

In discussing the Malawi case study, delegates agreed that the issue of gender inequality in basic education presented a major challenge, which required radical measures and sustained efforts. It was felt that the strategies involved in Malawi’s Girls’ Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE) Project provided a useful start, but that some of the deep rooted causes of gender inequality were not being fully addressed.

While some of these causes are school-based, many more are located in the homes and communities. Studies in Ethiopia, for instance, showed that on the home front girls are overloaded with household chores, and this often puts their schooling at risk. On the school front, girls are often not free to discuss their problems or interact with male teachers. It was also mentioned that UNICEF studies in eight countries indicated that girls between the ages of 10 and 15 years were most at risk in dropping out of basic education. The Zimbabwe delegation also revealed that their study on drop-out rates at primary schools, showed that at Grade V (age of puberty) more girls dropped out of school than boys. In general it was felt that in addition to creating a more gender sensitive environment in schools, counselling and sensitization of parents, communities and pupils was essential. A wide range of examples were given by several countries, of the measures being taken to tackle the problem of gender inequality in basic education.

Some participants warned of the danger of trying to treat gender inequality in isolation. They argued that in poor households, for instance,
inability to pay school fees often affects boys as well as girls. Similarly, the problem with the school curriculum in most cases is not simply lack of gender sensitivity, but a much broader socio-cultural bias which alienates both boys and girls from disadvantaged backgrounds. Thus while a reasonable degree of positive discrimination in favour of girls might be in place, countries must not miss the chance to deal comprehensively with these problems.

Finally, the issue of sustainability was raised in view of the extent to which experiences described in all the case studies are dependent on donor funding. It was pointed out for instance that the Malawi Government could not afford to continue the fee waiver scheme as under the GABLE Project once USAID funding ends in 1996. Also, the sustainability of integrated madrassah schools could not be taken for granted. The ability of communities and governments to meet the full costs involved will be constrained by adverse economic conditions, once external funding comes to an end. Some participants therefore urged caution in countries accepting innovative projects and new policies which may not be sustainable in the long term.

**Theme II. Strengthening the links between community and basic education**

Under this theme, Kenya presented a case study on ‘Empowering communities to manage their basic education programmes’, and Uganda gave a presentation on their School Health Education Project (SHEP). A third case study was presented by Ethiopia, dealing with the ‘Role of education media in promoting basic education for all’.

Most of the discussion under this theme centred on participants wanting to know more about each of the case studies presented. Questions were asked about the sustainability of the Kariobangi Project in Kenya, considering that its target community comprised mainly of squatter settlements where people did not have the security of land tenure or property rights. How far could such communities participate in making decisions about their own long-term future? Are these communities really being empowered, or are they simply going along with the agenda set by Action Aid which gives them some short-term benefits? Should squatters be allocated land by the Nairobi Municipality?
Is there any guarantee that they will not simply sell off to rich purchasers and squat elsewhere? How easy is it for children in the non-formal schools to be accepted by formal primary schools? Would resources be better utilized on a campaign to get these communities to send their children to the regular primary schools in the first place? To what extent can this type of project be replicated in other deprived urban areas? What about the communities in Kariobangi, how do they cope when Action Aid financing comes to an end?

In general, it was felt that the Kariobangi Project (Kenya) had several positive elements, but there were many doubts about how far it could be replicated, and how sustainable it would prove to be. An important point raised was that there may be too many little innovations which are being jealously guarded and maintained, even though they may not be cost-effective in relation to the larger EFA goals.

On the SHEP Project in Uganda participants wanted to have more details of how inter-sectoral management worked in practice. Questions were also raised about integrating health materials into the school curriculum, and the danger of content overload. Further details were also sought about how SHEP was being used to strengthen links between schools and communities.

The Ethiopian case study had a great impact on most participants because it seemed to portray substantial success in an area where African countries had failed to make significant achievements. Several countries shared their experiences of trying to use radio in basic education, and compared/contrasted the difficulties they encountered with the Ethiopian experience.

Both Kenya and Uganda pointed out that for them education broadcasts had to rely on time slots allocated by the national radio station and paid for by the Ministry of Education. In contrast, Ethiopia has 11 radio stations fully dedicated to education broadcasts. Indeed programmes are broadcast in the mornings and repeated in the afternoons, to ensure that they are not missed. In many countries education broadcasts are used mainly to supplement the normal teaching programmes, and they tend to be optional rather than compulsory. In Ethiopia, education broadcasts are an essential part of teaching programmes, and teachers are expected to make full use of these broadcasts.

the high cost of providing radio sets in schools often acted as a major constraint in the use of education broadcasts for many countries.
Even where the initial capital was available, some countries like Zimbabwe had problems with the recurrent costs of replacing battery cells in the radios. In Ethiopia radio stations were equipped by donor agencies, who also supplied radio sets to the schools. The sets are maintained by schools and communities, but there is a problem with replacement of battery cells. Participants also noted that Ethiopia seems to have a good supply of trained specialists in the area of education broadcast. There are core specialists at the centre Education Media Agency (EMA), and at the four programme producing centres which serve the 11 transmitting stations.

The most significant lesson drawn from Ethiopia’s experience is that there has to be a critical driving force behind the use of radio for basic education. It was pointed out that a proper understanding of this driving force would help to explain how it was possible for Ethiopia to succeed where countries with far more resources and much less problems had failed. The political ideology behind educational expansion in Ethiopia had created a major driving force for change, even overlooking the considerations of cost effectiveness as the socialist regime had strong belief in the instrumentality of media for spreading literacy. Thus radio had total support from the government of the day, in the drive to transform Ethiopia’s elite education system into a mass education system.

Zimbabwe also had similar experiences of a major driving force, during its post-independence efforts to transform a racist system of education into a mass education system. Rapid expansion of education provision became imperative, almost at any cost. It was however disclosed by the Zimbabwe Delegation that this driving force has ‘slowed down’ in recent years, as the country begins to take a more realistic look at what policies and strategies it could afford in the long term!

Another important lesson drawn from Ethiopia’s experience was that Aid Agencies are always keen to support ‘vogue’ innovations and projects. The fact that Ethiopia’s bold initiatives in expansion of primary education and mass literacy were being acclaimed worldwide, had a lot to do with the unprecedented level of assistance it was able to attract for its education media services. Here again, similar experiences from Zimbabwe were shared with the seminar participants. There was a note of caution that countries should guard against ‘blindly accepting carrots dangled in front of them’ by Aid Agencies.
Three years after Jomtien

Theme III. Basic education for better living: linking education and development

Case studies were presented by Uganda, Ethiopia and Zambia on projects and policies designed to link education with development of individuals and communities. The Uganda case study dealt with a project on Basic Education for National Development (BEND). Ethiopia presented a case study on the role of Basic Development Education Centres (BDECs). Zambia presented a case study on their experiences with Basic Schools, which were set up to give primary school leavers an additional two years of education orientated towards the world of work.

Discussions on this theme soon became a passionate exchange of views on the pros and cons of vocationalizing basic education. The main points that emerged from the discussions were as follows:

The idea of vocationalizing education has a strong and almost intuitive appeal as a strategy/policy for linking education with development in Africa. In spite of limited success to date, and the high costs involved, countries still regard vocationalization as being vital for making education more relevant to the needs of society.

As Aid Agencies and several countries have had their fingers burnt in the past, through costly failures of vocationalization efforts, there is now considerable reluctance seriously consider funding vocationalization of education. Indeed the term itself is now so pregnant with controversy, that it has become a taboo amongst some agencies.

Some countries have become so chastened by past mistakes that they can no longer deal comfortably with the issue of vocationalization. Tanzania is one such country, since it was held up to the world (by a major World Bank study) as a prime example of the failure of vocationalization.

Vocationalization of basic education needs to be approached with great caution, and the lessons of past failures must be fully taken on board. However, the realities of life in many African countries will ensure that vocationalization in some form remains a perennial choice for linking basic education with development. It is a fact that most of those who go through basic education will not go on to further studies, and will need to make their livelihood using what they have gained from basic education. With diminishing job prospects and very little skills training
opportunities, it seems a matter of common sense that a practical
dimension to basic education would offer chances for better living.

Instead of dismissing vocationalization as a strategy that has fai-
led in the past, countries and Aid Agencies should revisit this area and
find ways of making it work. The evidence of what went wrong in the
past is now widely available, and there are also certain myths about
vocationalization which need to be exposed. All of this should be used
for moving forward with the most persistent concept that continues to
haunt education in Africa. If the term vocationalization can no longer
be salvaged from years of negative analysis, we may need to find new
terminologies/phrases to work in this area.

In general, it was clear that most of the countries at the seminar
believed firmly in some form of vocationalization of basic education,
as a way of promoting better living for school leavers and contributing
to community development. Uganda as the Host country of the semi-
nar mounted a display of exhibits from primary schools involved with
the BEND Project.

Theme IV. Improving the quality of basic education

Three case studies were presented under this theme by Malawi,
Zambia and Tanzania. The Malawi Special Teacher Education
Programme (MASTEP) was presented as an innovative example of
teacher-training in a situation of acute shortage. Zambia’s presentation
on the SHAPE Project was on a self-help approach to in-service
teacher training and provision of resources for teaching. The example
given by Tanzania was an account of a local co-operative for textbook
production.

Great interest was shown in MASTEP as a strategy for dealing with
the crisis in shortage of trained teachers, which all countries face.
Zimbabwe shared some of its own experiences with a similar project. The
main issue raised on these types of programmes was the need to ensure
that the quality of training provided is comparable to that in the regular
teacher-training programmes. Most of the discussion then centred on
details of how to ensure that trainee teachers and tutors get a reasonable
rest period during this taxing programme of ‘training while working’. The
need to encourage female trainee teachers to benefit from these pro-
grammes was also emphasized. The case presented by Malawi made it
clear that a positive approach was needed towards young mothers and
pregnant women who wished to pursue training while looking after their children.

The SHAPE Project of Zambia was already fairly well known to some of the participants, and the presentation was well received. There were some questions about the extent to which production activities interfered with the main business of the schools and teachers’ colleges.

It was also felt that the scope for the incoming generations would always be limited, and that considerable caution should be taken. Besides these sorts of caveats, it was generally felt that some degree of self-help at the school-level with teaching resources was a good thing.

Local production of books as outlined in the Tanzania case study was regarded as a positive development which countries should try to encourage. In the current economic situation, there is a need to avoid the high costs and foreign exchange required to import books. It was also felt that African countries could gain from a systematic challenge to the domination which some overseas publishers have in their markets. Some participants however felt that it was far more constructive and profitable to seek ways of working with these large publishers.
III. Conclusions and implications for action

At the final working session of the seminar, the Malawi Minister of Education gave a summary presentation on the whole seminar, highlighting key issues and major conclusions in relation to the experiences shared by participants. She also outlined a number of recommendations based on what had emerged at the seminar. Following her presentation there were several contributions from participants, highlighting the benefits they had gained from the seminar and making recommendations for future action. Representatives of Aid Agencies also made brief statements, giving their reactions to the seminar and also responding to some of the points raised by participants.

In general, the main conclusions and key recommendations from the seminar can be summarized as follows:

(i) The seminar has highlighted the need for novel strategies and innovative approaches, to deal with expansion of basic education in a way which ensures equitable access for disadvantaged groups and marginalized populations. At least three significant lessons have been gained from the seminar in this regard. Equitable access is enhanced by integration of educational delivery systems (religious and secular, as well as Western and African) to capitalize on the preferences of marginalized communities. Targeting assistance and incentives at disadvantaged groups such as girls, the handicapped, and the poor, helps to reduce inequalities in access and persistence. An efficient and well financed educational media service (radio) can be a powerful means of taking basic education to populations that are not well served by the normal delivery system.

(ii) There is a strong need for countries to review their policies and priorities in relation to EFA, as well as encourage partnerships and mobilize resources. Genuine partnership depends on flexibility, with policies and priorities that accommodate the concerns of
partners. The seminar has shown that community partnerships with government can help mobilize resources and use them effectively and efficiently. Other significant partnerships are governments and Aid Agencies; NGOs and governments; and donor-to-donor. Ultimately, the success of efforts in EFA will rest on effective and genuine partnerships, but there are also tensions in this area. Some Aid Agencies now show a preference for working with NGOs rather than governments, and this could lead to problems over policies and priorities. The tendency of donors to demand prompt, high level treatment can also be a burden on governments, and is often out of proportion to the contribution and size of the donor. Importantly also, it is not always clear that partnerships with communities are designed to encourage genuine participation and fair control, rather than simply getting communities to pay more for the pet schemes of others.

(iii) The greatest expectation regarding EFA is that it should help to improve the lives of individuals and the development of communities. The seminar led to the conclusion that much work needs to be done on the basic education curriculum, if such expectations are to be fulfilled. We need to focus more on learners as individuals, helping them to develop/achieve their full potential. Curriculum should be grounded in the reality of what communities are currently experiencing and the aspirations they have for the future. We need to revisit existing policies, draw on past experiences and think about how best to link the world of work with basic education. Communities should be more genuinely involved in curriculum decisions, and those who plan the curriculum should be less conservative in outlook. We should be thinking about curriculum for men next century, and basic education should be geared to the task of producing innovators rather than imitators.

(iv) Experiences shared at the seminar have highlighted the critical role of external assistance in helping African countries to achieve their EFA goals. It is clear that there is much goodwill and a willingness to help Africa, amongst a wide range of Aid Agencies. Equally however, there are areas of tension which need to be dealt with constructively. Sustainability is a major issue for several projects and programmes which are highly dependent on external funding. Consistency is another problem in that some Donor
Agencies tend to deal in ‘vogue’ funding, rather than give consistent support to sound policies over the long term. Many countries have been left in the lurch by withdrawal of external support for policies which were embarked upon with external advice in the first place. Countries should therefore exercise caution in accepting advice from external agencies, or in accepting some forms of external support. Careful attention needs to be given to long-term sustainability in these matters.

(v) There is a need for countries to generate an adequate level of political will, which could serve against all odds as a major driving force for achieving EFA goals. This should help in mobilizing resources for education, as well as reorganizing the allocation of resources within education. It should also help impose the type of discipline required for cost-effectiveness and greater efficiency in basic education. There is an implicit assumption that basic education enjoys high priority amongst the competing needs - for allocation of national resources. The evidence for this needs to be properly marshalled and constantly reinforced, rather than being taken for granted.

(vi) The issue of quality in basic education is of concern to all countries, and poses a major challenge. The seminar once again highlighted the complex nature of quality in education. A more holistic approach needs to be taken to improve quality across the board. Strategies for producing adequate numbers of trained teachers in a cost effective manner must be pursued. The provision and distribution of relevant instructional materials is also critical for improving quality. In addition, the working conditions of teachers, the nutritional status and psychological well-being of children, and the general learning environment in the schools, are all factors which contribute to quality. The seminar has shown that in all these areas, there is much that can be done at the local-community- and school-levels. Most importantly countries need to have a reasonably clear working definition of quality, and develop appropriate indicators for monitoring progress in efforts to improve the quality of basic education.

(vii) The need for systematic and informed action in areas like policy development, project design and programme planning has been highlighted by the experiences shared at the seminar. We have to
encourage pragmatic research into critical areas like the problem of school drop-outs, teaching of practical subjects, participation of girls, and the phenomenon of street children. It is essential that African countries are able to document and monitor their own education systems in order to produce regular and reliable information that would provide a sound basis for planning and monitoring progress towards EFA. Indeed, on the basis of the lessons learned at the seminar, it can be argued that countries have to re-examine their existing goals, targets and strategies, to make them more in tune with the realities that are beginning to unfold, as more information becomes available.

The seminar has provided an indication of the wide range of potential benefits to be gained from regional co-operation in basic education. Amongst other things, it is important to identify or create networks that are troy functional in the region. Links should also be established which would make it possible to utilize the experience of different countries across the region. Yet another area of co-operation would be to assign one country to look at one particular aspect of basic education, and provide feedback to other countries through the network. Some consideration should be given to designing a common core curriculum for basic education in the region, and developing instructional or supplementary materials on a regional basis. There is also a need for materials on ‘Helping teachers with basic education’, which can be used across the region.

Progress towards EFA goals would benefit greatly from further seminars and meetings which promote exchange of experiences/ideas and co-operation in the region. It is necessary for instance to have regional meetings which would focus on just one specific aspect of basic education, such as quality, or retention. While the constructive role of Aid Agencies in organizing these types of meetings is readily acknowledged, some future meetings may need to be organized differently. In: addition to meetings and seminars, there is evidently a great need for countries to learn from each other in more detail, through exchange visits.
Part II

A review of developments in seven eastern and southern African countries
Part II
A review of developments in seven eastern and southern African countries

This overview of the trends and current status of basic education in Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania (Mainland and Zanzibar), Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, is based on data collected during a brief preparation mission to these countries during July - August 1993. In each country, a team of national experts, selected by the Ministries of Education, assembled available data and worked closely with the UP consultant to review this information and discuss a range of critical issues.

The information presented in this review, including the figures given in various tables, is mainly based on information supplied by the national authorities concerned and country papers presented by delegates to the seminar; this has been supplemented wherever necessary by data from other sources such as from UNESCO and the World Bank documents. Yet, some gaps in data still persist as reliable information on these aspects could not be obtained from the national sources concerned.

The main purpose of this basic reference document is to provide a comparative analysis of the trends and status of Basic Education for All in seven countries, as well as to highlight critical issues emanating from such an analysis. This review therefore seeks to deepen the process of sharing experiences, by analyzing the similarities and differences which countries are experiencing as they progress towards the goal of education for all. It also intends to provide a regional overview of the actions initiated in different countries to implement the Jomtien Declaration.
Chapter I
Jomtien Conference: a watershed of vision and commitment

1. Placing the Jomtien initiative in context

The events at the Jomtien Conference in March 1990 and the subsequent Declaration constitute an important landmark in the development of basic education. It is, however, essential to put this into its proper perspective while reviewing the progress towards the goal of Education for All in African countries.

For many African countries, the desire to provide education for all did not start with the Jomtien Declaration. Universal Primary Education (UPE) had been adopted as a major long-term objective over two decades ago (e.g. Kenya’s 1963 manifesto, and the Musoma resolutions of 1974 in Tanzania). However, despite professed commitment to UPE, providing education for all has remained a distant dream for many countries. Reasons for this include resource constraints, narrow implementation strategies, conflicting priorities in education, and relative lack of concerted support from the international community.

Nevertheless some achievements towards education for all had been recorded by African countries, even before the Jomtien Declaration. In particular, it is worth recalling the achievements in boosting literacy rates in Ethiopia and Tanzania, as well as the unprecedented expansion of primary education in Zimbabwe within a short period after independence.

Viewed against this background, the main significance of Jomtien was that it enabled African countries to revisit the ambitious goal of education for all with renewed hope. Where there had been much cynicism and conflicting perspectives, Jomtien brought about a new commitment and consensus on the importance of EFA goals. In the same way, Jomtien produced a new vision of what was possible in terms of alternative strategies for implementing EFA goals. Particularly, Jomtien gave a new hope for harnessing resources from diverse sources (including
major Aid Agencies) in order to provide the kind of concerted support needed to achieve these goals in any country.

For most African countries therefore, the World Declaration may not have really marked the genesis of a new concept or quest that was alien to them. Rather, the Jomtien Conference was a watershed at which the vision of EFA was reborn, and a constructive framework of co-operation and commitment was established.

2. Essentials of Jomtien

There are three main principles which capture the essentials of Jomtien’s objectives and highlight the key tasks ahead for African countries. The first is a quantitative principle which emphasizes commitment to universal provision of opportunities for a defined minimum level of education. Although this principle is centrally concerned with opportunities for the school-age population, it also embraces provision for the adult population which, in the earlier years, did not have access to such opportunities in many countries.

The second principle is the equity principle which emphasizes the need to ensure that distribution and utilization of opportunities in education will be fairly targeted in order to reach the disadvantaged groups in society. This calls for specific measures and explicit strategies in favour of groups that have so far not been able to fully participate in the education process.

Thirdly, there is what could be termed the achievement principle which emphasizes the need to focus on well-defined learning achievements as the main outcome of the education process. This principle is inextricably linked with relevance, effectiveness and efficiency which together help to define quality in the process of education.

In summary, the Jomtien Declaration means providing equitable access to good quality education, up to a specified level, in order to ensure certain minimum learning achievements for all. That at least is the ideal. How far do the countries measure up to this ideal depends on a number of factors.
Three years after Jomtien

3. Making progress towards the Jomtien goals

National commitment, mobilization of resources and international co-operation have all been highlighted as essential pre-requisites for progressing towards achieving the ideals of education for all. In more concrete terms, the enormity of the task facing African countries can be gauged from the size and diversity of target populations to be catered for; the scarcity of resources which need to be fiercely competed for; the depth of long-standing inequalities in educational participation; and the complexities involved in improving the quality of education.

On the other hand, Me resolve and determination with which the ideals of EFA are being pursued has to be judged from the proportion of national budgets allocated to education; the measures enacted by governments; the willingness of parents and communities to make sacrifices for the education of their children; and the capacity of all concerned to define and work within a co-operative framework.

Ultimately, the extent to which African countries succeed in achieving the goals set for EFA will vary according to their respective circumstances. Much depends also on how far the type of vision and commitment emanating from Jomtien can be translated into concrete reality. In this regard, there is considerable scope for countries to learn from each other as they grapple with the enormous range of challenges pertaining to basic education for all.

Three years after Jomtien, a regional seminar involving seven countries provides an opportune occasion for sharing experiences on achievements and challenges in the quest to reach the goals of Education for All.
Chapter II
The context of basic education

As a ‘social good’ education can be profoundly affected by a diverse range of forces external to education systems. It is therefore important in any meaningful assessment of the status of Education for All in a country, to map out these intervening forces and their possible impact on basic education programmes.

1. Demographic/geographic factors

One of the most fundamental considerations in the provision of education for all is the size and diversity of the target population which has to be catered for. A national population profile can provide a useful indicator by highlighting the target population and other features such as growth rate and dependency ratio. Beyond this, aspects of population distribution such as density, urbanization and sex ratio can also throw light on the challenges involved in providing EFA. Then there are those special features which further complicate the target population, such as the existence of nomads, refugees, and remote settlements. Table 1 gives some population features for seven countries in the eastern and southern region of Africa. It highlights the primary school-going age population as the main target for EFA, showing it also as percentage of total national population.

The two most important features in Table 1 are the high population growth rates in each country, and the fact that the primary school-going age population represents a very high percentage of total population in each country. Taken together, these two features indicate a constant pressure of numbers resulting from an enormous expansion in the target population for primary education. The population figures are also of importance in that they highlight the relative magnitude of the task facing each country. For instance, primary school enrolment of even 1 per cent of the...
Three years after Jomtien

target population involves a total of 160,000 children for Ethiopia at one extreme, and only 18,100 children for Zambia at the other.

Another important demographic consideration has to do with the population distribution features. Settlement patterns lead to variations in population density for different parts of each country, and this in turn demands significantly different strategies for achieving the goals of education for all.

The sex ratio of the population is also significant as an indicator of the extent to which opportunities for females need to keep pace with general provisions in order to achieve equity.

Table 1. Population growth rate and primary school-age population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total population (millions)</th>
<th>Primary school-age population (millions)</th>
<th>Primary school-age as % of total</th>
<th>Population growth rate %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia (excluding Eritrea)</td>
<td>53.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>&gt;3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>27.20</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi 1993*</td>
<td>9.37</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania 1993*</td>
<td>27.43</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zanzibar 1993+</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda 1991</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia 1993+</td>
<td>8.65</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe 1992</td>
<td>10.40</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = Estimate; + = Provisional.

There is also the urban/rural divide, which is not only an indicator of major differences in population density, but also of large differences in wealth, lifestyle and political influence. All of these can greatly influence provision and equitable access to educational opportunities in
a country. Some of these population distribution features are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Some population distribution features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population density per sq. km.</th>
<th>Urban/rural population in percentage</th>
<th>Sex ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>*24</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = Figures based on information collected from respective government sources.

It should be noted that there are large differences in maximum and minimum population density for each country which suggest that the possibilities for economies of scale and efficiency in the provision of education will also vary greatly within each country. In Ethiopia for instance, the sparse population density and scattered habitation patterns of pastoralists and agro-pastoralists in the lowlands, pose serious challenges for equitable provision of education. Similar problems are encountered in relation to nomadic communities of Kenya and Tanzania. These problems of scattered settlements are often made worse by harsh climatic conditions and difficult terrain, which reduce the accessibility of the areas concerned. In Kenya for instance, 83 per cent of the land is termed as Arid and semi-arid land (ASAL), and supports about 20 per cent of the population who are mainly pastoralists.
The degree of urbanization is quite uneven across the seven countries, with Zambia showing an unusually high level for an African country. It is, therefore, not surprising that one of the main challenges currently facing Zambia is the lack of school places to meet the increasing demand for initial enrolment (Grade 1), in the high population urban centres.

In common with many African countries, most of the countries in this region have a high degree of internal migration, mainly from rural to urban areas. This is particularly true for Zambia, which is the third most urbanized country in Africa. In contrast, rural migration to urban centres tends to be weak in Tanzania, due to the policy of ruralization which dominated its previous development strategy. Besides rural/urban migration, some countries have also to deal with ‘perpetual migrants’ or nomadic populations. For instance, 10 per cent of Ethiopia’s population is considered to be nomadic and the corresponding figure for Kenya is estimated to be as high as 20 per cent. This poses particularly difficult challenges for ensuring equitable access to educational opportunities.

Further, unstable conditions resulting from natural disasters and civil conflicts in the region, has given rise to a sizeable refugee population in several of these countries. There is a challenge involved for the host countries to provide for the educational needs of a large refugee population. Similarly, countries with large outflow of refugees need to be prepared to provide for their education when they eventually return home.

In the case of Zambia for instance, it is known that there has been a large inflow of refugees, due to its role as a front line state in the fight against apartheid in South Africa. Malawi has for many years hosted a large refugee population from the civil war in Mozambique, and also has a modest outflow of its own refugees due to political conflicts at home. More recently Kenya has had to cope with a major inflow of refugees from the conflict in Somalia and Ethiopia, while Ethiopia itself is having to deal with the complex problem of large returnee populations. For countries like Uganda and Zimbabwe, the population settlement patterns are now fairly stable after the upheavals caused by years of internal tensions.
2. Economic factors

It is probably a truism that a country’s economic strength is one of the most important factors influencing its ability to provide education for all. In practice however, the extent to which economic strength gets translated into educational provisions will also depend on several other factors such as political will, distribution of national wealth, and the priority which education has amongst key decision-makers at all levels (from national to household).

Table 3. Profile of economic base

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Natural resources</th>
<th>Major activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Livestock; fisheries; minerals</td>
<td>Agriculture (45% of GNP); industry (16%); services (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Fisheries; wildlife; minerals</td>
<td>Agriculture (27%); industry, mainly tourism (17%); services (56%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Minerals; fisheries</td>
<td>Agriculture (36%); industry, mainly fishing (18%); services (46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Hydro power; minerals; natural gas; fisheries</td>
<td>Agriculture (53%); industry (7%); services (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Minerals; livestock; fisheries</td>
<td>Agriculture (50%); industry (9%); services (41%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Minerals, particularly copper</td>
<td>Agriculture (15%); industry, particularly mining (45%); services (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Minerals; livestock; fisheries</td>
<td>Agriculture (11%); industry (42%); services (47%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To the extent that economic strength is obviously an important consideration in the provision of education for all, it is necessary to examine the economic potential of a country as well as its current economic performance. For countries which have a high economic potential, but are currently performing poorly, it will, perhaps, be most constructive to combine assistance to education with overall measures to
improve the economy. On the other hand, countries with relatively poor economic potential may require much more direct assistance to education on a long-term basis, if they are to make any significant progress towards EFA goals.

Some of the important factors indicating the economic potential of participating countries is highlighted in Table 3, in terms of the main natural resources, the major economic activities, and employment pattern of the population. In addition, Table 4 gives an indication of trends in the economic performance of these countries, in terms of GNP per capita. It is evident from the data that these countries have a typically weak economic base, which is highly vulnerable to externally determined prices for most of the primary produces undergirding their GNP.

Table 4. Economic performance trends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>GNP per capita (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>650</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While the macro-economic indicators reflect the overall capacity of the country to support educational activities, actual commitment of the government is reflected in the way public funds are utilized for educational development. *Table 5* gives a picture of the trends in public expenditure on education during the last decade.
Table 5. Public expenditure on education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>As percentage of GNP</th>
<th>As percentage of govt. expenditure</th>
<th>Average annual growth rate %</th>
<th>Current expenditure percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figures reveal that all the countries with the exception of Uganda and Zimbabwe, have been struggling to increase their share of expenditure on education. In fact, Zambia registered a negative annual growth rate during the period from 1980 to 1990, while Tanzania and Malawi showed a slow growth rate of 2 per cent and 3.9 per cent, respectively. Further, it should be noted that higher level of expenditure on education may not guarantee increased flow of funds for basic education programmes. For instance, while Kenya spends 6.8 per cent of GNP on education, much of the expenditure goes towards the higher education sector.

3. Political factors

The prevailing political ideology and form of government in a country generally shapes the education policy and influences the pattern of provision and distribution of educational opportunities. Management and control of the education system is also largely determined by the existing system of political-administration structures and practices.

Among the participating countries, Ethiopia provides one of the most interesting examples of the way in which political factors can influence the provision and equitable access to quality education for all. During recent years, Ethiopia has undergone major changes in political ideology. Centuries of traditional rule by an absolute monarchy ended with the coup of 1974 which ushered in a period of socialist government spanning almost 17 years. Currently, the two-year old Transitional Government is presiding over a process of political democratization. Under the monarchy, education was largely a privilege linked to the church and higher echelons of society. The socialist regime did reverse this situation mainly through the literacy campaign. However, as the regime faded under different pressures, the structures and machinery through which these apparently spectacular gains in literacy had been achieved started to crumble.

Under the democratization policies of the new Transition Government of Ethiopia (TGE), responsibility for education rests with the regions, rather than with the central Ministry of Education in Addis Ababa. Paradoxically, this new-found liberal democracy appears to pose some new challenges for education, at least in the short-term. For instance, regions are now exercising the right to use their local language
for instruction given in primary education. At present, five mother-tongue languages are being used in primary schools, and this will increase to nine in the next year. Many regions are also now rejecting the Amharic script in favour of a Latin script for their local language. This in effect could negate most of the literacy gains which were based on the Amharic script. For a country with 80 languages and quite serious problems of re-construction to cope with, these trends represent further logistical obstacles in the drive towards EFA.

Ethiopia’s case is important as it illustrates some of the critical issues which need to be addressed as countries undergo major political transformation. Kenya, Malawi and Zambia are currently in the throes of such a transformation, as they move to establish or consolidate multiparty democracies in place of long-standing one-party systems. Having reestablished peace and stability after the traumatic years of civil strife, Uganda is also edging towards full political democracy. Political changes may entail a period of some uncertainty, and the driving force underlying gains in education could easily become stalled, if special attention is not paid to all these situations by the national leadership.
Chapter III
Developments in basic education

1. First steps after Jomtien

There can be little doubt that as a watershed event, the Jomtien Declaration has profoundly influenced subsequent developments in the area of basic education. In each of the seven countries, Planning and Administrative Task Forces were established to deal specifically with promotion of basic education for all, and major resources were allocated to operationalizing and strengthening the drive towards the goals set for basic education. All of these efforts were generally well supported by various bilateral and international agencies. In particular, UNICEF offices in each country actively supported the preparation of various national documents relating to basic education for all and the welfare of women and children.

Against this background, it is useful to look first at the range of measures taken in each of the seven countries, for achieving concrete results in the area of basic education for all. (See Table 6 and Table 7).

2. Developments since Jomtien

In terms of actual achievements since Jomtien, there are four major dimensions to be considered in any comprehensive assessment of progress towards the goal of education for all. Firstly, there is the fundamental dimension of access which is about the provision and use of opportunities for basic education. Secondly, beyond access, we need to look at retention. This is mainly about gaffing learners to attend regularly, and stay on till the end of the basic education cycle. The third important dimension is that of quality. This is ensuring learner achievements, which constitutes the major purpose of basic education. Fourthly, is the dimension of financing. Ultimately, it is this which determines the feasibility and sustainability of education for all in any country.
Table 6. Summary of actions since Jomtien

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publicizing the Jomtien Declaration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethiopia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kenya</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Malawi</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tanzania</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Uganda</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zambia</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning Education for All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethiopia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kenya</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Malawi</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tanzania</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Uganda</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Zambia</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three years after Jomtien

Table 6. (contd)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Task Force (National Advisory Committee) set up in 1990.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operationalizing EFA plans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Pilot projects on basic education initiated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Reduction of untrained teachers; supplied instructional material to schools in poor areas; educational planning strengthened.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Policy of phasing out of fees started; reduction of untrained teachers; revision of curriculum undertaken.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Curriculum revision undertaken; conditions of teachers improved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>School mapping; co-ordinating rational use of local and donor resources; policy framework developed for democratic, universal access to primary education; expansion of teacher-training facilities; community mobilization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Policy document ‘Focus on Learning’ produced to guide implementation of EFA plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>School mapping; early childhood care and education activities strengthened.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) Access to basic education

There are two sides to access. Governments, local communities and other agencies seek to provide opportunities for basic education. In this sense, access depends on the provision of opportunities. However, access depends on the utilization of such opportunities by the populations at which they are aimed. It is the dynamic interaction of ‘provision’ and ‘utilization’ that propels access as a significant dimension of basic education.
Table 7. The EFA process in the participating countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>National policy meeting</th>
<th>EFA information campaign</th>
<th>EFA goals</th>
<th>EFA strategy plans</th>
<th>National EFA mechanisms</th>
<th>Budget increase</th>
<th>Meeting with donors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Y (yes)</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Provision of opportunities for basic education

In all the Seven countries, the main form of provision for basic education is overwhelmingly in terms of the formal primary school system. The growth in the number of primary schools between 1989 and 1993 is shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8. Growth in provision of basic education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>8,579</td>
<td>8,345</td>
<td>8,256</td>
<td>8,434</td>
<td>8,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>14,691</td>
<td>14,864</td>
<td>15,196</td>
<td>15,465</td>
<td>15,902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>2,693</td>
<td>2,896</td>
<td>2,346</td>
<td>2,904</td>
<td>3,065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>10,431</td>
<td>10,417</td>
<td>10,451</td>
<td>10,960</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zanzibar</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>7,684</td>
<td>7,667</td>
<td>8,046</td>
<td>8,325</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>3,493</td>
<td>3,587</td>
<td>3,700</td>
<td>3,559</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>4,507</td>
<td>4,539</td>
<td>4,549</td>
<td>4,571</td>
<td>4,578</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.A. = Figures not available.

While growth in the number of schools gives some indication of progress, the numbers themselves are not a measure of how far a country has progressed in providing basic education for all. Much depends on the size and capacity of the schools in relation to the growth and relative location of the target population. What is most important about growth in number of schools is that it gives an indication of new efforts in providing for education. In most of these seven countries, construction of school buildings is mainly done by local communities. Increases in the number of schools should therefore be recognized and acknowledged as
valuable efforts at providing educational opportunities for all on the part of communities. Even where such provision involves some government financing, it should be seen as a positive development in a climate of scarce public funds.

At the same time, Aid Agencies have played a critical role of partner through which schools and classrooms continue to be built or renovated, in order to increase access to primary education. In Uganda for instance, the school construction programme supported by the World Bank includes US$12 million to repair and build primary classrooms. Various other agencies such as World Vision, JAICA, Lutheran World Federation, and the churches, also support construction and renovation of primary classrooms in Uganda, in partnership with local communities.

The pattern has been the same in the other six countries. In Zambia, agencies such as the EC, ADB, FINIDA, OPEC and SIDA have assisted local communities with construction, repair and maintenance of primary schools. Tanzania has recently won support from DANIDA for a 12-year project on renovation of primary schools.

- Early childhood education

Governments had been largely uninvolved in this sub-sector, but it is now seen as an important point of leverage to improve readiness for primary schooling, and as a focal point for delivering integrated childcare packages. However, intervention by most governments has been limited mainly to ensuring basic standards through registration requirements, developing standard curriculum, and training teachers. Governments have also encouraged NGOs to set up and run ECE Centres. As for example in Tanzania, rural communities have also been mobilized to set up their own childcare and ECE Centres (as in Zimbabwe). Another important trend in this area is the use of Madrassah schools to promote secular education at both pre-school and primary levels. Such attempts are quite substantial in Kenya and Tanzania/Zanzibar.

Some of the Aid Agencies which are actively supporting ECE in these countries include UNICEF, the Aga Khan Foundation, Bernard Van Leer Foundation, YWCA, SOS Children’s Village, etc.

In spite of these important developments reliable statistical data on this sub-sector are still hard to find. With increasing registration of these centres data should improve during the coming years. Kenya seems to
be making considerable progress with more than 18,000 institutions providing pre-school education. Surprisingly, the available statistics indicate a sharp decrease in the number of such institutions in Ethiopia during the last few years (from 833 in 1990 to 479 in 1993).

- Adult education activities

The area of adult education is a fairly mixed one in terms of available data. Countries like Ethiopia and Tanzania which were involved in major literacy programmes tend to have reliable and detailed data. On the other hand, those countries where useful statistics on this sub-sector are not available relied on the NGOs for data on the adult literacy drive. The most common indicator of progress with adult literacy is simply the percentage of the population that is still illiterate. Table 9 gives illiterate rates in 1990 and the change in illiteracy rates during the last decade.

Table 9. Adult illiteracy rates (15+ age group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Illiteracy rate %</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>3 728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>4 908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>1 170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>1 176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Corresponding figures were not available for Ethiopia, Malawi and Tanzania.

It is useful to examine the trends in the provision of programmes for adult literacy. This could indicate changes in the level of effort, as well as any decline in demand for such programmes. Both Ethiopia and Tanzania have quite a remarkable track record in the area of adult education.
literacy. In recent years, however, much of the hard-on gain in this area has been eroded by a combination of factors which include lack of resources and an ideological hiatus as the countries move towards a liberal democratic set-up. For instance, when the socialist regime in Ethiopia attempted to introduce a ‘mixed economy’ in the late 1980s, it caused the dismantling of the structures of political organization, which also formed the backbone of its spectacular achievements in literacy. The end result was that most literacy and NFE programmes fell by the wayside.

Some of the Aid Agencies which have provided major support for adult literacy programmes and non-formal education in the seven countries include, SIDA, DVV, Action AID, UNICEF, CODE, etc. he the Jomtien Conference, there has undoubtedly been an increased concern for out-of-school education or non-formal education programmes. These are mainly targeted at school drop-outs, street children, and other such disadvantaged groups. Although governments are taking an increased interest in this area, within the framework of basic education for all, it is the NGOs that are the main driving force for most of these programmes. Even though, reliable statistical data on these programmes are not readily available in the seven countries, there is an increasing wealth of descriptive information on several innovative NFE programmes.

(ii) Participation in basic education

The impact of increased provision on progress towards basic education for all depends on two factors (i) the extent to which provision keeps pace with growth in the target population, and (ii) the extent to which provision is accompanied by a reasonable level of utilization on the part of the target population. An important measure of real progress towards EFA is therefore to be found in participation rates for the target population. Commonly, this takes the form of an enrolment ratio which expresses the number enrolled in primary education as a percentage of the number of children in the primary school-going age in the total population. Gross enrolment ratio (GER) disregards the ages of pupils enrolled in school, while Net enrolment ratio (NERD) is computed after eliminating all over-aged and under-aged pupils from the total number enrolled in school.
On this basis, Table 10 shows trends in participation rates for primary education, over the period 1989 to 1993. From this table, it can be argued that apart from Zimbabwe, which has achieved and sustained 100 per cent in net enrolment, the trend for participation rates is mixed and not very encouraging. Given the high annual growth rate of their target population, every percentage point increase in enrolment is a worthwhile achievement for these countries. But it is also evident that these countries are experiencing serious reversals of past trends in increased participation rates. This is particularly the case for Ethiopia and Zambia, where enrolment growth rates have been negative in the past few years.

Table 10. Participation trends in primary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Primary school enrolment – GER/NER (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia (GER)</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya (GER)</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi (NER)</td>
<td>58.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania (GER)</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(NER)</td>
<td>54.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zanzibar (GER)</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda (GER)</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(NER)</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia (GER)</td>
<td>90.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe (NER)</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N.A. = Figures not available.

As mentioned earlier, one of the main areas of post-Jomtien educational development for most African countries is that of Early Childhood Education (ECE). While prior to Jomtien, this area of education was peripheral in terms of government involvement and
intervention, there has been an upsurge of interest and action in recent years. This is due in no small measure to the involvement of agencies like UNICEF, and the new perspectives they have emphasized since Jomtien. The result has been that many countries now give greater attention to the welfare of children and women, particularly in the rural areas. Greater provision of ECE opportunities has been one of the outcomes of this new focus.

Unfortunately, reliable data on participation rates are not readily available for the ECE sub-sector as this is a relatively new venture for many countries. Interviews with officials in the seven countries suggest that the rationale for greater government involvement in ECE includes the following:

- Introduction of ECE gives children an early start to the rhythm of schooling, and can help eliminate late enrolment in primary school (over-aged children) as well as ameliorate some of the psychological trauma which children often experience in their first encounter with school.
- The benefits of learning through play and other positive aspects of ECE can provide children with an intellectual and psychological readiness for formal schooling, which should help to improve learning achievement.
- The existence of ECE Centres around the country makes it possible to pursue a more integrated approach to child care and the development of the whole child. These centres can serve as the focus for nutrition programmes, health monitoring, and child care training for mothers.

Even though officials subscribe to this kind of rationale for promoting ECE, the reality which propels ECE developments seem to be quite different. There are also major variations in the approach which is adopted by different countries, and therefore in the consequent impact of government intervention in this area.

As in most African countries, ECE in the seven countries has been a largely urban phenomenon and a prerogative of those who are economically well-off. The recent rapid expansion of ECE has been propelled by different factors in different countries. It could be argued that one common feature is increased urbanization and the absence/decline of traditional family care systems in the urban areas. This, in combination with changing work patterns (more women at work) has increased the
range of families seeking some form of childcare for their children. Daycare centres and nurseries have increased in number, to meet this growing demand. Beyond this common feature, the situation tends to be different for each country.

In Uganda, the high percentage of orphans resulting from years of civil conflict and currently the AIDS problem, has been a major factor in the proliferation of ‘babies homes’, nurseries and child care centres. On the other hand, pressure to reduce racial inequalities was undoubtedly a major factor in Zimbabwe’s drive to promote rural ECE Centres. Prior to this, nursery schools were in urban areas and enrolled mainly white and Asian children. The Government of Zimbabwe is also consciously trying to promote ECE as a strategy for improving learning achievements in primary schools. In Kenya, it appears that the main driving force for expansion of ECE has been the ‘head start’ that it provides for children.

A de facto link has now been established between ECE and access to quality primary education, since most of the ‘good’ primary schools will not admit children who have not already been through ECE.

(iii) Trends in equitable access

There are three categories of inequalities which have to be addressed in providing education in most African countries. First, there are regional inequalities in access to education, which may be due to traditional neglect of rural areas or of ethnic groups living in certain regions. There may also be some genuine difficulties (terrain, climate) which constrain efforts to provide equitable opportunities for some regions. Whatever the reasons, a useful indicator of regional disparities in access to education is the gap between maximum and minimum enrolment ratios for regions within a country. Table 11 shows the maximum and minimum enrolment ratios for sub-regions within the countries under consideration.

All the seven countries are very much aware of the problem of regional inequalities in access to education. Whatever the underlying causes are, it is a problem which countries are seeking to address urgently, as one of the key strategies for advancing towards EFA. In most countries therefore, targets set for the year 2000 relate not only to increased enrolment ratios, but also to a reduction in regional enrolment ratios. It should be said that the problem is even more serious than the regional figures suggest. Much greater disparities in enrolment emerge if

Three years after Jomtien
data at district-level are examined. In Uganda for instance district-wise data suggest that the highest GER is 157.1 per cent for Soroti District (eastern region), while the lowest GER is 13.3 per cent for Moroto District in the northern region.

Table 11. Regional disparities in primary enrolment ratio (percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>1993</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>Minimum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>98.3</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zanzibar</td>
<td>148.5</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Corresponding figures for Tanzania – Mainland and Zimbabwe were not available.
N.A. = Figures not available.

The second main area of inequality is that of gender. In most African countries, girls and women typically represent 50 per cent or more of the population. They however tend to be disadvantaged when it comes to educational opportunities, and often represent less than 40 per cent of primary school enrolment. Table 12 gives the trend in girls enrolment as a percentage of total primary school enrolment over the period 1989-1993.

The figures suggest that these countries have made considerable progress in tackling gender inequality, although more has to be done to keep girls in school for the full cycle. Some of the credit for this achievement should go to the Aid Agencies which have consistently kept the issue of gender equality at the forefront of all negotiations, plans and activities in education.
USAID is one of the major agencies which provide specific assistance to deal with questions of gender inequality.

Table 12. Gender disparities in primary enrolment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Females as percentage of total enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Figures for Uganda were not available.  
N.A. = Figures not available.

The third area of inequality concerns the handicapped population, which needs to be specially catered for, to ensure that they have fair opportunities to participate in education. The current trend favours integration of handicapped children into ordinary primary schools, rather than segregating them in special institutions. There is then a need for appropriate training for the teachers, as well as special facilities and materials within these general schools. With the support of Aid Agencies such as DANIDA, many countries are making good progress in meeting the challenge of providing equal access to education for the handicapped.

(iv) Completion and drop-out rates

Generally, data on completion rates tend to be patchy. This makes it difficult to show a meaningful trend over a reasonable period. In 1990, primary school completion rates were 37 per cent and 70.3 per cent for Ethiopia and Zimbabwe respectively. By 1992, the rate had risen to 73.8 for Zimbabwe. Table 13 gives the proportion of children who reach the
final grade of the primary school cycle from among those who enrolled in Grade 1 in 1989.

Table 13. Primary school completion rates (cohort percentage of 1989)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya *</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda *</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = Estimate based on information collected from government sources.
N.A. = Figures not available.

From the data given in Table 13, it appears that Zambia and Zimbabwe have considerably eliminated the problem of school drop-out at the primary school stage. Tanzania also seems to have tackled the problem to a great extent as the current completion rate is about 73 per cent as compared to a completion rate of only 64 per cent reported for the 1987 cohort. The problem is quite serious in all other countries as not even one out of two children enrolled in Grade 1 reaches the final grade of primary cycle. The situation is particularly alarming in Ethiopia as it has a very low enrolment rate and even then only one out of four survive to reach the final grade of primary education.

(v) Quality in basic education

One of the most fundamental problems involved in dealing with the issue of quality in education is the lack of well-defined and commonly accepted parameters of what constitutes quality. There is no shortage of
useful indicators such as examination results, teacher/pupil ratios, percentage of trained teachers, and the availability of instructional materials. In addition, there is also a growing awareness in participating countries that several other less tangible variables are of great importance to quality in education. Zimbabwe, for instance, is putting great emphasis on the link between school meals and improved learning. In the same way, Kenya’s programme of milk supplies to all schools also emphasizes the importance of nutrition for effective learning. Much attention is also being given to what is broadly termed the learning environment in schools. This includes such variables as the availability of space, furniture, equipment, recreational facilities, and the general ethos that prevails in the primary schools.

While there is still considerable work to be done in developing a comprehensive set of parameters which would define quality in widely acceptable terms, there appears to be some consensus on the kinds of measures needed to improve the quality of education in most of these countries.

Making education more relevant to the needs of the target population is seen as one way of improving the quality of education in a county. This often requires some form of curriculum revision or reform. The extent to which curriculum revision activities have been undertaken since the Jomtien Conference can give a useful indication of efforts being made to improve the quality of education. For instance, the efforts made in Tanzania include several measures such as reducing the number of subjects from 13 to 7; upgrading of content to consolidate quality; introduction of work oriented skills; encouragement of reading through supplementary materials; and raising the entry requirements for primary school teachers.

Increasing the proportion of trained teachers is widely accepted as one of the main ways in which the quality of education could be improved. To this end, some fairly innovative strategies for rapidly increasing the percentage of trained teachers in primary schools have been adopted in Malawi (MASTEP) and Uganda. Table 14 indicates the proportion of trained teachers in primary schools. It should, however, be noted that the contents as well as the duration of teacher-training programmes vary very widely from one country to another influencing the quality of the teachers trained under these programmes.
Table 14. Trained teachers in primary schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage of trained teachers in primary schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>73.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>64.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>86.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Corresponding figures for Tanzania were not available. N.A. = Figures not available.

In all the countries, availability of instructional materials is regarded as one of the most common indicators of quality of education. This is in line with the overwhelming evidence gathered from international research on the positive impact which available learning materials have on learner achievement. As part of this effort, supply of textbooks has received considerable support from sever of the Aid Agencies.

Apart from these three areas: (i) making education relevant to target population, (ii) increasing the percentage of trained teachers, and (iii) availability of instructional materials, countries are also concerned about supervision and management of the education system, and often see this as an essential aspect of maintaining quality. This involves making improvements to the inspection, planning, research, and general management information system. Along these lines, Kenya has been using ODA support to strengthen its primary education planning and research capacities over the past three years. In the same way, USAID is providing strong assistance, through the SUPER Project, to help Uganda improve the planning and management of primary education from headquarters to sub-district level.
Two curriculum change patterns worth noting, as countries seek to reform their system in line with the ‘basic education for all’ quest, are that the structure of the education system, and the primary cycle in particular, is being revised. Ethiopia is in the process of introducing an 8-year primary education system, comprising 2 cycles (Grades 1 to 4 and Grades 5 to 8). Since 1989, Kenya has implemented an 8-year system of education, which involves an extension of primary education from 5 to 8 years. As the notion of primary education as a complete cycle in its own right becomes accepted, there is increasing emphasis on introducing a curriculum that would be more relevant to the lives of pupils in their communities. This has again brought in the idea of ‘vocationalizing’ the primary school curriculum in some countries. Tanzania and Zimbabwe already have production as part of their primary education programme. In general, countries are seeking to extend the primary school cycle, and orient it more towards community life.

Several Aid Agencies are providing constructive support to solve the difficult problem of teacher supply and teacher quality. In order to increase the proportion of trained teachers in the teaching force, countries need to train teachers rapidly, and in large numbers.

Some of the Aid Agencies providing support for teacher training include CIDA, FINIDA, and SIDA in Zambia; Action Aid, UNFPA, DANIDA, WFP, UNICEF, and Commonwealth of Learning. In Malawi, UNICEF and the World Bank are the main supporters of teacher-training programmes, while UNICEF is the main agency supporting teacher-training programmes in Tanzania.

Provision of instructional materials is one of the key areas in which Aid Agencies have provided significant assistance, to help countries improve the quality of primary education. In Zambia, Aid Agencies such as FINIDA, SIDA, ODA, and UNESCO/UNDP, have been most active in ensuring that some materials become quickly available in the schools, and that improved materials are then carefully developed for supply to all the schools.

(vi) Financing of basic education

There is a tradition of community financing for education in eastern and southern African countries. In Kenya, communities are responsible for construction and maintenance of primary schools, while parents meet
the costs of instructional materials and other school requisites, the Government is responsible for teachers’ salaries and the administrative cost of the system. It can be argued, therefore, that primary education in Kenya is financed to a great extent by parents and communities. This obviously has implications for the provision and quality of education in different communities. The Government has recognized that in some of the poorer communities equitable access to primary education is being hampered by lack of resources. It has, therefore, embarked on a major project, with support from the World Bank, to supply instructional materials to schools in these communities. Through this project, the Government hopes to improve the textbook/pupil ratio in 22 districts, from 1:17 to 1:3, and to provide teachers’ guides on all subjects, to all schools in the country. The Government is thus making constructive interventions to strengthen its partnership with communities in financing access and quality in education. However, as the economic realities and fiscal discipline of structural adjustment begin to take effect, Kenya like other countries now has little room to manoeuvre in terms of Government financing of education.

Zimbabwe is one country which has taken a fairly uncompromising approach to the priority it accords to basic education. Hence, in spite of the recent drought and subsequent reduced budget allocation to most sectors, education and health have continued to receive an increased share of the national budget. This trend needs to be maintained in order to sustain the achievement of UPE. Even more important is the need to improve the quality of education, and to extend ECE provision to all rural communities.
Chapter IV
Achievements and future challenges

1. Working against all odds

When reviewing the achievements of the seven countries in this volume the background of unprecedented challenges, which they have to contend with, should be taken into consideration. To this day many African countries are experiencing difficult times. On the political front, the ideology of liberation and a strong sense of new nationhood which propelled development efforts in the early years of independence, have finally given way to the harsh realities of diverse ideologies, ethnicities and cultures which co-exist within these nation-states. This has given rise to greater political pluralism, which contains the seeds of a new liberal democracy for most countries. Invariably however, such pluralism also implies a period of political uncertainty during which the difficulties of making hard development choices become further complicated.

It is however in the economic sphere that African countries are currently facing their greatest challenge. The relatively weak bargaining position of African countries in international trade has undermined the vibrancy of their economies. This has resulted in low export earnings, high cost of imports and a dwindling resource base to finance development. In addition to this, it should be said that well-meaning but misguided policies have also caused structural dislocations in the economies of some countries, while mismanagement and corruption have led to economic ruin in others. A further compounding factor has been that of natural disasters such as the recent droughts in Zimbabwe, Zambia and Malawi; the annual epidemic of cholera in Zambia; famine in Ethiopia; and the AIDS epidemic that threatens much of Africa.

Efforts to restructure the economy and restore growth involve some painful measures, including the devaluation of currencies, large-scale cuts in public budgets, liberalization of price control mechanisms, and less government intervention in the economy generally.
The impact of all this on education has been a greatly reduced capacity of governments and communities to finance expansion and quality improvement measures in education. Nevertheless education still receives fairly high priority in the general scheme of things. This is due in no small measure to the new level of cooperation emanating from the ‘spirit of Jomtien’. Most governments and communities have remained committed to education as a high priority area for financial support, in spite of pressures caused by competing claims on dwindling resources. At the same time the support being demonstrated by international agencies and NGOs has provided considerable strength in a period of general adversity. More than ever, it is clear that success with EFA depends critically on a constructive partnership, involving governments, external agencies, and local communities. Any achievement in this area, in the present climate, involves working against great odds!

2. **Progress made on access to primary education**

Achievements of the seven countries in the area of access to primary education has been mixed, as revealed by the enrolment ratios. The most difficult case is that of Ethiopia which experienced a decline of 12.5 percentage points in GER (from 32 per cent to 19 per cent) between 1990 and 1993. Malawi also suffered a decline of 11 percentage points over the same period. Since Jomtien, there has been a relatively minor slippage in GER for Kenya (3 per cent), while Tanzania achieved a small gain of 0.7 per cent. In the case of Zimbabwe, an enrolment ratio (NER) of 100 per cent has been achieved and maintained since Jomtien.

To the extent that enrolment ratios, especially NER, represent the best indicator of progress towards basic education for all, the achievements are reasonably satisfactory. Given the high population growth rates and rapid expansion of the primary education target population in particular, it is something of an achievement to hold enrolment rates steady over the years. This is not in any sense meant to encourage complacency, but the efforts made to increase access to education need to be acknowledged. In each of the seven countries, a steady increase in the number of primary schools has been achieved since the Jomtien Conference. In spite of everything, schools are still being built through partnership between communities, NGOs, governments and international Aid Agencies.
Ethiopia is by far the most disturbing case as regards progress towards full enrolment of the primary school-age population. With a GER of about 20 per cent, and taking over-aged enrolment into account, only one out of every five or six eligible children are currently in school. Naturally, this dismal situation stems largely from the fact that Ethiopia has only recently emerged from a period of civil war and natural disasters. In this regard, Uganda serves as an example of hope that countries can quickly recover from such traumas and make significant progress in developing education.

The situation in Zambia reflects a disturbing loss of past gains in access to education, with a decline in enrolment ratios being accentuated by a drop in the absolute number of pupils enrolled in primary schools. The high level of urbanization is a major factor in this trend, but it could also be argued that there has been a crisis of confidence in education, particularly as regards the partnership between communities and government. A major task facing the Government in Zambia is, therefore, to redefine and restore that partnership, as well as to re-kindle confidence in the worthwhileness of education.

In general, Kenya could be within sight of full enrolment of the primary school-age population. In the case of Zambia and Tanzania, the target is within range but not likely to be achieved by the year 2000. Malawi is quite a long way from achieving full primary enrolment, with a net enrolment of just over 50 per cent. The fluctuations in NER over a short 5-year period suggest that Malawi may have a problem with consistency in data collection off enrolment.

Ethiopia is going to require major international assistance as it embarks on the challenging road out of civil chaos into social and economic development. With support from the international community, a country that once registered enviable achievements in adult literacy should be able to make good progress towards basic education for all.

In terms of equitable access, almost all the seven countries have made good progress on female enrolment in primary school. The ratio of male to female enrolment is now much closer to that in age-group population. Part of the credit for this is due to the constant concern of international agencies like UNICEF and the World Bank for highlighting gender issues in education. This concern has usually resulted in governments and agencies agreeing on concrete action to improve female enrolment. The challenge facing most countries now is to maintain an
equitable level of female access to primary education, to the point where it becomes a standard feature of their education systems.

Regional disparities in access to primary education still persist in the seven countries. This stems mainly from difficulties involved in reaching certain population groups with educational opportunities. In Kenya, Tanzania and Ethiopia, the main problem is with pastoralist populations and their lifestyle of perpetual migration. In the other four countries, the main problem is the difficulty of establishing viable schools in the sparsely populated communities which are predominant in the rural areas. Another problem is that communities which have a history of being disadvantaged in some way, often need a long time to catch up with participation rates in education. For instance, in those countries where provision depends heavily on community financing, the poorer communities will tend to lag behind in school enrolment levels. Some encouraging achievements are being made in this area by agencies like Action Aid which target their assistance at the poorest communities.

Generally, there is an awareness of the main challenges relating to full and equitable access. Most National Plans of Action in the seven countries reflect this awareness in terms of setting realistic goals for GER/NER and reduction of inequalities to be achieved by the year 2000.

3. Improving retention rates

The real depth of the education crisis in Africa, as far as full participation is concerned, lies not so much with enrolment rates as with retention rates. Progress with enrolment in itself is not very meaningful if pupils do not attend regularly and stay on long enough to benefit from schooling. Also, if there is too much repetition of grades, then resources are being wasted on repeaters instead of being used to increase access and improve quality.

The data available suggest that there are serious retention problems. This was confirmed during discussions with officials in the seven countries. However this is an area in which reliable statistical data are not readily available.

The general trend seems to be towards improvement in completion rates, even though progress has been extremely slow. However, this is the area in which gender inequalities are most evident. In each country the initial enrolment for boys and girls is fairly comparable, but as the
Three years after Jomtien

cohort progresses more girls drop out of school than boys. There is, of course, a strong awareness of this problem amongst officials, and efforts are being made to tackle the underlying issues. A prime example of this is the GABLE Project in Malawi, supported by USAID.

4. Enhancing quality

This is an area of great concern to each of the seven countries, and serious efforts are being made to address those challenges which constrain quality improvement. It should be appreciated in the first place that many of these countries are, in fact, fighting a rear guard battle with quality. The task is often to arrest a seemingly inexorable decline in several aspects of education pertaining to quality. These range from availability of instructional materials to the physical infrastructure and environment of the schools.

Countries have typically focused on improving the teacher/pupil ratio and increasing the proportion of trained teachers in the system, as key measures to improve the quality of education. In this regard, each of the seven countries has achieved a healthy teacher/pupil ratio for primary education. The proportion of trained teachers in the system is relatively mixed for the seven counties. What is clear, however, is that there has been a steady increase in the percentage of trained teachers in each country.

This combination of improvement in the teacher/pupil ratio and steady increase in the percentage of qualified teachers in the schools represent quite a commendable achievement. However, this has also precipitated a major challenge of coping with an ever escalating salary bill for an expanding teaching force with a high proportion of trained teachers. This is one of the most sensitive challenges relating to the quality of education. Where teachers are disillusioned and frustrated about conditions of service, the quality of education is likely to deteriorate, even with substantial inputs of equipment and materials. On the other hand a teaching force that is reasonably paid and well motivated can achieve much for the quality of education even against great odds.
5. **Prying for EFA**

It is difficult to talk of achievements in the financing of education at a time when African countries are more dependent than ever on external funding to sustain developments in their education systems. While a sizeable proportion of national budgets continues to be allocated to education, the real value of the education budget in each country continues to decline, in the face of mounting demands from a system undergoing structural reforms.

Against the background of economic difficulties and competing demands for limited resources, it is something of an achievement that the seven countries have been able to maintain a reasonably high level of allocation to education from their modest national budgets. This strongly indicates that governments continue to take the commitments they made at the Jomtien Conference very seriously, and are willing to accord continued high priority to basic education as far as available resources allow.

An important trend that has emerged during recent years is a strong sense of partnership in financing basic education. This partnership involves governments working with local communities and external Aid Agencies in a potentially liberal and constructive framework. This appears to mark the end of an era in which most governments exercised a virtual monopoly over the control of education, mainly through the funding mechanism. In one sense, this is a choice that governments are cons-trained to accept due to current economic difficulties. There is, however, a more positive sense in which this represents a new realism, marked by an encouragement of private initiative and a wide range of partners in the quest to develop education.

The main challenge which countries face in the financing of basic education, apart from mobilizing adequate resources, is that of ensuring sustainability. There has to be some serious assessment of how far local communities can continue to meet an increasing share of education costs, with all the other demands being made on them by other sectors. In spite of the reasonably high level of Aid Agency support to education, it would be unrealistic to expect that external assistance will continue on this scale for an indefinite period of time.
Three years after Jomtien

The national governments as well as Aid Agencies have to seriously consider the question of exploring new sources of funding that will maintain the tempo that has been generated for educational development.
Chapter V
Overview of critical issues

This comparative analysis has shown that the momentum generated at the Jomtien Conference on Basic Education for All has been carried forward in all the seven countries. However, some countries have experienced considerable slippage in their past achievements, due to a combination of several adverse factors. Severe resource constraints have also meant that communities and governments are restricted in their capacity to facilitate expansion and quality improvements in education. It is quite evident that in each of these countries, the quest for ‘basic education for all’ will entail an uphill struggle against great odds. Countries have tried to reset their targets for the year 2000, taking into account the many constraints they have to contend with.

Against this background, there are a number of critical issues which need to be highlighted for the attention of policy-makers, national experts, and international Aid Agencies.

1. Alternative patterns of provision

In every country there are some target populations which, for various reasons, cannot be reached by the formal primary school system, or cannot fit in with the organizational pattern/routine of primary schools. There are also those who have failed to complete the primary cycle, and still require some form of education if they are to be useful to themselves, their families and communities. There are also those ‘children in especially difficult circumstances’, whose needs pose a great challenge to society.

To meet the needs of these population groups, attention is now being focused on alternative patterns of providing primary-level education. These out-of-school or non-formal education programmes usually try to adjust to the peculiar needs, lifestyles and routines of their target groups. Each of the seven countries under consideration has a number of
such programmes, which are usually run by international or local NGOs. In Kenya for instance, it is estimated that local communities in Nairobi operate at least 30 non-formal schools, which offer alternative primary education for dropouts and other children in especially difficult circumstances. In addition to this, a wide range of programmes for out-of-school children and youth, are sponsored by the Undugu Society, Catholic Mission and other church bodies, the Bernard Van Leer Foundation, the Kisumu Municipality, UNICEF, etc. These and many similar programmes in the other six countries are undoubtedly playing a critical role in reaching marginalized and disadvantaged groups with some form of primary-level education. However, as formal education systems in these countries are being subjected to reform and transformation, it is pertinent to look again at the benefits provided by non-formal programmes, against the efforts and resources which go into them. The following are some of the key issues to be considered in this regard.

Out-of-school and non-formal education programmes do not have adequate links with the mainstream of formal education, in spite of extensive efforts being made in several countries to forge links. This invariably becomes part of the disadvantage of these programmes, confining them to ‘second class’ status. In Malawi, a major initiative aimed at integrating formal and non-formal education programmes has not made much impact in terms of results. In Kenya, non-formal schools managed by local communities do not qualify for the type of assistance and support which formal schools get from the Government. These non-formal schools are not officially recognized, and therefore not even registered. The students do not have access to means of being granted a certificate or further schooling opportunities.

Simultaneously, attempts have also to be made to adapt the formal schools more effectively to the needs and aspirations of the community. As such, the weaknesses of the formal school system in terms of relevance, flexibility, and efficiency are now being dealt with in many countries, as part of the drive towards basic education for all. These countries have embarked on curriculum changes to make schools more relevant to the communities they serve (e.g. Tanzania); have introduced decentralization to give regions greater control over the form and substance of education (e.g. Ethiopia); and have also encouraged private initiatives in expanding the formal school system. As these measures begin to bear fruit, it is clear that communities will have a much greater
say in how schools are run, what is taught, how primary education is financed, etc. Yet, the crucial issue is whether this will eventually lead to meaningful linkages between formal and non-formal education programmes.

Central to this issue is the concept of community-based education which has long been defended by those involved in non-formal programmes. This concept is increasingly a part of the reforms taking place in the formal system. The emphasis on Community-Oriented Primary Education (COPE) in Malawi, the focus on empowering communities for greater participation and control of education in Kenya, and the revisiting of a community-based approach to education in Tanzania, are all illustrative of the role being played by the concept of community-based education.

But what does a community-based approach entail, and how feasible is it in different countries? Is it simply a way of gaffing communities to pay a greater share of the bill for education? How can communities be empowered to play a genuine role in the control of education? Do we really know what the communities want in terms of control? What is the role of the Central Ministry of Education in this? How can we ensure that equity is promoted and standards maintained? What happens to the community-based approach when the scale of international finance typically available in the initial years, begins to decline? Are we expecting too much from the local communities?

2. Getting a hold on retention

Reasonable progress is being made in addressing the equity problem in education, as far as initial access is concerned. Girls are now getting better opportunities at least to start going to school, and provision is increasingly being made to cater for the needs of disadvantaged groups. These gains are, however, being eroded by the continuing problem of drop-outs. Despite improved initial access, girls drop out of school in much higher proportions than boys, as each cohort progresses through the primary cycle. For many disadvantaged groups, primary schooling still tends to end prematurely before they acquire minimum learning competencies. With support from Aid Agencies, many countries are carrying out studies that would lead to a better understanding of this problem. Meanwhile some concrete measures are also being taken to
improve the situation in some countries. In Malawi, the GABLE Project is a good example of measures aimed at encouraging girls to stay on and complete primary school, without repeating grades. There has also been a phasing out of fees, to promote retention among children from poor communities, since over 90 per cent of drop-outs cite inability to pay the fees as the reason for leaving school prematurely.

In most countries, reliable data are now becoming available on some aspects of the problem of retention. Drop-out rates at specific grade levels, repetition rates for specific grades, and completion rates for the whole primary cycle, are now becoming a feature of the statistics produced by planning offices. It is however necessary to go further and identify the causal factors leading to eventual drop-out. This has so far not been taken seriously by most countries.

When all such data are available on a regular and reliable basis, it would be possible to get a better assessment of the scale and intensity of the problem of drop-out in primary education. Beyond this quantitative aspect of the problem, it would be essential to unravel the many complex factors which interact to determine whether or not a child starts school; how frequently and regularly does the child attend classes; and for how long the child is likely to stay within the school cycle. Understanding of these factors will be critical to solving the problem of drop-out in primary education, and promoting sustainable gains in equitable participation. There are several critical issues that need to be considered as national experts and Aid Agencies work on developing solutions.

The underlying causes for the problem of drop-out are school-based as well as home-based. It is, therefore, essential that studies focus on the interface between home and school, in order to understand the conflicting pressures which underlie decisions about participation and continuation in the school.

Most of the really critical decisions about children’s school attendance are made within families and households. There has to be a sympathetic understanding of the tough choices which families have to make, when they take key decisions on how many children will be sent to school, which ones (all or some) and for how long. There are genuine dilemmas posed by conflicting demands on family/household resources, short-term survival needs, and the contribution of children to household productivity, as against the need to maintain children in school through the full primary cycle.
Social mobilization is a powerful tool which can accomplish much in terms of persuading families to send children to school and keep them there for the full cycle. However, it is also a tool which needs to be handled with caution. What was described as mobilization for the literacy campaigns in Ethiopia, under the earlier regime, is now being called coercion by some analysts. There is also a sense in which mobilization campaigns can ride on the back of major funding, to achieve some success in the short-term, without getting to the heart of the problem.

3. Harnessing and channelling resources

There is a major problem of limited resources to finance most of the reforms needed in basic education by the seven countries under consideration. In real terms, government expenditure on basic education has failed to keep pace with the growth of the system in every country, with the possible exception of Zimbabwe. The proportion of the development budget allocated to education is disproportionate to the increasing demand in many countries, but some efforts have been made to maintain and even increase recurrent allocation to education. This trend has often been encouraged by Aid Agencies such as the World Bank, through conditionalities which stipulate a certain level of allocation to education from the national budget in return for major aid funds.

In general, however, there is a clear limit to government financing for education. As such, it has been necessary to harness other sources of funding in order to finance reforms and maintain an expanding education system. Aid Agencies have generally been relied on for the main contribution for financing development expenditure while communities and parents are having to meet an increasing share of both development and recurrent costs.

As this trend in the funding pattern for education develops, it becomes necessary to address some sensitive issues of control and accountability.

- How much say do communities have over what they are financing, and to what extent are schools accountable to the communities which finance them?
- What are the ways in which communities can be given reasonable control over the schools?
What role should the Aid Agencies play in the education reform process they are helping to finance?

Who really decides on the form and substance of these reforms?

What are the limits to the influence of Aid Agencies over a country’s education system?

How best can the experience and expertise of Aid Agencies be positively utilized, without unduly compromising a government’s control over education policy and change?

In which way could conflict between Aid Agencies and governments be resolved?

Beyond the harnessing of resources for education there is the issue of how best to channel such resources in the process of educational reform and development. This is a matter of deciding on effective ways of using limited resources for optimum impact on a range of complex and demanding problems. For instance, a strategy which simply spreads available resources to cover the whole range of problems could end up being ineffective, and therefore wasteful. In each country, it should be possible to identify points of leverage, through which available resources could be channelled for optimum impact. Some questions in this regard have to be carefully examined.

In dealing with access and retention, should we focus most resources on initial enrolment (Grade 1) in order to get more children to enter school, and then move slowly up the school cycle as further resources become available?

Would it be better to identify those grades where drop-out is highest and concentrate resources on arresting that problem, so that those children who do start school have a better chance of completing the cycle?

When it comes to alternative delivery systems, should we invest resources in the third channel (for example, radio) to ensure that quality lessons are widely available in the country? Would it be better to use such resources to give special incentives to trained teachers to serve in disadvantaged regions?

On the question of instructional materials, should scarce resources be used to purchase and distribute existing materials to as many schools as possible? Are resources better utilized in the long run, if we invest
in a more thorough process of curriculum planning and material development?

4. Action on quality

One of the areas of common concern to the seven countries is the question of quality - how to ensure equitable access to quality education for all, within the context of limited resources. Part of the problem is that national experts and Aid Agencies have to agree on a comprehensive definition of what quality entails, and what are the main parameters by which it could be assessed and monitored. At present some useful indicators of quality defended by most countries include the following:

- The extent to which the curriculum is relevant to the needs and background of the target population (leading to discussions on such topics as education for living, community-oriented curriculum, and life-skills programmes).
- The availability of good instructional materials in schools and the capacity of the teachers and the pupils to use these materials constructively.
- The percentage of trained teachers in the schools, and their professional commitment (which to a certain extent, depends on salary levels and conditions of service).
- The state of readiness of learners in the schools which has to do with the physical and mental well-being of the children.
- The extent to which the general school environment is conducive to learning such as the physical facilities of the buildings, the range of materials and equipment available, provision for recreation, disciplinary measures, etc.

In general, countries agree on the need to design and implement measures for improving the quality of education. But, this is not without a degree of controversy, especially over the key question ‘quality in relation to what?’ The view of primary education as preparation for secondary education is being gradually replaced by the idea of primary education being a complete cycle in its own right. As such, the aim of primary education is regarded as being more diverse than simply preparing pupils for secondary schools. Indeed, many countries now
design their primary school programmes on the assumption that most pupils will not continue to secondary education.

Unfortunately, however, there is no proof that this alternative conceptualization of primary education as an end in itself is attractive to individuals or even considered constructive for community development. In all seven countries, the majority of primary school leavers are unemployed and do not appear to make any meaningful contribution to the development of their community, or even towards changing their own personal lifestyle. Given such circumstances, there is an increasing need to give a greater sense of direction to what we are trying to achieve in basic education. Such direction must be defined in terms of hard realities rather than wishful sentiments. With the strong drive towards basic education for all, and the realities of what happens to primary school leavers, some cynics are already asking, «Is there life after EFA?»

Quality in education has many dimensions, but it mainly refers to defining clear goals and objectives which can be monitored and assessed in the world outside schools. We need to have relevance, efficiency and effectiveness as dimensions of quality, but these are not ends in themselves. They are a means to an end, and that end must be defined in terms of what we want to achieve through basic education.

5. Protecting hard-won gains

An important lesson which has emerged from this brief comparative analysis is the risk of ‘slippage’ after countries have invested so much in achieving educational gains. Tanzania and Ethiopia are perhaps the most vivid examples of this phenomenon. This is a new development which has not yet attracted adequate attention from national experts and/or Aid Agencies. If basic education is being treated almost as a fundamental right, then serious questions need to be asked about protecting that right against some adverse changes in the circumstances and fortunes of a country.

Policy-makers, national experts and Aid Agencies should give serious consideration to this issue and find answers to several basic questions in this respect.
Overview of critical issues

• In what ways can major changes in political ideology and forms of government adversely affect progress in ‘basic education for all’? Can such adverse effects be taken into account and guarded against, in long-term plans and strategies?

• What are some of the inherent strengths which enable local communities (e.g. in Uganda) to keep the process of basic schooling alive, in spite of natural disasters and civil wars? Can such strengths be harnessed into national strategies for sustainable development in education?

• As countries move towards multi-party democracies, how best can we encourage bi-partisanship on ‘basic education for all’, so that it does not become subject to the whims of changing political ideology? In line with Unisex’s ‘First Call’ principle, equitable access to quality education for our children must not depend on which political party is in power, or the form of government in operation..

• When the international community decides to take measures against a country, over its political ideology or its economic record (e.g. Kenya and Malawi) how can ‘basic education for all’ be protected or safeguarded against the inevitable slowing down of the momentum of development?
Part III

Case studies presented by the national teams
Part III
Case studies presented by the national teams

As mentioned earlier, one of the main aims of the seminar was to analyze significant national experience in basic education that could influence future EFA strategies in the region. Accordingly, 12 case studies of innovations were presented and discussed during the seminar. This Part presents a resume of the case studies classified under four major themes of the seminar as indicated below.

**Theme I. Expanding basic education facilities: focus on equity**

1. Integration of traditional Islamic education with formal preschool and primary education - Kenya.
2. Pre-primary *madrassah* education - Zanzibar (Tanzania).
3. Girls’ Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE) programme - Malawi.

**Theme II. Strengthening the links between community and basic education**

2. School Health Education Project (SHEP) - Uganda.
3. The role of educational media in basic education for all - Ethiopia.
Theme III. Basic education for better living: linking education and development

2. The role of Basic Development Education Centres (BDECs) and Community Skill Training Centres (CSTCs) in promoting rural development - Ethiopia.

Theme IV. Improving the quality of basic education

1. Malawi Special Teacher Education Programme (MASTEP) - Malawi.
3. The NGO’s collaboration in book production initiatives for basic education - Tanzania.
Theme I
Expanding basic education facilities: focus on equity

Overview

The first step in meeting the goals of basic education for all is to improve access to primary education facilities and ensure full participation of all children in the schooling process. Even though some progress has been made in this direction, access and participation continues to be the central focus of efforts in most countries.

It is realized that in many countries it is essential to significantly expand the existing network of primary schools in order to ensure enhanced enrolment and retention of children in the basic education process. But opening more schools with even minimum infrastructure has not been an easy task under conditions of severe financial constraint that characterizes the situation in almost all the countries. The basic approach being tried out to overcome this problem has been to design alternative strategies, including the use of mass media, that are cost effective in comparison to formal primary schools.

Mere provision of primary schools may not necessarily ensure increased participation of children in basic education. In fact, falling enrolment ratios has become a matter of serious concern in some of the countries. Thus a problem to be tackled is “how to improve and sustain demand for primary education?” this calls for a better understanding of the socio-cultural factors characterizing the society and making investment decisions in a more strategic manner. One such effort being widely encouraged in some of the countries is to strengthen the facilities for preschool education which has been found to significantly enhance the chances of continued participation in the primary school stage as well.

Perhaps the most significant question being asked in this regard in all the countries is, «who really benefits from the basic education facilities» «Are we able to ensure equitable access to primary education...
facilities for all sections of the society?.» In fact, it is found that in several countries, girls are still at a disadvantage; is some other countries the facilities have remained outside the reach of certain ethnic groups; rural-urban disparity is a serious problem in all the countries. It is in view of such questions that several innovative efforts are being implemented which attempt to enhance the participation of special groups such as girls, nomadic tribes, religious groups and so on.

The first case study presented under this theme highlighted Kenya’s commitment to providing opportunities for early childhood education in all parts of the country, and the reluctance of Muslim communities to send their children to secular pre-schools. There was a concern that these already disadvantaged communities would be further marginalized in terms of access to basic education, and their children would lose out on the many advantages offered by pre-schools for later participation and success in primary education. Since the Muslim communities preferred to send children to traditional religious schools (madrassah and duksis), a strategy of integrating secular education into these Koranic institutions was adopted, in order to promote equitable access to pre-school education. Integration takes the form of a curriculum which combines Islamic and secular elements. The Islamic teachers are trained in secular teaching methods, communities are involved in preparing learning materials and the mothers are trained in early childhood care. A wide range of existing facilities (homes, mosques, etc.) are used as premises for madrassah.

To date, integration has been successfully extended to 40 madrassah in Mombasa, 4 madrassah in Nairobi, and 30 duksi in northeastern Kenya. The whole madrassah school movement in Kenya has received strong support from the Aga Khan Foundation and UNICEF, for the integration programme.

The Zanzibar case study was also concerned with a strategy for improving participation in pre-school education, by building on the population’s preference for traditional Islamic education. Unlike Kenya, where the Muslim communities represent a minority, almost 98 per cent of the population of Zanzibar are Muslims. The main objective of the pre-school programme was therefore to provide the kind of pre-primary education which would be in line with the Islamic preferences of the population, while offering most of the advantages associated with secular pre-schools. The Aga Khan Foundation provided major assistance to start
this programme. The communities are mobilized to start madrassah schools, and they form committees which take responsibility for the management of these schools. In return for their commitment, the communities get assistance by way of training of teachers, renovation of buildings, supply of furniture and materials, as well as some supervision. At present there are 15 madrassah pre-schools in Zanzibar. The inadequate provision of primary school places in Zanzibar means that many children stay longer than normal in the pre-schools, since they cannot get places in primary school.

The case study presented by Malawi concerns a programme aimed at improving access and persistence of girls in primary education. Malawi has a low enrolment ratio for primary education, as well as a high dropout rate and poor completion rate. In every case the figures for girls are worse than those for boys. Initial enrolment for boys is only 5 per cent higher than for girls, but girls are twice as likely to drop out of primary school than boys. The completion rate for girls is in fact only 15 per cent. In an attempt to redress this gender imbalance in access and persistence the GABLE Project, financed by USAID, has sought to promote a more gender sensitive environment in schools, and to provide incentives for girls to complete their education. Amongst other things, the programme supports development of gender appropriate curriculum, as well as the production of relevant instructional materials and supplementary materials. Teachers, inspectors and other officials are trained in gender sensitive issues, and under a fees waiver scheme, school fees are paid for girls who do not repeat a class.

1. Integration of traditional Islamic education with formal pre-school and primary education - Kenya

1. Introduction

The Government of Kenya aims to provide opportunity for early childhood education to all children in all parts of the country. The purpose is to ensure all round development and care for the children during the formative years. The children are also prepared during this period for entry into primary education. However, introduction of preschool education among Muslim communities has presented a problem,
as the parents are reluctant to send their children to secular pre-school centres. Instead the children are taken to special religious centres where they receive religious instruction based on the Koran under the care of a Muslim teacher or *maalim*.

The Koranic institutions are called madrassah\(^1\) among the Muslim communities in the coastal region and other up-country urban centres, and duksi\(^2\) among the nomadic Muslims in northeastern parts of the country. It has been found that the Muslims would accept other aspects of early childhood education if this will not remove their children from the traditional learning centres. Integration is done through:

- Development of an integrated curriculum which combines traditional Islamic education with secular education embracing child health and care, language development, affective and psychomotor development.
- Training of Islamic teachers in the methods of secular education.
- Involvement of communities in the preparations of learning materials.
- Training of mothers in *early childhood care*.

This strategy has been accepted by target communities as evidenced in their demand for its expansion to cater for Muslim children throughout the country.

Homes of *maalims* inside Mosques or homes of learned Sheiks can be used as *madrassah* premises. There is no demand for elaborate standardized facilities and equipment as is the case with formal pre-school centres.

---

1. *Madrassah*: These are Koranic Schools where children are trained to live and pray in an Islamic setting up to the age of six years. They are then taught how to read and write verses from the Koran in Arabic and in Kiswahili. Madrassah teachers use stories and songs to impart respect, discipline and moral values amongst Muslim children in settled urban areas of Mombasa, Nairobi and Kisumu. Madrassah are usually set up within the village or mosque compounds.

2. *Duksi*: Is a Koranic School under the shade of a tree or a tent functioning in the northeastern part of Kenya among Muslim Somalis where children between 0-6 years are taught how to live and pray within the community set-up. Mothers, village elders and teachers tell the children stories (in Kiswahili) and recite songs. Once in a while relevant quotations from the Koran are orally recited by adults for children to memorize and animate.
Pre-school or *Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC)* in Kenya caters for children of 3-5 years. It is intended to extend the coverage to children aged 0-3 years and their mothers. The eight years of primary schooling caters for children of the age group 6-14.

The context of *Basic Education for All* recognizes the need for «Expansion of Early Childhood Care, Development Activities and Education, including Family and Community Interventions, especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children» (Jomtien, 1990).

Kenya drew up a *National Programme of Action (NPA)* for Children in the 1990s to cater for all children of 0-3 years old and 3-5 years old (Ministry of Planning and National Development, Kenya, October 1992). The NPA focuses on children and their mothers in relation to household poverty reduction, nutrition improvement, morbidity and mortality reduction, child protection and education.

The country is committed to:

- increasing participation rates in Early Childhood Education and Care from the 1990 level of 30 per cent to at least 50 per cent by the year 2000;
- increasing participation rate in Primary Education from 1990 level estimated at 95 per cent to 100 per cent by the year 2000 by reducing major disparities which exist on regional, economic and gender lines; and
- achieving an average national completion rate of primary schooling from the 1990 level of 41 per cent for girls and 46 per cent for boys to 70 per cent across the country by the year 2000.

The integration of *madrassah* and *duksi* with pre-school and primary education has been accepted by the government and Islamic communities. So far, the Government of Kenya, with assistance from UNICEF, has integrated 40 *madrassah* in Mombasa and 4 *madrassah* in Nairobi, with secular pre-school and primary school programmes. In similar fashion, 30 *duksi* in northeastern Kenya have been integrated with formal basic education programmes. In both cases, persons identified by the Islamic communities to serve as teachers are trained by the staff of the *District Centres for Early Childhood Education (DICECE)* for the purposes of managing the integrated programmes.
2. Objectives and strategies of implementation

Integrating Islamic education with secular education became necessary when it was realized that many Muslim children obtained religious education most of the day but not secular education. This reflected parental fears that secular education was likely to undermine Islamic education and way of life. The integrated approach was regarded as a good strategy for ensuring that Muslim children did not miss out on secular education and at the same time maintained their way of life and religion.

The integrated curriculum covers a range of subjects of which the following are central: (i) Language development; (ii) Mathematics; (iii) Songs and rhymes; (iv) Outdoor play and physical activities; (v) Arts and crafts, and (vi) Environmental activities.

Because of the importance of language in any process of instruction, especially for children, attempts are being made in this integrated programme to write the materials in languages easily comprehensible to inhabitants of the catchment areas. These languages are Somali, Kiswahili and Arabic. These are, therefore, the major languages of instruction in the integrated madrassah and duksi.

The main aim of integration is to harmonize madrassah or duksi Islamic education with secular pre-school and primary education. In this respect implementation of the integrated curriculum consists of activities which stress Islamic thought and practices. All secular instruction is given in this context of Islamic thought and practices.

3. Achievements

- There has been an increase in the number of children benefiting from Early Childhood Education services from 844,796 in 1990 to 937,486 in 1992. This increase also includes Muslim children in the duksi and madrassah integrated with pre-schools.
- Enrolments in primary schools have increased from 5,392,300 in 1990 to 5,554,977 in 1993, this includes muslim children in the madrassah integrated with primary schooling.
- In 1993, there were 40 madrassah in coastal province; 4 madras-sah in Nairobi and 30 duksi in northeastern province, already integrated with pre-school and primary education programmes.
• The integration programme has been accepted by the target communities, to the extent that they have suggested its expansion to cover other madrassah and its extension for primary education.
• As a result of this suggestion, materials are now being developed for integration of the primary school stage in these areas.
• Community leaders in charge of duksi in the northeastern province have been impressed by the integration in the madrassah and have asked for its extension to their areas. This process has already begun.

4. Constraints

• The system requires crash courses for training for teachers. But some of these teachers have never attended any secular education which makes their training rather difficult. The malalims also fear losing their jobs to trained pre-school teachers and therefore they do not co-operate in some integration programmes.
• Convincing trainers at the local level is initially difficult, owing to religious conservatism amongst Muslims with low levels of secular education.
• Trainers often leave whenever they see greener pastures elsewhere, and the process of getting new trainers becomes expensive.
• As in every activity of educational provision, funds are required for initiating these measures. The introduction of secular elements of education calls for mobilizing more financial resources to madrassah and duksi which the local communities may not be able to afford, due to low income levels.

2. Pre-primary madrassah education - Zanzibar (Tanzania)

1. Introduction

In 1989, Zanzibar with some assistance from the Aga Khan Foundation started the madrassah pre-schools programme with two pilot schools. The project aims at bringing about improvement of early childhood education and stimulation to children. Its primary focus is on
the provision of quality early childhood education and training for school management. The programme has expanded in both size and scope. It now covers 15 madrassah pre-schools (12 in Unguja and 3 in Pemba) and its activities include the provision of in-service training of teachers, renovation of school buildings, supervisory services and supply of other basic teaching/learning materials.

2. Objectives

The specific objectives of the madrassah pre-school innovative programme include the following:

• To provide a pre-primary education which will be in line with the Islamic teaching while the children are still young.

• To give the communities responsibility for overseeing their children’s education and taking part in decision making in matters concerning education of their children; be it secular or religious.

The project has been guided by two main strategies. These are: (i) setting of madrassah committee, (ii) community mobilization. The Director of madrassah pre-school centre visits villages to meet parents and seek their support in the centre’s efforts to improve the early childhood education programmes. The main aim of the visits is to create awareness and interest within the communities. If the community is interested in establishing a madrassah, they are then advised to form a madrassah school committee. The madrassah school committee is then given the responsibility for the overall management of the pre-school. It is also responsible for the selection of teachers and the qualitative improvement of the school. Once established, supervisory services are provided by the madrassah committee personnel, and close contact with the school is maintained for the qualitative and quantitative improvement of the school.

3. Achievements and constraints

In Zanzibar, about 98 per cent of the population are Muslims. Thus, it can be argued that most of the children attend the Koranic madrassah
pre-schools. However, about 40 per cent of the children of school going ages do not have access to secular basic education programmes. Moreover, it has been found that the majority of adult population accepts and appreciates the madrassah pre-school model. On the other hand, the number of adult illiterates, especially among women, is increasing. Also fewer children are enrolled in formal primary schools and many of them drop out. The madrassah schooling system seems to be emerging as a popular alternative in Zanzibar, and could be made to absorb and educate more children in modern secular knowledge.

Also the drop-out rate could further be reduced, if the madrassah is supported and qualitatively improved along with quantitative expansion. Thus, in order to achieve education for all, there is a need for integrating the madrassah programmes with the formal pre-school and primary schooling system.

3. **Girls’ attainment in basic literacy and education (GABLE) programme - Malawi**

   1. **Introduction**

   Primary school enrolment in Malawi is low. *Net enrolment ratio (NER) is only 54.2 per cent while gross enrolment ratio (GER) is 75.1 per cent. Female access to primary education is even lower at 44.8 per cent. This situation is made worse by the fact that large numbers of girls drop out of school every year. Initially, roughly as many girls as boys (47.4 per cent girls and 52 per cent of boys) enrol in Standard 1 but the chances of a girl dropping out is twice that of a boy. The rate of dropout after Standard 1 is higher among girls (29 per cent) than boys (23 per cent). The completion rate is very low for both sexes. However even in this case, it is lower for girls (15 per cent) than for boys (21 per cent).

   Some of the factors that inhibit girls’ persistence in school are: (i) financial problems, (in) opportunity costs, (iii) poor quality of education, and (iv) socio-cultural factors.

   She *GABLE Programme is* a USAID funded programme which aims at promoting girls access and persistence in primary school. The project started in 1992 and will end in 1996. The programme works basically on two points:
Three years after Jomtien

(1) paying school fees for academically promising girls in primary school, and
(2) developing a gender sensitive curriculum as well as sensitizing educators on gender issues.

2. Objectives and operational details

The overall goal of the programme is to increase the chances of girls’ ‘attainment’ in primary education. ‘Attainment’ is defined as girls’ access to and persistence in primary school. To achieve this objective, the GABLE Programme is:

- Supporting and encouraging the development of curriculum appropriate for both genders through the establishment of a Gender Appropriate Curriculum unit at the Malawi Institute of Education (MIE).
- Providing funds to support the ongoing curriculum development activities.
- Paying school fees for girls who do not repeat a class.
- Building 332 classrooms and 166 residential quarters for teachers. Supporting the registration of all primary school pupils.
- Undertaking a study on the distribution of educational materials.

The Project implementation consists of four distinct components. These are: (a) preparation of a Gender Appropriate Curriculum; (b) classroom construction; (c) pupil registration; and (d) School Fees Waiver Scheme.

With respect to preparation of a gender appropriate curriculum, the programmes involve four major tasks: (i) production of supplementary gender appropriate curriculum materials for the newly revised Standards 1 and 2 curricula; (ii) incorporation of gender appropriate material in Standards 3-7 curricula as they are being revised; (iii) development of supplementary gender appropriate materials for the primary teacher-training curriculum; and (iv) training of personnel (teachers and others on gender issues).

The component on classroom construction is being implemented by the Project Implementation Unit (PIU). Construction of the classrooms and teachers’ houses is to take place in four phases. The first phase,
involving the construction of 74 classrooms and 37 teachers’ houses, is already under way.

Under the pupils registration programme, all pupils (Standards 1-8) were registered last year. The primary school registration system will enable the Ministry Headquarters, Regional and District Education Officers (DEOs) to monitor and develop policy on girls access, persistence and completion in all of the primary standards. Registration exercise will be done every year for Standard 1 only.

As part of the school fees waiver scheme, all girls who are promoted from one class to another have school fees paid by GABLE. Heads of primary schools draw up a list of promoted girls. This list is sent to DEOs for onward transmission to Project Implementation Unit (PIU) for payment.

3. Expected results of the programme

• Girls’ persistence in school will be enhanced. The problem of dropping out will be eliminated while the project is in operation, as a consequence of the fee waiver scheme.
• Improvement in the quality of learning through the provision of additional classrooms to reduce overcrowdedness.
• Creation of a girl-friendly learning environment by training of teachers, inspectors and other officials on gender appropriate curriculum issues and by offering a curriculum which is gender sensitive.

4. Problems encountered

A major issue which is of concern to the Malawi Government is what happens after 1996? The scheme for registration of pupils has already proved to be a very expensive exercise burdening the recurrent budget of the Ministry following the GABLE Programme.

Of equal concern is the sustainability of the school fee waiver scheme. If the government cannot take over, should the promoted girls be requested to pay school fees when the GABLE Programme is finished? If yes, then we should expect a resumption of the high drop-out rates for girls after 1996 and hence a public outcry for the continuation of the waiver scheme. On the other hand, should the fee waiver scheme be
continued by the government after 1996, there will be need for more funds to be allocated to the Education Sector. Given the existing economic condition this will be extremely difficult.

The continuation of a fee waiver scheme has another implication: How long will the public accept the fee waiver scheme for girls only? As was stated earlier, the completion rate is also very low for boys and the public has already started questioning the appropriateness of the scheme as a ‘discriminatory’ practice in favour of girls.

Given the current debate on free primary education, it is likely that sooner or later, the public will pressurize the government to waive fees for boys also.
Theme II
Strengthening the links between community and basic education

Overview

A primary school is essentially a public asset to the community it serves. But do communities really perceive the primary schools in their neighbourhood in this way? Rather, the primary schools often function in isolation from the surrounding community. It has been recognized that the functional efficiency of the school, including its capacity to attract and retain children is determined, to a great extent, by its links with the community it serves. How to strengthen such links between the community and basic education institutions? This is a significant question which is giving planners and policy-makers in several countries food for thought.

One of the ways adopted to strengthen links between the community and the primary schools is to allow for greater participation of the community in managing the primary schools which their children attend. An attempt is being made to empower the community to monitor basic education programmes. But, where does this lead us? Are the parents, many of whom have had very little formal schooling, ready to play an effective role in this process?

Coupled with this approach of giving a larger role to the community in school management is the increased emphasis on sharing the costs of schooling through community financing measures. While this parry represents a move to increase the sense of ownership and responsibility among the community towards basic education, the major impetus for this seems to have come from dwindling public funds to finance the increasing cost of providing basic education for all. Many seem to be concerned about the negative effects of this trend. Will not this increased burden on the parents further aggravate the problem of participation from the poorer sections of the community? Will it not, in turn, affect equity
and increase disparities? These are some significant questions that need to be closely examined.

Some countries are trying out very novel methods for bonding the community and the schools nearer. It is recognized that expanding the scope of school activities from mere scholastic aspects to include the health concerns of the children is highly appreciated by the parents. Innovative projects of this kind have highlighted the importance of viewing programmes of basic needs, which include basic education and health, in an integrated manner. Can we make such efforts more widespread without modifying the existing structures for school administration and the health sector operations? In other words, can we achieve such convergence of interests at the community level translated into administrative realities within the existing bureaucracies?

Kenya’s case study presented at the seminar reported on the Kariobangi Development Urban Project in Nairobi, supported by Action Aid - Kenya. The project adopts an integrated approach to community development, and targets poor urban slum settlements in Kariobangi through initiatives in food security, education, health and nutrition, water and sanitation, and family income. The community is encouraged to set up committees for each of these areas, to work with Action Aid in analyzing problems and developing solutions. One of the most fundamental problems facing this squatter community is a high rate of adult illiteracy, coupled with the fact that most children do not attend school.

In response, a programme of non-formal education was initiated to provide primary education for 8 to 14 year old children who are not enrolled in formal primary schools. Adult literacy classes were also started, and artisan skills training was provided for out-of-school youths. The community identifies physical facilities, recruits volunteer teachers, and contributes materials/labour/cash to the project. Action Aid pays rent for the classroom facilities, trains and compensates teachers, and also trains committee members in management of these non-formal schools. A total of 884 children are presently being catered for through this project.

The Uganda case study provides an interesting contrast to Kenya, since it deals with an area of concern to all communities in the country, rather than the specific needs of a small community. In essence, the School Health Education Project (SHEP) is a response to the abysmal decline in standards of health experienced throughout Uganda, as a result
of years of civil war. It was felt that a major sense in which education can be made responsive to community needs is by addressing health issues through a comprehensive health education programme. The main strategy underlying the project is to use the country’s extensive network of schools as an outreach system for passing health messages and promoting changes in health behaviour in schools and the communities at large. In particular, the project is concerned with influencing a reduction in infant and child morbidity and mortality rates, as well as a reduction in HIV and AIDS infection amongst the youth (6-20 years of age). Given these objectives, the project uses an inter-sectoral approach to carry out four main types of activities. A wide range of teaching and learning materials are produced and distributed to schools. These include syllabus teachers' guides, pupils' books, health kits, training manuals and a newsletter. Training programmes are also conducted for trainers, tutors, headteachers, and youth leaders. Social mobilization to promote awareness of AIDS and encourage behaviour change is also undertaken by the project. Finally, the project involves monitoring, evaluation and research activities.

The Ethiopian case study illustrates the use of radio to promote community-based education in a situation where trained personnel are insufficient and often unavailable in rural communities. In the expansion of its primary education system, Ethiopia has had to use large numbers of untrained young people as teachers. The country also had to embark on a phenomenal literacy campaign to help improve the literacy levels. Hence radio was used for both formal and non-formal education, and covered primary level, teacher education, as well as adult education and literacy. The media scheme has eleven transmitters installed in different locations (exclusively for educational broadcasts) and covering over 90 per cent of the population. The stations are all owned by the Ministry of Education and operated by the Educational Media Agency (EMA). These stations have been used to serve more than 8,000 primary schools and 5,000 farm forums and listening groups. Strong community participation is encouraged to ensure that the programmes developed reflect the concerns of local communities.
1. Kariobangi urban development project in Nairobi - Kenya

1. Introduction

The Government of Kenya accords very high priority to the task of increasing access to primary education for all children and maintaining its quality. In order to achieve the goals of Education For All, active involvement of the community is considered imperative. In this endeavour, the government seeks the support and co-operation of various Non-Governmental Organizations. The Kariobangi Urban Development Project is one such effort supported by Action Aid - Kenya.

Kariobangi is one of the poor slum settlements in the northeastern area of Nairobi. Kariobangi has a population of about 60,000 people; one out of six such development areas has been targeted by the project. Due to household poverty many children in this slum settlement do not go to school. Adult illiteracy is also prevalent. The project has adopted an integrated approach to community development, targeting in particular the Korogocho area of Kariobangi. The project includes initiatives in food security, education, health and nutrition, water, sanitation and family income.

These project sectors have impact on each other. In each of these sectors the Korogocho community has been organized into Committees in order to plan together with Action Aid, how to tackle the problems.

2. Objectives

It has been stated already that the aim of the project is to enable the communities to realize their own potentials to initiate sustainable projects that would eventually improve the quality of their lives. It also aims at increasing educational opportunities for children, youth and adults in Korogocho in order to raise their basic education levels as a means of opening their eyes to new possibilities and opportunities.

The following specific objectives are being pursued in the Kariobangi programme:

- Providing access to and improving the quality of formal primary education for children aged 6-14 years.
• Providing non-formal education opportunity to children of age 8-14 years who, for a variety of circumstances have not been able to gain access to formal primary schools.
• Providing opportunities of skills training for the youth of the age group 16 to 24 years who have either left or dropped out of school.
• Providing functional adult literacy.
• Involving the communities in the management of Heir schools.
• Sensitizing communities on matters related to family life environment, and health.

3. Project components

• Support to formal education through construction of facilities and supply of equipment and materials. Four schools exist with a total enrolment of 5,233 as of now.
• Non-formal education initiated for children who missed opportunity for formal education. Eighteen centres have been opened with a total enrolment of 875. Functional adult literacy is also part of His initiative.
• Formation of groups based on needs is being encouraged and already there are village committees for various intervention sectors, e.g. Health Committee, Education Committee and Credit Committee.
• Credit facilities have been made available to small economic groups to promote small-scale businesses to raise family incomes.
• A multipurpose centre has been constructed to provide vocational training for youth as well as provide venue for other social functions, as a centre for community education through meetings/workshops/seminars etc.
• Training is provided to community leaders and Education Committees to be able to manage community projects.
• Raising levels of family income.

4. Main problems and challenges encountered

Such a social transformation programme cannot be without problems and challenges. The following are some of the experiences encountered in implementing the project in Korogocho.
Changing people’s attitudes

For a long time the people of Korogocho had not experienced a participatory approach to solving their problems. Other NGOs have been working in this area, and indeed even now there are about 20 agencies operating here, most of them with religious backgrounds. Many of them, including Action Aid - Kenya, initially used the direct assistance approach where beneficiaries only received, but made no contribution. This tended to create a dependency syndrome, and when the approach changed to a participatory development, it was not easy to change people’s attitudes. It is a great challenge to motivate people to participate effectively in such a programme.

Lack of traditional structures

It is relatively easier to involve people in new activities through their traditional institutions and channels of communication. This is not so in an urban setting with its multiethnic composition and culture. When the programme started the only organized groups were those affiliated to the ruling political party.

Such groupings and their leaders were initially used to mobilize people for participation in the development programmes. But with the advent of multi-party politics these structures can no longer be used to approach people with different political sympathies. The new approach is to create need based groupings such as Credit, Health and Education Committees.

Bureaucracy

In setting the intervention objectives and designing programmes for implementation, Action Aid - Kenya is faced with community demands on the one hand and the bureaucratic procedures of the City Council authorities on the other. For instance official permission has to be given before construction of buildings and this at times takes long to obtain, thus causing a delay in the implementation. Delay of this kind normally have cost implications in project implementation.
(iv) Harsh slum environment

The urban slum environment, which tends to result in the erosion of the social fabric creates a feeling of lethargy, even a sense of insecurity. In these circumstances most people tend to approach issues with caution and withdrawal. It takes time to develop a participatory spirit.

(v) Poverty

As described in earlier paragraphs, the people of Korogocho are poor. Their daily priority is how to satisfy the immediate survival needs of their families. This makes it difficult for some people to participate in community projects which do not satisfy the immediate needs.

(vi) Undiversified commercial activities

The area is rather congested with some items of trade which creates too much competition. This is because most of the traders do not have business skills and sufficient information on possible alternative ventures that would enable them to diversify. This situation tends to slow down business flow and minimizes returns.

(vii) Inability to cope with demand

For some of the services, such as construction of drainages and provision of credit facilities, the organization is beginning to face increasing demands beyond its ability to cope due to resource limitation. This is a big challenge and an indication of what may happen once people accept an idea which they see as beneficial.

(viii) Low quality of non-formal education

Starting non-formal education was an important initiative. However, given the conditions of the centres, some of them small rooms in congested slum environment, learning atmosphere is not ideal. The volunteer teachers have no professional training and their delivery methods may not enhance effective learning.
2. School health education project (SHEP) - Uganda

1. Introduction

Uganda is a country that is just emerging from more than two decades of civil strife, political instability, economic recession and the legacy of internal conflict. These turbulence severely affected the health and general well-being of the nation. In fact, mortality rate shot up to 120 per 1,000 live births. Malnourished children under five years went up to 0.9 million. Maternal mortality rate per 100,000 live births rose to 700; population per doctor ratio to 21,830; population per nurse ratio 2,050. Population with access to safe water is 45 per cent in urban areas and 12 per cent in rural areas. Similarly, population with access to sanitation in urban areas is 40 per cent and it is 10 per cent in rural areas. The overall literacy rate (as percentage of 15+ population) is 48 per cent with a male adult literacy rate of 62 per cent and a female adult literacy rate of 35 per cent. Life expectancy at birth is 52.0 years.

It becomes evident that any rehabilitation and restructuring programmes must have an extensive infrastructure that reaches and mobilizes particularly the rural population. The concept of School Health Education Project (SHEP) was an attempt to answer such felt needs.

2. Objectives

The project aims at influencing a reduction in infant and child morbidity and mortality rates. It also aims at influencing a reduction in HIV/AIDS infection among the youths aged 6-20 years. Specific objectives of the project are:

• To use the school’s extensive outreach capacity as a vehicle for passing vital health messages to teachers, pupils, parents and the community.
• To encourage schools to become active health promoters in the community.
• Involve children as active agents of health behaviour change.
• Use Primary Health Care approaches to disseminate health messages. Design, develop and distribute health, teaching/learning materials.
Train teachers on how to utilize the materials produced.

Design, develop and introduce Health Education curricula.

The underlying assumption of the School Health Education Project is that teachers and children could be equipped with basic knowledge and skills and made active agents of change to help improve their own health and that of the community. Children are in their formative years and are receptive to innovative ideas as captive audience. It was felt that changing children’s health behaviour is easier than convincing adults to change their set habits. It was recognized that the Ministry of Education with its very extensive outreach infrastructure of 8,224 primary schools and 64 teachers’ colleges could be used to convey vital health messages to children, teachers and the community.

It was, therefore, decided that a new Health Education Curriculum be introduced to bring about the acquisition of basic health knowledge, skills and attitudes which could result in (healthier) conditions for pupils, students, teachers and the community at large.

In order to promote inter-sectoral collaboration in the planning organization and implementation of SHEP, an Inter-ministerial Advisory Panel on School Health was established with UNICEF support to design, produce and distribute essential health education materials to all primary schools.

3. Activities

A variety of activities of SHEP are grouped under the four project components as follows.

(i) Production of teaching/learning materials

The materials so far produced, pre-tested and distributed to schools by SHEP are:

- 30,000 copies of Basic Science and Health Education Syllabus for all primary Schools in Uganda.
- 40,000 copies of Basic Science and Health Education Teachers’ Guide Volume 1 for primary 14.
- 30,000 copies of Basic Science and Health Education Teachers’ Guide volume II for primary 5-7.
- 900,000 health Education Pupils books for primary 5-7.
Three years after Jomtien

- 20,000 Health kits for each of the following syllabus or subject areas, immunization; *Control of Diarrhoeal Diseases (CDD)*; AIDS (family health and social problems); Water and Sanitation Nutrition and Accidents and First Aid
- 15,000 copies of Basic Science and Health Education Examination Syllabus.
- 14,000 copies of Basic Science and Health Education Specimen Examination paper.
- 1,000 Facilitators Guides and Sensitization Manuals.
- 500 Training Modules for PTC Tutors.
- School Health Education Newsletter 20,000 copies of Volume 1 already published and distributed. 30,000 copies of Volume 2 expected from the publishers any time now.
- Health Education syllabus for secondary school designed, developed and pre-tested submitted for adoption. The Teachers’ Guide is being developed.
- Health Education syllabus for PTC’s designed, developed and pre-tested. Now approved by relevant authorities and ready for launching.

(ii) Training

The following training programmes have been conducted:

- *Training of trainers (TOT)* and facilitators in planning, organizing and conducting orientation courses for 8,058 primary science teachers and 39 secondary school teachers.
- 126 Tutors given special courses using the prepared modules to enable them to train both pre- and in-service teachers to teach Health Education in primary schools.
- Sensitization of 8,224 primary school head teachers on SHEP.
- Extensive AIDS awareness, sensitization of the youths and post-primary institutions students on the problems of AIDS was carried out nationwide.

(iii) Social mobilization

Under social mobilization the areas covered are:

• AIDS Drama - the Riddle performed by 198,000 primary school children in 1991.
• AIDS Drama - the Hydra performed by 389 post-primary institutions in 1992.
• AIDS Drama translated into 15 local languages and performed by local drama groups in 1993.

(iv) Monitoring, evaluation and research

The activities carded out include: (i) monitoring visits to schools; (ii) process review of the project; (iii) analysis of primary school leaving examination results; and research on knowledge retention and transfer. Research on continuous assessment in Health Education and on the impact of primary AIDS drama have been planned.

The work of SHEP so far has been confined mainly to all primary schools and recently to all primary teachers’ colleges and secondary schools. Pupils and teachers in all primary schools, student teachers and their tutors, inspectors of schools, school administrators and Political leaders are actively involved in the implementation of SHEP and searching for means and modalities of ensuring its (SHEP’s) sustainability. The existing school community linkage promotes integration and is expected to influence change in the community.

4. Achievements and constraints

The following are some positive indicators of the impact from SHEP:
• Inter-sectoral collaboration at the central and district levels.
• Institutionalization of Health Education in primary schools, primary teachers’ colleges and secondary schools.
• Revival of regular monitoring and Inspection of Educational Institutions.
• Raised level of awareness of Basic Health in general and AIDS in particular.
• Bridging the gap between school and community as reflected in drama and Immunization programmes.
• International linkage with Member States and Government.
• Revival of teachers’ centres, and production of scholastic materials.
• Use of SHEP materials by community health workers.

With regard to sustainability of the SHEP initiatives, it can be observed that the: (i) Inter-ministerial advisory panel strengthens partnership between and among relevant ministries and encourages integration and inter-sectoral co-operation; (ii) existence of the project in the Inspectorate of Education protects its place value on the essential curriculum and keeps it at par with other subjects in respect of logistical and professional support; (iii) establishment of teachers’ centres as a link between schools and the District Education Offices provides SHEP with institutions for various activities which support and promote SHEP e.g. collection and making of relevant teaching/learning materials, organization and conduct of courses, workshops, seminars etc. The placing of SHEP in the existing infrastructure of the education system gives it the right to exist and grow.

Major constraints experienced in implementing the SHEP include the following:
• High attrition rates of SHEP trained teachers, induced by poor remuneration, upgrading and transfers to better paying jobs.
• Quality of the teachers in the service; 49 per cent are untrained licensed teachers.
• Improper or ineffective use of SHEP teaching/learning materials.
• Lack of adequate manipulative skills to apply when utilizing scholastic materials.
• Orientation training courses to prepare teachers; is too short a period to master the basic skills required to effect healthy living habits; healthy life styles.

However, the Plan of Action has been designed to address Wee above issues.

• HIV/AIDS: although the level of awareness of the causes of HIV/AIDS was high, there is general reluctance to change behaviour so new strategies have to be designed.
• The curriculum is too much examination-oriented without continuous assessment. It encourages cramming and gives little time to apply skills learned to change behaviour. Hence the need to include ‘skills for life’ education in all, Health Education curricular. The inter-ministerial advisory panel has set up a research team to develop and
pre-test a module for continuous assessment in Health Education. Its adoption nationwide will depend on the Ministry’s policy on Continuous Assessment.

• Mobilization of resources at district level is still a problem.

3. The role of educational media in basic education for all - Ethiopia

1. Introduction

It has long been recognized that the media is instrumental in enhancing efforts for educational development. In Ethiopia, where trained manpower is inadequate, using radio for formal and non-formal education is considered a vital means of promoting educational development. Consequently, 11 one-KW transmitters were installed in different parts of the country to serve exclusively for educational broadcasts. About 8,000 primary schools and more than 5,000 farm forums and listening groups are the beneficiaries of these programmes. These stations are owned by the Ministry of Education and directly administered and operated by the Educational Media Agency (EMA). The Agency’s responsibilities include production and dissemination of educational programmes using radio, television and other low-cost non-broadcast media.

Television is another medium used for educational purposes. Programmes for junior secondary schools on English, mathematics, science and production technology are produced and broadcasted by EMA. Developmental programmes are also broadcasted for a general audience using the national channel. The Agency relies on the transmitters of the national service to broadcast educational television programmes since it does not have its own. Video and slide production is another activity in which EMA is involved in its efforts to inform and educate.

2. Purpose of educational media initiative

Provision of primary education for all appears to be out of reach under the present circumstances. Accessibility to education is declining,
educational standards are falling, financial and general support needs of the education sector are using. Under such conditions the Educational Media Agency has a vital role to play in the process of meeting the need to reinforce and extend basic education, to promote national development and reconcile culture and technology with economic and social growth. The inadequacy of school buildings, budgetary constraints and the increasing number of students makes it difficult to provide basic education to the younger generation. Many children in remote areas never go to school, instead, they work long hours on the farms. The media care instrumental in reaching these underprivileged sectors of the society.

3. Media activities in the context of ERA

The Educational Media Agency (EMA) has so far been in the forefront in the efforts of the MOE to make basic education accessible to most of the school children and adults with programmes pertinent to the curriculum, and reflecting local needs. The Agency has made remarkable headway in making education more practical and useful to the target groups in rural inaccessible areas.

(i) Support for primary education

The policy decision by the Ethiopian Government allows people with different linguistic backgrounds to use their mother tongues as medium of instruction in the primary schools. Most of the regional recording studios and the 10 KW transmitters are fully operational by transmitting as many languages as possible in their broadcasts. Programme utilization opportunities are provided for rural and remote children residing beyond the reach of the broadcast coverage. All possible alternative delivery systems especially low-cost media are employed to provide equal access to learning. The programmes put emphasis on preparing the children for life in the rural areas and subjects are related to local crafts, agriculture and vocational skills.
(ii) Support for adult education

Educational Media Agency has had 20 years experience in using radio, television and other media to convey essential knowledge and inform and educate people in health, agriculture, population environment, nutrition, family life, civics, and other societal issues.

The already decentralized media infrastructure, production, dissemination, and overall operations are conducive to equitable distribution of basic education opportunities. It also plays a vital role in empowering the community and mobilizing it to participate in implementing development programmes and getting actively involved in literacy activities.

With programmes broadcast in the local languages based on community needs, the adult audience can acquire knowledge and skills for standards of living and development. The programmes also help the adults improve their writing, reading and numeracy skills.

(iii) Support for teachers’ education

Radio and television programmes meet the challenges of the growing demand for additional primary school teachers. They provide support for undertrained teachers. Headmasters and teachers, are assigned to conduct basic education classes and may be selected from among the communities. A large number of community teachers and pre-school centre instructors are trained in methodology as well as in the proper utilization of radio messages and other communication materials. Yet a high proportion of headmasters and teachers may start teaching and administrating with no professional training. Various media, in this case, will be involved in the dissemination of teachers’ education programmes with a view to improving the teaching skills and leadership responsibilities of the headmasters.

(iv) Support through regional media resource centres

There is a growing trend to treat various media as components in a learning system; hence the preference of multimedia centres is a priority for local production and information exchange efforts.

The centres could be important sources of materials for programme producers, teachers, community workers in production, training, providing
advice to farmers and their families. Neo-literates could also be served with literacy primers and functional reading materials. They can also overstretch their resources or try to usurp the functions of more specialized and diversified educational and communication services for rural communities. Each centre is equipped with audio-visual material, print materials, posters, charts and other low-cost visual aids.

The linkage of educational radio and television programmes production with the resource centres could have a tremendous multiplier effect and cost effectiveness through extension for localized use at the grassroots in areas outside the radio and television coverage.

(v) Research and training

Programmes produced to meet basic learning needs are pre-tested and will also undergo formative as well as summative evaluation to bung about effective results. The evaluation mechanism stretch from the centre to the grassroots is fully and properly employed. The manpower deployed at schools, listening centres, basic education and training centres are oriented on data collection and programme evaluation techniques.

Training programmes are organized for schools’ personnel, development agents, moderators, media supervisors and adult educators. The training programmes centre on proper programme utilization communication skills and programme evaluation. Local programme producers and scriptwriters are trained so that the programmes which are functional and reflect local problems can be produced in different languages.

4. Achievements

The ongoing democratic changes in the country have coincided with the long-term operational objectives of the Agency. With these changes EMA is able to successfully implement its policy of decentralizing programme production. This facilitates the efforts of mobilizing the rural population for more willing co-operation with development.

Participation of the community, Governmental and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in programme production activities is seen as an essential ingredient, not only at the operational level but also at the conceptual level. This has helped to lay a firm foundation for:
Theme II- Strengthening the links between community and basic education

- Organizing programmes which reflect specific local concerns of the community.
- Mobilizing the community for a concerted development action.
- Finding local means to alleviate development problems.
- Ensuring partnership in planning, production, and use of facilities.
- Material acquisition and evaluation process.

With the construction of regional recording studios and the installation of the additional 10 KW broadcast transmitters in each of the stations and with the establishment of two more transmitting stations, educational radio infrastructure will increase considerably. More languages which have not yet been used in educational broadcast will be transmitted and the remote areas so far not reached will benefit from these radio programmes.
Theme III
Basic education for better living: linking education and development

Overview

Education contributes to overall development and it directly influences the quality of life of an individual - these are such well accepted statements that no one generally questions them. However, one cannot avoid dealing with the question, whether such an assumption holds good for any kind of education or is it true only if the education provided in school is relevant to the lives and aspirations of the society. In order to achieve such relevance is it necessary to build explicit linkages between the school inputs and development demands? Building such linkages would have a wide ranging impact on the quantitative as well as qualitative dimensions of the basic education process.

It is in line with this thinking that efforts are being made in some countries to restructure the basic education programmes in such a way that the curricular inputs provided at the basic education stage prepare the children to face the harsh reality outside the school in a more effective manner when they leave the school and enter the world of work. The underlying concern in this programme is to find a satisfactory answer to the question, «What after basic education?» It is well recognized that for many children their career in education ends with primary cycle. Merely giving them bookish knowledge, aimed to prepare them for secondary schooling, means very little. In such cases, the basic education stage should be the vehicle for moving to a better and more productive period in their lives after primary school. But such efforts are not without problems and controversies.

While production related activities can be introduced in some schools, they may not be universally applied in all the schools. This raises the critical question: «Who will go to these schools?» and, «Who will benefit from other schools that prepare children for higher
education?» «Will it not lead to further socio-economic disparities?» Also, what could be the most appropriate curriculum that would meaningfully link basic education with development? How can we make this sensitive to the changing development demands of different regions even within the same country?

Case studies were presented by Uganda, Ethiopia and Zambia on projects and policies designed to link education with development of individuals and communities.

The Uganda case study deals with a project on *Basic Education for National Development (BEND)* which seeks to reform basic education through emphasis on vocationalization. In this way, it is hoped that basic education will contribute to individual self-reliance and the socioeconomic development of communities and the nation as a whole. In its present phase, the project covers 6 teachers’ colleges and 36 primary schools. Vocationalization of the primary school curriculum is intended to lay the foundation for introducing learners to the world of work. The project also seeks to prepare a new type of teacher who is polyvalent, and can serve both classroom and community with academic knowledge and practical skills. BEND also seeks to bridge the gap between formal and non-formal education, by using primary schools and teachers’ colleges as Community Basic Education Learning Centres.

Ethiopia presented a case study on the role of *Basic Development Education Centres (BDECs)*. The BDECs provide educational services in remote inaccessible rural areas. Their programmes encourage self-help and self-reliance through skills training, and also enhance the socioeconomic development of the community. The training activities are designed to be responsive to community needs, and they include attitude change, functional literacy and numeracy, as well as functional knowledge and vocational skills. The main objective of the centres is to reach rural communities that have little or no access to formal education, and provide them with the type of functional education that would help in their development efforts.

Zambia presented a case study on its experiences with so called basic schools, which were set up to give primary school-leavers an additional two years of education oriented towards the world of work. The acute shortage of secondary school places in Zambia means that the majority of children leaving primary school become trapped in a limbo situation. They are sell too young and certainly not skilled enough to
enter the world of work but at the same time they have no opportunity for continuing further with education or training. Consequently, Zambia decided to tag on an additional two years to the existing 7-year primary school. This 9-year cycle then constituted what has been termed a ‘basic school’. The idea is to provide two years of work-oriented education, so that by the end of the 9-year cycle, the children would be old enough and have some basic skills with which to start life in their communities. Basic schools have been plagued by a wide range of problems. The last two years of the cycle concentrates too much on agriculture. Regardless of the abilities and aptitudes of the pupils, it seems they are all being prepared for subsistence agriculture. This 2-year extension has also exacerbated the problem of shortage of trained teachers in the primary school. Contrary to expectations, children do not get on any better in the world of work after the extra two years. Indeed many are simply seeking another path into some form of secondary education.

1. **Basic education for national development (BEND) project - Uganda**

   **1. Introduction**

   In 1989, the government appointed the *Education Policy Review Commission (EPRC)* to appraise the entire education system and recommend measures and strategies for improvement in order to modernize the curricula, equip students with productive and marketable skills and produce socially and economically responsible and productive citizens.

   The Commission felt that the orientation of the curriculum towards the attainment of further academic levels alone should change. It recommended among other things, that primary schools should focus on the community and the nation. In short the commission called for the reform of the school curriculum.

   The *Basic Education for National Development (BEND)* Project is one of the strategies for the reform of the curriculum. BEND Project aims at bridging the gap between formal and non-formal education by seeking to transform the teachers’ colleges and primary schools into Community Learning Centres. Government efforts to reform primary and
teacher education and to strengthen out-of-school education for youths and adults will also be exemplified in BEND Project.

In the BEND Project, Basic Education is defined as: ‘The minimum package of knowledge, skills and attitudes which are necessary for the realization of an individual’s potential growth and which enables him/her to contribute to the development of the community and the country». Basic education may be obtained in the formal school or non-formal education centres.

2. Specific aims and objectives

The long-term objective of the project is educational reform, with emphasis on vocationalization of primary, teacher and non-formal education so that together they contribute to individual self-reliance and social and economic development of the communities and the nation.

Specifically, the Project aims at:

- vocationalizing primary school curriculum through integrating work-orientated content and methods and introducing new vocationalized areas as necessary and appropriate;
- developing a new type of teacher who is polyvalent, able to serve both classroom and community and who possesses both academic knowledge and practical skills; and
- initiating college-school-community participatory activities that promote self-help, income generating activities and community development.

3. Main components and operational details

The main objective of BEND Project is to develop and field test a vocationalized primary and teacher-training curriculum based on the new education goals which are more appropriate to learners’ needs. This means integrating into the existing subjects, practical, productive and vocationalized learning with academic training so that the learners are prepared to become productive, work-oriented citizens useful to themselves and their country.

Another important component of the BEND Project is the one which bridges the gap between formal and non-formal education by seeking to make Teachers’ Colleges and Primary Schools also become Community
Basic Education Learning Centres. Such an integration between the school and the community intends to initiate college-school-community participatory activities that promote self-help income generation and community development. The integration makes it possible for schools and colleges and communities to contribute to the development of each other.

- The preparatory phase was launched at the beginning of a 3-day seminar held from 15-17 November, 1990.
- The *BEND* Project operates in both the formal primary education system and the non-formal education system.
- In the formal primary school it seeks to make primary and teacher training curriculum relevant to the learner, by integrating theory with practical productive skills. This makes learning more permanent, interesting and useful to the learners and their country.
- It is community based. It has an Inter-sectoral National Advisory Committee comprising representatives from line ministries, institutions, teacher training colleges, private sectors, policy makers etc. It has a National Steering Committee. There are similar local advisory committees at the district-, college- and school-levels. Each college is intended to be a Community Basic Education Learning Centre when the project is fully implemented.
- These Community Basic Education Centres will be used by children, youths and adults with the assistance of teachers and knowledgeable community members who will teach various practical vocational, productive skills as well as on nutrition, health, child care, animal husbandry, functional literacy, numeracy, trades, marketing and cultural expressions.
- Teacher trainers will be made competent in pedagogic practices suitable for both adult and children so that they can assist in these Community Basic Education Centres.

UNDP gave financial support for the preparatory phase, but could not support the main 3-year phase due to lack of funds. During the preparatory phase UNESCO was the executing agency. The Government of Uganda is now supporting the project financially and implementing it but is sell soliciting donors for sponsoring the project.
There are six participating colleges and thirty-six associated primary schools. Parents/teachers associations in the schools, field extension workers, principals, tutors, private enterprises, headmasters, parents and pupils are all involved in implementing the project. The National Curriculum Development Centre, the Uganda Institute of Teacher Education and the National College of Business Studies are also associated with its implementation.

4. Achievements and main problems encountered

During the last three years of operation, the BEND Project has registered significant accomplishments. Some of these are as follows:

- A Community Need Assessment Survey was carried out to identify the local resources and education and economic needs and problems in the communities. The summary report is ready and has been circulated. It is being used to plan and develop teaching activities in both formal and non-formal education. Tutors, teachers, parents, adults, youths, pupils, district extension workers and others participated in the survey.
- Four curriculum development workshops with curriculum specialists have been done.
- Five skills training workshops have been conducted for teachers and tutors and district inspectors of schools.
- Monitoring of BEND Project activities in colleges and schools is going on.
- Primary school subjects have been vocationalized. In all 27 units related to mathematics, English, art and craft, science, agriculture and social studies have been developed. Of these, fifteen are for formal primary schools and 12 are for non-formal education programmes (youths and adults).
- Using government funding, participating colleges and schools have been supplied with tools and equipment. These include agricultural tools, sewing machines, bicycles, (to help in marketing products), chicks, home economic tools and supplies, agro-chemicals, iron sheets, hammers and saws.
- A Community Basic Education Centre has been established at Buloba. It has just started functioning for school drop-outs, youths.
and children and adults. The centre is to be used to teach literacy, numeracy, health, child care, nutrition, tailoring, animal and crop husbandry and woodwork and other vocational skills.

- Forty-three teachers and tutors have been trained for field testing the vocationalized subject Units. Schools and colleges are carrying out integrated vocational, practical, productive activities.

Two major problems have been encountered in implementing the project. One is the lack of donor financial support for the main phase of the project. The other is the lack of transportation facilities which seriously affects the implementation of various components of the project.

2. The role of basic development education centres (BDECs) and community skill training centres (CSTCs) in promoting rural development - Ethiopia

1. Introduction

The Basic Development Education Programme of Ethiopia started in 1976 as a possible means of providing access to education opportunity to the millions of rural people who had been so deprived. Initially the programme started under the harsh conditions of the Ogaden region with the establishment of 10 BDECs with technical, material and financial assistance obtained from UNESCO, UNDP and UNICEF. Although all the centres showed impressive progress in a short period of time they were demolished by the Ethio-Somali conflict and their operation came to a halt. Later, based upon the experience gained from the centres, preimplementation surveys were made and more than 300 BDECs were established throughout the country at the village level.

The establishment of CSTCs at the Woreda district level was initiated by the Ministry of Education in 1975. The centres were meant to serve as a delivery system within the overall non-formal education programmes of the country. Thus, 25 CSTCs were established in 25 Woredas with financial support drawn from the Government. The activities of the centres soon aroused the interest of such international organizations as the World Bank and SIDA. Consequently, about 400
CSTCs were established throughout the country with financial, material and technical assistance from the Government and Donor Agencies.

2. Objectives

The Basic Development Education Centres (BDECs) have the following major objectives to:

• set up permanent educational services in remote and inaccessible rural areas and resettled communities;
• provide educational programmes that will enhance and ensure the socioeconomic and cultural development of beneficiary communities;
• give special attention to the educational needs of girls and women;
• develop and encourage self-help and self-reliance among communities;
• execute the programme in full co-ordination and co-operation with other development agencies and institutions.

The main objectives of the Community Skill Training Centres (CSTCs) are:

• offering specific learning skills related to the specific needs of the rural communities;
• preparing the community for a more conscious and efficient participation in developmental activities at the village, regional and national levels;
• upgrading and improving the traditional rural skills;
• serving as focal points in rural areas in respect to such general community activities as meetings, cultural programmes, discussion etc.;
• improving the productive capacity of the community people by introducing them to new ways of doing things.

3. Programme components

The programme of the BDECs focuses on three major components as follows:
Three years after Jomtien

(i) bringing about attitudinal change among the rural community;
(ii) functional literacy and numeracy; and
(iii) functional knowledge and skill.

Their concern is to impart practical knowledge and skills on such aspects as raising a family and protecting family health, family planning and child care; using effectively human and material resources that are available; management of land (for farming, grazing, recreation etc.); raising poultry, animal husbandry, bee-keeping etc; and participation in civic life.

The CSTCs offer courses which are multidisciplinary and work-oriented. The training programmes offered are neither grade- nor certificate-oriented. They are rather geared towards imparting a minimum work-oriented learning skills and preparing the learners to contribute to the nation-building, in the family, community and in civic matters. Based on these there are training programmes offered for both short and long durations.

The training programmes offered in the CSTCs are multi-sectoral, and hence, trainers from various sources participate in the execution of the programmes. They include: (i) development workers of different ministries working at the Woreda district level, (Ministry of Education, Health, Agriculture etc.); (ii) literacy campaigners; (iii) teachers in the nearby schools; (iv) development workers working on mobile bases; and (v) skilled trainers employed on contractual bases - these are community craftsmen (traditional crafts, who are assigned after being given some appropriate upgrading training courses).

In the BDECs the people in the community participate in identifying their needs, deciding priorities and planning the sequence of implementation. To carry out this work each BDE centre in the country has its own committee consisting of 5-7 persons. As effective leadership is crucial the community members are given training by education experts and other development workers before assuming their assignments. Some 250 birr used to be allocated from the centre at the initial stage of establishment. As every BDEC is expected to be self-reliant after a year or two the monthly subsidy is allocated only for a short time.

The District Development Committee is responsible for the management of the CSTC programmes. The members of this committee include: representatives of the district Peasant Association (PA), different
Development Ministries, Mass Organizations, CSTC co-ordinator, and District Administrator. The committee is responsible for preparing the annual plan of action of the CSTC in the District; giving guidance to the PA in the District to select trainees from amongst themselves to participate in the CSTC training programmes; creating mechanism regarding the involvement of development agents in the District, using the human, material and financial resources they have; and carrying out the overall management and supervision of the CSTCs and giving them the necessary support as required.

4. Achievements

In a poor country like Ethiopia, suffering from a variety of both natural and man-made disasters, it is not easy to implement development programmes. However, despite many adverse circumstances, many BDECs were able to show promising results in terms of the establishment of day-care centres, engagement in quality type of sheep breeding (selective cross breeding), bee keeping and honey processing, promotion of cottage industries, and so on.

The CSTCs have generated considerable involvement of people in rural development activities. Between 1976 and 1989 a total of 189,318 people, 153,192 male and 36,126 female, were trained at the CSTCs in different skills. Also as the basic principle underlying the CSTC programme is that the training should have a multiplier effect (although there are no adequately recorded data) it is believed that those who received training have trained others.

These components of Community Development Educational Programmes (CDEPs) are very crucial development programmes. They were participatory and need based and provide the minimum learning needs for all sections of the society without discrimination as to age, sex, religion, ethnic groups etc. They have helped in promoting self-help and self-reliance and played a major role in social, cultural and economic development. However, as most of the CDEPs were seriously affected during the internal conflict, there is a need to rehabilitate, reorganize, reactivate and carry out continuous monitoring.
3. Basic schools in Zambia - Zambia

1. Introduction

The 1977 Educational Reform enshrined the policy that the «ultimate goal should be to provide nine years of universal basic education» whereby a child entering Grade 1 at the age of seven years will remain in school for at least nine years until the end of Grade 9 at the age of sixteen years. To date, it is considered that nine years of quality basic education should benefit the learner more than would only seven years. During the first few years after the publication of the reform document, the only steps taken to implement this policy were continuing efforts to expand secondary school enrolments so that an increasing number of Grade 7 pupils would be able to continue to Grades 8 and 9.

In the early 1980s, however, some rural communities converted the dormitories into the classrooms, which were no longer in use in primary schools. These were occupied by pupils of Grades 8 and 9. From then on, the movement towards the establishment of basic schools (that is those that enrol pupils from Grades 1 to 9) gathered momentum.

2. Objectives

The main aim of basic education is to prepare learners from Grade 1 to 9 to pursue knowledge to higher levels, for acquisition of skills as well as for earning a living after school in a real-life situation. This means that the primary-basic level curriculum is to be designed in such a way that the learner should qualify for at least one of the three options as follows:
- Continue along the line of general (academic) education.
- Branch into the vocational training programmes.
- Drop out but perform some rewarding activity in a work/community environment.

3. Implementation strategy

In view of the foregoing, curriculum development at this level concerns academic subjects like mathematics, science, social studies and
religious education, etc. as well as a variety of vocational skills. Among the latter, those that have been most often cited include woodworking, tailoring, auto-mechanics, electrical repairs, crafts, food processing, commercial subjects and agricultural production.

Implementation of basic education ideals has over the years revealed that although much emphasis (planning stage) is put on vocational skills only school (agricultural) production units have had some significant impact on the life of the learner. According to studies undertaken under the auspices of the Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) in the late 1980s, every basic school had a production unit of one sort or the other.

The main reason for this state of affairs is the country’s lack of financial and material resources. Enough research had not been done for a sound basis to determine strategies for amalgamating basic academic education with basic vocational training.

4. Advantages and problems

Some of the notable advantages emanating from the upgrading of primary schools to basic schools are as follows:

- It is convenient for pupils to continue up to Grade 9 at the same school.
- It is cheaper for parents to send their children (up to Grade 9) to nearby schools than to distant secondary schools.
- Basic schools have tended to enhance community participation in the management of the school.

A number of problems have, over the years, arisen as a result of the proliferation of basic schools. Of these, the most outstanding ones are as follows.

Lack of suitable infrastructure and equipment: Basic schools have been built largely by the efforts of parents and not those of the Government. As such, the architecture is of poor standard and there are neither laboratories nor science equipment in the majority of these schools. Equipment for other specialized subjects is also non-existent. It should also be noted that sanitary facilities that were available at the original primary schools have not been increased in keeping with the needs of a larger number of students of higher age groups.
Staff recruitment: Staff recruitment for the basic level i.e. Grades 8 to 9 has involved transferring teachers from the primary level. This has meant that Grades 1 to 7 have remained with less qualified and, in many cases, untrained teachers.

Inferior quality of learning outcomes: Parents have come to perceive basic education as inferior in comparison with regular secondary school learning. It is for this reason that many a parent has taken their child to the basic school as the last resort.

5. Future strategies

The context for future provision of education in Zambia is a liberalized and decentralized one as opposed to the state-controlled system of the Second Republic.

Focus will be on the learner to the extent that the learning process puts emphasis on the learning outcomes while recognizing that some pupils will find themselves either out of school, in higher institutions of learning or in trades training institutes. All the three types will need to be prepared for a meaningful life in the society. To achieve this, the following shall be emphasized.

• Orientation of teacher training towards the realization of ideals of a democratic and diversified system of education.
• Diversification and integration of curriculum disciplines in relation to learner needs, talents and abilities; and in accordance with the forms of knowledge to be acquired, skills, attitudes and behaviours to be inculcated.
• Formulation of policies that should deliberately favour individuals, communities, NGOs, Aid Agencies and local councils to provide education and training, including apprenticeship to children, adults and the youth.
• Provision of incentives for the production of a variety of educational materials so that the learner may benefit from a variety of learning strategies.
• Improvements in the monitoring and supervision of educational outcomes and measuring achievement according to pre-specified levels of competence.
**Theme IV**

Improving the quality of basic education

**Overview**

One of the areas of common concern in all the countries is that of *quality of education*. It is pointed out that even after accounting for the problem of non-participation, the question that poses a greater challenge is: «How good are the primary schools where we send our children?» «How well do the schools perform the roles assigned to them by the community?» More specifically: «How much do children who attend the primary schools really learn?» One can see very well that there are no quick answers to these questions. In fact, the question of quality is a complex one and demands careful analysis of the problems involved and long-term action with consistency and perseverance. The question of quality of education has to do with a number of factors including the curriculum, the teachers, the school infrastructure, the teaching/learning process, and *finally* the family environment of the learners themselves.

Among other things, an important area in which actions are being initiated to improve the quality of basic education is regarding the teachers. It is recognized that in many schools and for the majority of learners, the teacher embodies the only available academic resource; even textbooks and basic learning material are beyond their reach. Thus, investment in improving the teacher capabilities through appropriate training is considered as an area of strategic investment that would have *direct impact* on the quality of basic education. While several small-scale projects in this regard have shown significant gains, we have still to grapple with several crucial questions, such as:

- «Do we have the resources to reach all the teachers and ensure that all of them receive a minimum level of pedagogical training?»
- «How useful will it be if we provide training just once in the career of the teacher?»
• «What kind of in-service training can be provided and what would be the most effective strategy for doing so?»
• «How useful can that be without an accompanying system of incentives?»

A second area which is considered to have significant impact on quality of education is ‘school management’. Improving school management again entails changes to be initiated in a number of aspects and raises several issues. For instance:
• «How can the internal management of the schools be strengthened if they are functioning under a highly centralized system of administration?»
• «What role and responsibilities should the headmaster be expected to play for improving school management?»
• «How can we build the management capacities of people concerned?»
• «How do we mobilize the necessary resources?» It should be worthwhile to examine some of these questions in light of the experience gained through innovative actions in some of the countries.

The Malawi Special Teacher Education Plan (MASTEP) is being funded through a World Bank loan, and has produced 4,300 trained teachers over a 3-year period, through a unique programme which combines distance education with short periods of college-based instruction. In this way, the teachers are in active service in the schools throughout their training. The programme has been judged to be fairly successful, against a background of acute teacher shortage, and low output from the conventional teacher-training programmes. Some implementation and logistical difficulties were outlined at the seminar, but it was felt that these could be rectified without much difficulty. The Malawi Government would like to continue with MASTEP, but has a problem with further external funding.

Zambia’s Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) was devised at a time when it became evident that the Government could not afford to provide teaching resources and other inputs for quality improvement in the schools. The main thrust was for schools and teachers’colleges to generate their own funds by engaging in production activities (education with production) as part of their normal programme. The funds generated
in this way are used to provide schools with a wide range of teaching resources.

The case study from Tanzania was on a book production initiative by the *Kagera Writers and Publishers Co-operative Society (KWPCS)*. The initiative was taken at a time when the quality of education in Tanzania was on the decline. The centrally controlled system for producing and distributing educational materials was clearly breaking down, and this created something of a book famine in areas like the Kagera region. The main objective of KWPCS was to sustain post literacy skills in the Kagera region. Assistance was obtained from the *Canadian Organization for Development through Education (CODE)*, and the ‘WRITE-AID’ scheme of the *Harold Macmillan Trust (HMT)*. The co-operative has been able to produce a local Kiswahili monthly newspaper, children’s story books in Kiswahili, and to start a local school materials publishing and distribution business. Training programmes have also been run for writers and teachers to strengthen local capacity in this area.

**1. Malawi special teacher education programme (MASTEP) - (Malawi)**

**1. Introduction**

Primary school enrolment in Malawi has increased at a very fast rate. In 1990, enrolment was 1.4 million pupils and up to 1993 it was 1.5 million. The number of teachers who graduated from the eight teacher-training colleges was low, not on par with the increase in number of pupils. At present, there are 17,942 primary school teachers. The pupil/teacher ratio increases every year as a result of this mismatch. It is now around 70:1 whereas the Government intends to make it 50:1.

One possible solution to this problem could have been to build primary teacher-training colleges. This strategy appeared to be a very expensive one. In 1990 the Malawi Government decided to try an alternative mode of training teachers which would produce many qualified teachers in a short time. The method which was identified was that of training teachers through a special 3-year ‘sandwich’ programme based on distance education material combined with a short residential
course and school-based supervision. The programme was launched in August 1990.

2. Objectives of the programme

The specific objectives of the programme are to: (i) bring into the primary school teaching force about 4,000 teachers, (ii) improve the teacher/pupil ratio, and (iii) improve primary school teaching and learning standards.

3. Operational details of the programme

The programme is under the direct control of the Ministry of Education and Culture and functions through the National Co-ordinating and Monitoring Committees. The day-to-day operations of the programme are handled by the Programme Co-ordinator. The programme has three regional training officers who monitor the activities in each region. Each district has a desk officer who is answerable to the regional office. Selected heads and teachers take care of the students in schools where they are sent. These heads and teachers are assisted by officials from the district and the region in supervising the students and giving them the professional assistance they need.

The course started in August 1990 and was spread over a period of three years. The programme was built in such a way that it covers a total number of 1,730 study hours. Of these 805 hours (25 weeks) are for residential courses 621 hours are for the distance component and 304 hours (12 weeks) are for district and zonal workshops.

So far three residential courses have been conducted, each running for a period of two months during the long vacation. These courses were conducted in 12 centres which were the 8 teacher-training colleges and 4 secondary schools located near the training colleges. During the residential course, the students were given the opportunity to learn methodology and academic knowledge in core subjects only. They also had contacts with college-based tutors. For the distance component, well structured and printed self-instructional materials, with assignment and in-built evaluation exercises were developed in modules and given to students to study while teaching at schools.
During Christmas and Easter holidays, district-level seminars/workshops were conducted to cover the remaining subjects which were not handled at the residential courses. When schools were in session the students were expected to be teaching, and they received school-based supervision which was done by the class teacher and headteachers. From time to time, district inspectors of school also supervised them.

The programme is funded through the World Bank credit, and it receives technical assistance from UNESCO/UNDP.

4. Achievements and problems

The course progressed very well up to the end, and students showed interest and enthusiasm throughout partly, also, because they were paid a salary during the course. The students appeared for Part I of the examination last year and Part II a few weeks ago. The results of Part I were very encouraging as over 95 per cent of the candidates passed. It is expected that when the new academic year begins in October, about 4,000 qualified teachers would be added to the system.

There have been several problems also. For example, the programme started in a hurry without adequate preparations and staff support. As a result, it relied heavily on teachers’ colleges and district educators office staff to get its activities done causing considerable delay. The managerial staff had no training or orientation nor was there any study tour organized for them. As a result, management of the programme relied heavily on trial and error approaches. Selection of students lacked thorough screening which resulted in recruiting some students who were unsuitable for the course. The programme had inadequate A-V equipment. District desk officers were not members of the programme staff resulting in an administrative problem. There was no commitment to duties of the programme, especially as they were not given any allowance for it. Tutors in teacher-training colleges did not have adequate time for the MASTEP students affecting the quality of work. Finally, the use of secondary school as Satellite Colleges forced the programme to use some secondary school teachers as tutors, who unfortunately, had not received adequate orientation.
Three years after Jomtien

5. Some recommendations

• The programme staff should be increased by including professional officers. District and college desk officers should be full-time programme staff.
• The duration of the course should be reduced to two years.
• Use of secondary schools as Satellite Colleges should be stopped.
• The period of a residential course needs to be reduced to allow students some rest before schools open.
• District seminars/workshops during the Christmas and Easter holidays should be abolished and, instead, bring in the mobile team, teaching in the zones when schools are in session.
• The number of female students should be the same as that of male students.

2. Self-help action plan for education (SHAPE) - Zambia

1. Introduction

During the early 1980s school-based in-service training activities were initiated throughout the country. Resource persons were identified who together with school inspectors established school-based teachers’ centres and organized resource activities at district, college and school levels. The aim of the above initiative was to promote an enabling environment for teachers to advance their professional competence and create resources to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools. The apparent beneficial factors of the resource activities in schools and colleges were evidenced then by the resultant productive activities which brought about many opportunities that linked learning with: doing. Despite the increased education and economic advantages of the activities mentioned above these activities lacked a co-ordinated approach at the national level so that meaningful benefits could be derived from them. Above all, the activities lacked resources in terms of both the skills and finance to support their apparent momentous development. Therefore, there was a need to formularize a programme that would
co-ordinate and strengthen the ongoing activities and through the same programme promote the exercise of self-reliance and resourcefulness by teachers, schools and colleges.

In 1986 a programme was adopted under the name *Self-Help Action Plan for Education* in short SHAPE. This programme was designed in such a way that it should bring about desirable changes in the organization of classrooms, teaching methodologies and in the learning process.

2. Scope and objectives

The SHAPE Project is confined to all primary schools including those primary schools that offer the first two years of secondary education, (the ‘basic schools’), and primary teacher-training colleges in Zambia. Pupils and teachers in primary schools, college students and their lecturers, inspectors and administrators are all involved in the implementation of SHAPE.

The purpose of SHAPE is to enhance the capacity of schools and colleges in professional and material terms through the development of resource work and of production in agriculture, industrial arts and home economics, etc. on a self-help basis. The programme is based on the philosophy of ‘education with production’ and aims in achieving teachers’ participation, integration of the theory and practice, school and community and the utilization of production for material and pedagogical benefits.

3. Activities

There are twelve main activities of SHAPE. These are:

- *Education with production* which aims at integrating theory with practice and the utilization of production for material and pedagogical benefits.
- *Resource work and in-service education*. This activity supports all school-based professional undertakings like seminars, workshops, etc.
- *Transport*. This activity aims at improving mobility of participants and make possible the transportation of education materials and equipment.
Three years after Jomtien

- **Women in development.** Aims at eliminating gender distinction from the curricula and educational materials being utilized in the entire school system.
- **Desk repair.** Aims at prolonging the life span of furniture through maintenance work and providing opportunities for the application of skills among pupils in industrial arts.
- **Special education.** Aims at integrating handicapped pupils into ordinary schools and colleges.
- **Staff development.** Aims at augmenting the capabilities of officers at various levels through training by providing suitable training programmes at home and abroad.
- **Curriculum development.** Supports the efforts of curriculum developers in production of curriculum materials.
- **Monitoring, evaluation and research.** Provides assistance to field staff in the development of monitoring instruments, evaluation and research methodologies.
- **Study tours.** Enables officers with specific duties in SHAPE to observe and work with their counterparts in other countries, provinces, districts, colleges and schools and upon return share the knowledge gained with fellow workers.
- **Teachers’ resource centres.** This activity allows the construction of workshops for use as Teachers’ resource centres.
- **Organizational development.** This activity allows the establishment of the organizational infrastructure through which teachers, inspectors and administrators can operate together as colleagues in the planning and implementation of envisaged activities.

4. Achievements and major problems

Since its inception SHAPE has stimulated local initiative and self-help in the professional development of the teaching force, resource work, production projects, school-based maintenance and small-scale research work.

By doing so, the programme has achieved professional development through enhanced education quality, promotion of school and community self-reliance and provision of development related skills training. The programme continues to assist teachers develop their professional
competence through increased resourcefulness, ability to organize school-based professional activities and general planning professionalism.

SHAPE as a programme has experienced a number of problems during its implementation. Notable among these are as follows:
• Heavy workloads of field officers especially inspectors who are spearheading the implementation process.
• Inadequate training among co-ordinators concerned with resource and production work.
• Too many (donor-aided) programmes in the field competing for the attention of the same inspectors and teachers/tutors.
• Role conflict among coordinators and administrators.
• Lack of inspectors in some districts, hampering co-ordination and leadership at district committee level.
• Lack of incentives/allowances for field officers shouldering extra programme responsibilities.
• Many rural schools are very difficult to gain access to.
• Frequent staff changes at various levels creating a discontinuity in the project execution.

SHAPE is still evolving and needs continuous testing and verification in new and changing circumstances. The programme still continues to respond to possibilities for new procedures that facilitate innovation, responsiveness and experimentation. It further intends to develop a decision-making process that joins learning with action. The problems and achievements highlighted in this report are the result of an incremental, experimental and experiential learning process.

3. The NGO’s collaboration in book production initiatives for basic education - Tanzania

1. Introduction

The education system in Tanzania, like everywhere else in the Africa region, is undergoing fundamental change. With fast expanding enrolments in basic education programmes the needs for meeting the high demand of reading materials are also increasing calling for adoption of different strategies to tackle the book famine for the basic education neo-literates. Production and distribution of the books and learning materials
Three years after Jomtien

was centrally controlled by the Government and public institutions for many years. However with the changing economic environment and due to the policy of trade liberalization, teachers, educationists and members of the public are encouraged to invest in education and one area in which the Government is encouraging people is the writing and publishing of educational materials.

The Kagera region is located in the northwestern corner of Tanzania and West of Lake Victoria. It is approximately 1,000 kilometres from Dar-es-Salaam. Major structures of production, marketing and distribution of education books such as the Institute of Education, Tanzania Publishing House, Printpak Tanzania Limited and Tanzania Elimu Supplies are located in Dar-es-Salaam. Kagera finds itself geographically disadvantaged as regards a fair distribution of education materials.

2. Main objective

Concerned with the deteriorating quality of education and the bottlenecks resulting from the old centrally controlled structures of book production and distribution, some parents, teachers, businessmen, civil servants and politicians decided to do something to end the book famine as they noticed that teachers and adult educators were dissatisfied with their work due to shortage of education materials.

In May 1987, a group of people decided to form a co-operative venture, the Kagera Writers and Publishers Co-operative Society (KWPCS). This is a fully registered society formed under the co-operative Act of Tanzania.

The main objective of Kagera Writers and Publishers Co-operative Society is to ‘sustain post-literacy skills in Kagera region’. The objective is achieved by involving local writers and mobilizing them to produce articles for a local Kiswahili monthly newspaper entitled Kagera Leo (Kagera Today), and also to produce stories for children’s books in Kiswahili.

3. Operational details

Kagera Writers and Publishers Co-operative Society is supported by the Canadian Organization Development through Education (CODE) since 1988. This involved funding the production of 10,000 copies of the
monthly magazine, *Kagera Leo*. CODE appointed KWPCS Ltd. as its book distribution agent for Kagera region since 1990, computer equipment, provided supported training of desktop publishing operators, and workshops aimed at imparting skills on designing better methods for book distribution.

KWPCS has also utilized the services of ‘WRITE-AID’ scheme of the Harold Macmillan Trust since 1991, through which experienced writers from the United Kingdom and other countries are engaged as volunteers to help train counterparts in the Third World. Keeping the spirit of Jomtien which urged the national and international Non-Governmental Organizations to make a contribution to the provision of basic education, the trust has increased its interest in how NGOs can compliment the efforts of the government in material production and teacher improvement.

The Harold Macmillan Write-Aid Scheme focuses on provision of learning materials and works closely with KWPCS. Young writers and school teachers have undergone training through seminars and writers workshops conducted through the scheme. These have assisted teachers in writing and publishing short textbooks for use in their schools.

Parallel to the efforts shown by KWPCS in tackling the problem of the shortage of learning materials, CODE initiated a *Children’s Book Project (CBP)* in January 1991. This initiative encourages KWPCS and other freelance writers to grow in number and improve in writing for children and adult learners as they take part in the project. CODE invited other organizations to join in supporting the project and so far five other organizations namely, DANIDA, Canada Fund, the Netherlands Government, Aga Khan Foundation and a GO from the Netherlands have joined.

The donors have agreed to offer financial assistance to the CBP to support:

- production of books in Kiswahili for children so as to improve and sustain their reading abilities;
- local authors, publishers, illustrators, editors, booksellers etc. through direct purchase of the children’s books they publish and through training. For the two and a half years it has existed the CBP has worked closely with publishers (and others in the book trade) and has supported the production of 40 titles of children’s books. By children here, we mean from birth to approximately 14 years of age.
(or end of primary education). It is envisaged that by the end of the initial five years, the project will have published 220 titles of books for children.

For each title that is published under the scheme, the publisher prints 5,000 copies out of which the project purchases 3,000 copies. The bulk of the donors funds are therefore spent on purchasing books produced under the project.

These 3,000 copies are distributed free-of-charge to rural libraries in southern Tanzania (Lindi, Mtwara, Ruvuma), a few sample primary schools, the national library service network, teachers’ resource centres, education offices and provided to education officers during meetings etc.

The CBP has a programme of training to participants in the local book trade i.e. authors, publishers, and the rest. So far the CBP has run six courses for: authors, publishers, illustrators and booksellers. All of them have been received enthusiastically by those involved and there is a demand for more of such courses in Dar-es-Salaam and elsewhere in the country. Under the CBP training is linked with production such that courses and seminars are made as practical and as relevant to book production as is feasible. Thus, for example the trainees in the illustrators course designed five titles and produced illustrations and cover designs for the books and in the writers’ course the trainees evaluated and improved their own manuscripts.

Since its founding in 1987, KPWCS realized that the book production activity had a lot of financial implications and that the activities need large capital. Apart from the finances realized from membership contributions and other fund-raising activities KPWCS sought donor assistance for purchase of equipment, paper and for training.

Income accrued from sale of the Kagera Leo supplemented and is used to offset some production costs. Through sales of the Kagera Leo newspaper, the society managed to get funds which was acquired through a loan from the Small Scale Development Organization (SIDO) a parastatal organization of the Ministry of Trade and Industries.

Learning materials are sold much cheaper, but fortunately they are not distributed free-of-charge because production and distribution costs are always rising.
4. Main problems and achievements

Any project is liable to face problems especially if the initiative is new. The book production project under KWPCS has faced the following problems:

- Breaking the tradition of monopoly by the government institutions of the publishing school materials, meant fighting the deep rooted mentality among parents and communities that school materials were supposed to be distributed free-of-charge by the government.
- Pioneering in establishing a co-operative society which deals with promotion of literacy was quite a bush clearing venture which was full of risks given the fact that the economic conditions have caused a drop in attendance and enrolments of children and adult learners.
- Right from the beginning, the project had to depend on donor assistance and to get such assistance was not easy.
- Most members of the society have little or no skills in writing and publishing but they have the will to learn.

KWPCS is now capable of doing the typesetting job for their own manuscripts as well as for outside jobs. After acquiring the desktop publishing equipment eleven titles of books have been published. One gives the history of KWPCS, three are children’s story books namely ‘Mfalme Twiga’; for Standards 4-7; ‘Mgeni Bundi’ and ‘Panya Mahakamani’ for Standards 4-7 and seven are for adult functional literacy. The children story books are among those produced by the Children’s Book Project funded by CODE in partnership with five other donors. The project on the other hand has managed to publish and print 37 other books by different writers and publishers. The project seems quite promising given its objectives and mode of operation. Its impact may not be easy to assess at this stage but it can easily be adopted by other people in other parts of the country.

It is important to encourage and cultivate a reading culture among new literates in order to create a market for the books and newspapers produced by the society and other groups.

While the Children’s Book Project has a time limit of five years, the Kagera Writers and Publishers Co-operative Society (KWPCS) does not operate under a specific time frame as it is working towards attaining sustainability in order to manage and fulfil the goal of ending the book famine in the Kagera region.
In conclusion, it is the objective of the project to continue supporting freelance writers and those in society to produce improved reading materials for children and adults and at the same time contribute positively towards the improvement and revitalization of the book trade.
Appendices
Appendix I

Information note

Three years ago more than 150 Member States met at the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, March 1990). Since then, countries have implemented various programmes to reach the goal of ‘Education for All’ by the year 2000. However, over this period, several African countries have been affected by serious economic and social crises. Consequently, this has created a number of problems for educational planners and policy-makers in their efforts to further develop basic education. Therefore, it is appropriate to undertake a review of the programmes implemented and targets achieved in basic education during the last three years since the Jomtien Conference. Such an exercise, it is envisaged would pave the way to reshaping strategies and working towards the goal of ‘Education for All’ in a realistic manner.

It is in this perspective that UNICEF, in co-operation with the IIEP, is organizing a seminar on ‘Education for All: three years after Jomtien’. This seminar, to be hosted by the Ugandan Ministry of Education in Kampala from 21 to 23 September 1993, brings together decision-makers from certain selected countries of eastern and southern Africa.

Objectives

The general objective of the seminar is to strengthen the implementation of the World Declaration on Education for All and the subsequent Framework for Action adopted in Jomtien. The specific objectives of the seminar are to:

• diagnose the difficulties faced by different countries in implementing basic education programmes both in the school system and in the out-of-school sector;
• identify the positive features of existing systems/programmes in an effort to explore the scope for their eventual replication or adaptation in other situations.
Three years after Jomtien

Programme

The seminar will be organized around a sequence of three principal modules:

1. A reflection on the relevance of the Jomtien Declaration taking into account the difficulties in the expansion and improvement of basic education in the region.

2. An exchange of national experiences among the countries represented at the seminar and the identification of examples for possible adaptation in other countries.

3. An analysis of a selected number of initiatives which seem promising, enriched by the presentation of one or two innovations which have obtained good results in countries of other regions.

Participants

The seminar will bring together three senior national decision-makers from each participating country, who have a good knowledge of the steps taken to implement the Framework for Action of Jomtien. They could, for example, be general secretaries of national ministries of education, directors of primary or basic education, directors of out-of-school programmes (such as literacy programmes, non-formal education programmes, etc.), directors of planning and project implementation units, or chairpersons of EFA committees. During the seminar the above-mentioned individuals will work together with representatives from UNICEF and a few other international agencies. IIEP specialists will provide the technical input for the debate.

Working method

The proceedings of the seminar will essentially consist of an exchange of experiences among the different countries. Each country will present an overview of the most significant achievements made in the field of basic education.
The presentations will be followed by a general debate aiming at the identification of innovative strategies in specific areas such as teacher training, the development of curriculum and textbooks, the introduction of new pedagogic approaches, the participation of local communities, personnel management, etc.

One or two innovations which have been successfully implemented in different countries of other regions will also be presented in order to enrich the debate.

**Documentation**

The main working document will be a comparative analysis of national experiences in the development of basic education in the participating countries. This document will focus mainly on the following issues:

1. The status of school and out-of-school education programmes during the past five years and their evolution since 1990.
2. The actions initiated following the Jomtien Declaration for the expansion and improvement of basic education:
   - from the point of view of policy priorities;
   - in terms of emphasis placed on different targets and programmes, the problems faced in implementing them, and their results.
3. The innovative projects tried out in different areas of basic education. In addition each country team will present a brief description of one or two successful innovations adopted in their country as part of their efforts to reach EFA goals.

**Preparatory work**

The main working document for the seminar will be prepared by the IIEP in active collaboration with national experts.

The precise terms of reference will be communicated at a later stage, and a consultant from the IIEP will visit each of the participating countries on mutually convenient dates during the months of July-August 1993.
Three years after Jomtien

Contact addresses for further information

International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)
7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix
75016 PARIS
France

Tel: 33 (1) 45.03.77.00
Fax: 33 (1) 40.72,83.66

***

UNICEF Uganda Country Office Kampala
P.O. Box 7047
KAMPALA
Republic of Uganda

Tel: 256-41-234591/2
Fax: 25641-259146
Appendix II
List of participants

_Ethiopia_

1. Meguanint Ejigu
   Project Education Officer
   UNICEF
   Addis Ababa

2. Awash Gebru
   Head, Pre-primary, Primary
   and Special Education
   Ministry of Education
   P.O. Box 30209
   Addis Ababa

3. Tsegaye Tesfaye
   Head, Department of Adult Education
   Ministry of Education
   P.O. Box 4921
   Addis Ababa

4. Negussie Yibas
   Vice-Minister of Education
   P.O. Box 30209
   Addis Ababa
Kenya

5. P.W. Achola
   Professor and Director
   Bureau of Education Research
   Kenyatta University
   P.O. Box 43844
   Nairobi

6. C.J. Chacha-Ogwe
   Secretary-General
   Kenya National Commission for UNESCO
   P.O. Box 30040
   Nairobi

7. Yuda Kamora
   Asst. Minister of Education
   Ministry of Education
   P.O. Box 30040
   Nairobi

8. E.S. Masiga
   Deputy Chief Inspector of Schools
   P.O. Box
   30426 Nairobi

9. R.M. Mbato
   Deputy Secretary
   Planning Development
   Ministry of Education
   P.O. Box 30040
   Nairobi

10. Grace A. Syong’oh
    Project Officer
    UNICEF
    Nairobi
Appendix II: List of participants

**Malawi**

11. S.V. Chamdimba  
   Chief Planning Officer  
   Ministry of Education and Culture  
   P.O. Box 328  
   Lilongwe 3

12. Kate Kainja  
   Minister of Education and Culture  
   P.O. Box 327  
   Lilongwe 3

13. Felecity Malewezi  
   Programme Education Officer  
   UNICEF Lilongwe

14. A.D. Muva  
   Education Officer  
   Ministry of Education and Culture  
   P.O. Box 328  
   Lilongwe 3

**Tanzania**

15. Maimuna Omar Ali  
   Co-ordinator, Basic Education  
   Ministry of Education  
   P.O. Box 394  
   Zanzibar

16. Waheed Hassan  
   Programme Education Officer  
   UNICEF  
   Dar-es-Salaam
Three years after Jomtien

17. C. Hongoke
   Senior Education Officer
   Head, Education Research Unit
   Ministry of Education and Culture
   P.O. Box 9121
   Dar-es-Salaam

18. Mary Gloria Kibopile Mgaya
   Ag. Director
   Teacher Education
   P.O. Box 9121
   Dar-es-Salaam

19. L.K Msaki
   Commissioner for Education
   P.O. Box 9121
   Dar-es-Salaam

20. Makane Mzale
    Director of Pre-School and Basic Education
    Ministry of Education
    P.O. Box
    394 Zanzibar

21. Mbarouk Rashid Omar
    Deputy Minister for Education
    Ministry of Education
    P.O. Box
    394 Zanzibar

22. W. Sabaya
    Director Institute of Curriculum Development
    P.O. Box
    35094 Dar-es-Salaam
Appendix 11: List of participants

Uganda

23. H. Amany-Mushega
   Minister of Education and Sports
   Ministry of Education and Sports
   P.O. Box 7063
   Kampala

24. N. Bitamazire
    Deputy Chairman
    Teacher Service Commission
    Ministry of Education and Sports
    P.O. Box 7063
    Kampala

25. Atekere Ejalu
    Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
    Kampala

26. V.O. Ekatan
    Asst. Commissioner of Education
    Primary Inspectorate
    Ministry of Education and Sports
    Kampala

27. P. Ekwang
    Asst. Commissioner of Education
    Ministry of Local Government
    P.O. Box 7037
    Kampala

28. Paul Etyang
    Minister of Information
    P.O. Box 7142
    Kampala
Three years after Jomtien

29. E. Kasolo-Kimuli  
Commissioner of Education (Inspectorate)  
Ministry of Education and Sports  
P.O. Box 7063  
Kampala

30. Specioza Kazibwe  
Minister of Women in Development  
Culture and Youth  
Kampala

31. David Kiyimba  
Director, Basic Education for National Development (BEND)  
P.O. Box 7063  
Kampala

32. S. Maloba  
Ag. Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Education and Sports  
P.O. Box 7063  
Kampala

33. Ms Nakazzi  
Secretary-General  
UNESCO  
Kampala

34. Mr Nsanze  
Principal  
Buloba Teacher Training College  
Kampala

35. P. Nshangano  
Secretary  
Teacher Service Commission  
Ministry of Education and Sports  
P.O. Box 7063  
Kampala
Appendix 11: List of participants

36. S.B. Onek  
Asst. Commissioner of Education (Primary)  
Ministry of Education and Sports  
P.O. Box 7063  
Kampala

37. David Pulkol  
Deputy Minister of Education and Sports  
Ministry of Education and Sports  
P.O. Box 7063  
Kampala

38. J. Bidandi Ssali  
Minister of Local Government  
Ministry of Local Government  
P.O. Box 7037  
Kampala

Zambia

39. Newton Chingo  
Deputy Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Education  
P.O. Box 50093  
Lusaka

40. Sichalwe M. Kasanda  
Lecturer  
University of Zambia  
P.O. Box 32379  
Lusaka

41. B.E. Chishya  
Researcher  
National Council of Scientific Resource  
P.O. Box 32632  
Lusaka
Three years after Jomtien

Zimbabwe

42. Glory J.T. Makwati
   Chief Education Officer (Policy Planning)
   Ministry of Education and Culture
   P.O. Box 8022
   Causeway

UNICEF

43. Livingstone Byarugaba
   Project Officer
   UNICEF
   Kampala
   Uganda

44. Frank Dall
   Senior Education Adviser
   UNICEF Headquarters
   UNICEF House 3, U.N. Plaza
   New York, N.Y. 10017
   USA

45. Cole P. Dodge
   Regional Director
   Eastern and Southern Regional Office
   UNICEF
   Nairobi
   Kenya

46. Gloria Gordon
   Regional Education Adviser
   Eastern and Southern Regional Office
   UNICEF
   Nairobi
   Kenya
Appendix 11: List of participants

47. Aklilu Lemma
   Representative UNICEF
   Kampala
   Uganda

48. Abel Ayazika Nakwagaia
   Asst. External Relations Officer
   UNICEF
   Kampala
   Uganda

49. Fred Ogwal-Oyee
   Programme Officer
   Basic Education
   UNICEF
   Kampala
   Uganda

International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)

50. Gabriel Carron
    Senior Programme co-ordinator a.i.
    7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix
    75116 Paris
    France

51. R. Govinda
    Resident Fellow
    7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix
    75116 Paris
    France

52. Cream Wright
    Consultant
    P.M. Bag 1135
    Freetown
    Sierra Leone
    West Africa
Three years after Jomtien

Observers

53. Patrick Fine
   Representative from USAID
   Kampala
   Uganda

54. Christine Kiganda
   Representative from USAID
   Kampala
   Uganda

55. Christopher Shaw
   Executive Secretary
   Donors to African Education
   c/o International Institute for Educational Planning
   7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix
   75116 Paris
   France

56. Aloysius Sikubwabo
    Lutheran World Federation
    P.O. Box 2 Rakai
    Masaka
    Uganda
Appendix III
Seminar programme

Tuesday, 21 September 1993

08.00 - 8.30 Registration

08.30 - 08.45 Deputy Minister, Ministry of Education calls the meeting to order

08.45 - 09.00 UNICEF Country Representative, Mr Aklilu Lemma welcomes Guests and introduces the UNICEF Regional Director

09.00 - 09.20 Statement by UNICEF Regional Director, Mr Cole Dodge

09.20 - 09.30 Statement by UP Senior Programme Co-ordinator a.i., Mr G. Carron

09.30 - 09.45 Minister of Education welcomes guests and introduces the Rt. Hon. Prime Minister

09.45 - 10.15 Official inauguration by the Prime Minister, Rt. Hon. George C. Adyebo

10.15 - 10.45 Tea break

10.45 - 11.00 Introductions/objectives and organization of the seminar by Mr R. Govinda

11.00 - 11.30 Recalling the Jomtien Declaration and its relevance to the participating countries by Messrs Frank Dall and Cream Wright
Three years after Jomtien

11.30 - 12.30 Brief statements on National EFA situation by leaders of country delegations

12.30- 14.30 Lunch

14.30 - 16.00 Theme I- Expanding basic education facilities focus on equity

Session I
I.1: Integration of traditional Islamic education with formal pre-school and primary education (Kenya)

I.2: Strengthening early childhood education (Zanzibar)

16.00 - 16.30 Tea break

16.30 - 17.30 Session II

I.3: Girls’Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE, Malawi)

Wednesday, 22 September 1993

Theme II - Strengthening the links between community and basic education

08.30 - 10.15 Session I

II.1: Empowering communities to manage their basic education programmes - Kariobangi Urban Development Project (Nairobi, Kenya)

II.2: School Health Education Project (SHEP, Uganda)

10.15 - 10.45 Tea break
10.45 - 12.30 Session II

II.3: Role of education media in promoting basic education for all (Ethiopia)

12.30- 14.30 Lunch

14.30-16.00 Theme III- Basic education for better living: linking education and development

III.1: Basic Education for National Development (BEND, Uganda)

III.2: The role of Basic Development Education Centres (BDECs) and Community Skill Training Centres (CSTCs) (Ethiopia)

III.3: Basic schools in Zambia - curriculum diversification for quality improvement (Zambia)

16.00 - 16.30 Tea break

16.30- 17.30 Continued

17.30 Video on BRAC Project (Bangladesh)

Thursday, 23 September 1993

08.30 - 10.15 Theme IV- Improving the quality of basic education

IV.1: Malawi Special Teacher Education Programme (MAS TEP, Malawi)


IV.3: Textbook production for basic education (Tanzania)

10.15 - 10.45 Tea break

10.45 - 12.30 Continued
Three years after Jomtien

12.30- 14.00 Lunch

14.00 - 15.30 Implications of the workshop discussions for national-, regional- and international-levels actions

15.30 - 16.00 Tea break

16.00 - 17.00 Comments and observations from donor and technical assistance agencies

17.00 Closing
Appendix IV
Opening address

by the Rt. Hon. George Cosmas Adyeb

Mr Chairman
Your Excellencies
Distinguished Delegates
Ladies and Gentlemen

Permit me, on my own behalf and on behalf of the Government, and the people of Uganda, to welcome you with great warmth and sincerity to this international seminar.

Education is of utmost importance and matters greatly. It is, therefore, a great honour for me to associate myself with this very important manifestation of development in the history of our Region.

This seminar is yet another significant milestone in the resolve by this Region towards Education for All. It is a seminar whose focus carries forward the vision and goal of the Jomtien Declaration.

Mr Chairman, one of the greatest gifts we can make to others is to provide them with the necessary skills and knowledge to make life more meaningful, dignified and worthwhile. This seminar gives us an opportunity to reflect on the success and/or failure we have made in fulfilling this obligation and to enable us to plan better our education systems. Three years after Jomtien is very good timing for this seminar to take place as it finds us with a clearer perception of the tasks that we individually and collectively accepted in Thailand in 1990. These included: (i) creating national Alliances, (ii) determining strategies for formulating concrete plans to mobilize political support and resources; and, (iii) moving forward into action to provide Education for All not only on the African continent but for humanity at large.
Like the Jomtien Conference, this regional seminar is convened in recognition of our unique needs and demands for education as clearly indicated in our most degrading and varying forms of backwardness as well as the fact that in spite of these negative factors, there are signs, potentials and strengths that signal optimism and hope for future salvation for the Region. Indeed our better understanding of the task on hand clearly portrays sub-Saharan Africa to be a continent:

• rife with illiteracy and economic under-development, with its appendages of poverty, hunger, malnutrition, wars, indignity, dependency etc. a continent whose individual and global income is low, and yet with rapidly growing population;
• whose population merely subsists on an agrarian economy without the expected social infrastructure and services;
• ‘crushed down on its belly’, as it were, with an overload of debt burden and yet, as if fate would have it, one whose principal asset which is the human population is ironically, also, its main handicap because of the lack of educated and highly skilled manpower.

Suffice it to say, Ladies and Gentlemen, that this picture is bad enough to challenge and haunt everyone of us who knows that all Africans deserve to live and work in dignity and peace like everyone else in the world.

But, Mr Chairman, not all is lost, because today we have more knowledge and more skilled daughters and sons in Africa, and elsewhere, although there is a relatively small number compared to the task at hand. We have accumulated a wealth of experience and have made positive strides in various sectors. Yes, we have strengths that can breathe life into the body of our ailing continent to awaken the superior Giant that Africa is capable of becoming one day now that we gather together in search for Education for All.

Education for all will remain an important key for survival and development of Africa, we must, therefore, understand the basic education needs for Africa and their impact.

We must meet the basic learning needs, skills, knowledge, attitudes and the necessary skills for the development of the continent’s immense resources. I am convinced, just like you, that no one knows our needs better than The people in our respective countries.
Mr Chairman, universal basic education is like a razor’s edge, cutting and opening the way for all of us and for all those seeking knowledge, skills; and a better quality of life which education provides. It opens the way to lifelong education and to a new life of hope, accomplishment and growth.

Ladies and Gentlemen, let us make this a lively seminar; and let us make this seminar an opener to a new frontier for human endeavour; and let us make equality in Africa. This seminar should set concrete plans and common targets for a continuing and meaningful regional struggle for education for all so that we can take pride in passing on our experience and vision to posterity. We must sustain the momentum of what we have started and are committed to promoting its cause. Future planning and development strategies must be based on a realistic perception of the limited financial and management resources and truly reflect the continent’s belief in education, as an investment in human resources.

Education for All, for many of our countries on this continent, will necessitate democratization and universalization of access to education. This has resource implications: physical, financial, administrative and managerial. National plans of action must, therefore, propose realistic strategies that mix innovative and unconventional approaches with conventional and traditional ones. I am sure, that stress will have to be put on making ‘optimal use of resources available.’ It may become necessary to consider systematic efforts to harness the energies of individuals, families and communities. NGOs will have to be encouraged to participate actively and in particular in the area of non-formal education and women’s skill development. Uganda will particularly be inspired by innovations in the area of expanding education to reach the migratory population, girls, orphans and the other disadvantaged groups. We shall also be inspired by any experiences in the crucial undertaking of making education affordable and designing a cheap but effective learning kit and curriculum.

We can do it and here we are ready to start. At the regional level there is much to be gained from an exchange of views, expert advice and other unexploited resources. We must, therefore, as a region strive to emphasize collective strength over individual efforts. Hitherto, we have sought solutions to our problems outside ourselves; thus mutilating the continent on every step we take and ultimately reducing our co-operation.
It is in this regard that I hope this conference will share experience on the optimum utilization of external technical and financial assistance. Besides, it is also true that the success of education for all requires action as a means of easing the crippling debt burden. Creditors and debtors alike should seek innovative and equitable formulae to resolve these burdens and increase the capacity of developing countries to deliver basic education to other people. Education for all will be greatly helped by offsetting these burdens. As a continent, we must now view brain-drain as the menace it really is because this directly militates against the effort to develop the necessary human resource capacity building.

Another area of concern is improving the quality of education and reducing the high rate at which teachers abandon the profession and pupils drop out of school. This entails the development of an appropriate education system which serves the African people and motivates the teaching force.

I wish to conclude by calling on the multilateral agencies and many friends who have stood by developing nations to live up to their pledges and goodwill.

We shall need the encouragement support, guidance, knowledge and experience of everyone singly or collectively to achieve our goals towards Education for All.

I hope that this seminar will be used to establish mechanisms for resource mobilization, joint policy analysis and general networking.

I would not hesitate to leave you with the challenge to explore ways of establishing a network for enhancing technical co-operation among sister countries especially through the increased flow of information and documentation and accelerated support for the training and sharing of specialists in the region. There is need to consolidate our own experiences and build a more durable foundation.

I must thank the organizers, especially UNICEF and the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) jointly with the Ministry of Education and Sports, Uganda, for sponsoring this seminar. I am sure this seminar will give us a clearer vision of our national, regional and global sense of direction.

Let me now have the last honour and pleasure to declare this seminar formally open and wish you fruitful deliberations on a matter, which is of utmost importance, Education for All.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I thank you all.
IIEP publications and documents

More than 750 titles on all aspects of educational planning have been published by the International Institute for Educational Planning. A comprehensive catalogue, giving details of their availability, includes research reports, case studies, seminar documents, training materials, occasional papers and reference books in the following subject categories:

- Economics of education, costs and financing.
- Manpower and employment.
- Demographic studies.
- The location of schools (school map) and sub-national planning.
- Administration and management.
- Curriculum development and evaluation.
- Educational technology.
- Primary, secondary and higher education.
- Vocational and technical education.
- Non-formal, out-of-school, adult and rural education.

Copies of the catalogue may be obtained from the IEP Publications Unit on request.
The International Institute for Educational Planning

The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) is an international centre for advanced training and research in the field of educational planning. It was established by UNESCO in 1963 and is financed by UNESCO and by voluntary contributions from Member States. In recent years the following Member States have provided voluntary contributions to the Institute: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, India, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and Venezuela.

The Institute’s aim is to contribute to the development of education throughout the world, by expanding both knowledge and the supply of competent professionals in the field of educational planning. In this endeavour the Institute co-operates with interested training and research organizations in Member States.

The (governing Board of the IIEP, which approves the Institute’s programme and budget, consists of eight elected members and four members designated by the United Nations Organization and certain of its specialized agencies and institutes.

Chairman: Victor L. Urquidi, (Mexico) Research Professor Emeritus, El Colegio de Mexico, Mexico.

Designated Members: Arturo Nunez del Prado, Director, Latin American and the Caribbean Institute for Economic and Social Planning, Santiago.
Cristidn Ossa, Director, Development Policy and Analysis Division, Department of Economic and Social Development, United Nations.
Visvanathan Rajagopalan, Vice-President and Special Adviser to the President, The World Bank.
Allan F. Salt, Director, Training Department, International Labour Office.

Mohamed Dowidar (Egypt), Professor and President of the Department of Economics, Law Faculty, University of Alexandria, Alexandria.
Cabin Kinyanjui (Kenya), Senior Programme Officer, Social Sciences Division, International Development Research Centre, Nairobi.
Tamas Kozma (Hungary), Director-General, Hungarian Institute for Educational Research, Budapest.
Yolanda M. Rojas (Costa Rica), Academic Vice-Rector, University of Costa Rica, San Jose.
Michel Vernieres (France), Professor of Economic Sciences, University of: Paris I Pantheon-Sorbonne, Paris.
Lennart Wohlgemuth (Sweden), Director, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala.

Inquiries about the Institute should be addressed to: The Office of the Director, International Institute for Educational Planning, 7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix, 75116 Paris, France.