



What Kind of Higher Education for Africa?

At a time when progress towards universal primary education (UPE) is stimulating the demand for education among families and communities, post-primary education in Africa faces a number of strong challenges. For secondary education, the SEIA¹ conferences served as a forum for advocacy and exchanging ideas on extending and reforming secondary education. They also highlighted the hard realities of effecting change such as diversifying the streams and types of delivery, adapting curricula, controlling costs and mobilizing resources. As far as higher education is concerned, there is no lack of actors ready to express their frustration at what they regard as their “marginalization” by development agencies.

Discussing educational priorities has lately taken an interesting turn. Conventional analyses of human capital have deemed that individual and social returns of primary education are greater than that stemming from higher education. Now recent studies² conducted in African countries tend to contradict the ideas that have been accepted until now. They show that higher education helps to reduce poverty, drive technological advances and increase labor productivity in Africa. In addition to this major

impact on economic growth, higher education is an effective factor for achieving the MDGs and, more generally, progress: it contributes to the fight against poverty, HIV/AIDS, endemic diseases, discrimination, civil conflicts, poor governance and inequality [See article by William Saint, page 3].

But what kind of higher education are we speaking of?

Although enrollment rates in tertiary education in Africa are relatively low compared to the rest of the developing world, high unemployment among university graduates and the brain drain syndrome seem to indicate an over-supply of higher education. This paradox calls for reflection on at least two fronts: Can Africa – at its current stage of social and economic development – absorb the number of graduates from higher education institutions? Or is the quality and relevance of education flawed – while Africa relies heavily on outside expertise?

Some people advocate limiting the summit of the educational pyramid in order to align it more closely with the structure of the job market. Others believe the problem is not quantitative, but rather qualitative and related to academic streams, curriculum design and an approach to higher education that makes little effort to respond to national economic needs and local demand. In fact, the extreme diversity of African circumstances calls for distinctive responses and approaches that need to take into account the specifics of each national context. The articles in this Newsletter highlight the mutations currently underway within certain countries and also at the regional level.

What are the changes at work in African higher education? First, processes of differentiation, articulation and privatization are underway to satisfy social demands and the job market [see the article by George Subotzky and George Afeti, page 5]; secondly, delivery methods are diversifying thanks to the spread of new information and communication technologies (NICTs); finally higher education



Photo: USAID, L. Lartigue, Guinea, Information Technology, University of Kankan.

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in Mauritius

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Higher education
in Africa

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Policy forum
on private higher
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Country Experiences

Broadening
the band in
South Africa

Close up of an Education System

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Focus Higher Education

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in Africa is opening up and adapting itself to the international higher education sector, which is increasingly present in Africa owing to the rapid expansion of cross-border education [see the article by Varghese, page 10].

Policy-makers responsible for higher education need to act quickly to ensure that their countries take full advantage of these developments and that students have access to higher education of good quality. In order to do so, many reforms that need to be undertaken.

First and foremost, decision-makers must reassess the education sector holistically and aim for effective linkages and a carefully planned balance between primary, secondary and higher education, in harmony with the labor market and countries' economic policies and priorities. In this regard, each African country is unique and requires its own solutions.

It is also necessary to rethink higher education in a context of diversification and increasingly stiff competition at the national, regional and international levels – while considering the potential of new technologies and what is needed for building a knowledge-based economy; pedagogical approaches and teacher training must aim at developing fundamental skills – which are essential for learners to be able to constantly adapt themselves to new situations – and more specific skills demanded by the job market; curricula should be revised with a view to skills development; more diversified, specialized and job-oriented tracks and centers of excellence need to be developed; and sciences and technology need to be emphasized.

Next, financing will be a high priority. In order to be able to provide better quality higher education of greater relevance to a larger numbers of students, it will be necessary to increase and to diversify sources of funding, raise more resources and see to it that they are used more efficiently.

Good governance and good management are also decisive factors in fostering higher education institutions that will be compelled to be more competitive and accountable for results. In this respect, the strategic planning exercises encouraged by the ADEA Working Group on Higher Education should be promoted on a larger scale.

Furthermore, in an environment where private institutions are growing rapidly, it is essential to establish quality assurance instruments in order to regulate the supply of education and protect students. A number of African countries have set up quality assurance bodies for higher education, but these mechanisms, as well as accreditation systems, need to be strengthened and extended to other countries.

Lastly, the development plans of higher education institutions should systematically make use of NICTs, in order to broaden access, improve equity and quality, and bolster the supply of distance education.

The ADEA Working Group on Higher Education has recently reviewed its mandate and priorities. Through its activities in recent years, WGHE has contributed in a useful way to the reforms needed in higher education (see the article on page 7). ADEA is hopeful that its anchoring within the Association of African Universities (AAU) and the redefinition of its role as a "broker of ideas" among various higher education stakeholders in Africa will enable it to make an even greater contribution to the emergence of quality higher education geared towards the development of knowledge based societies. ■

MAMADOU NDOYE
EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, ADEA

1. For more information on regional conferences on higher education in Africa (Kampala, Uganda, 9-13 June, 2003; Dakar, Senegal, 6-8 June, 2004) see the website: www.worldbank.org/afr/seia
2. See Bloom, D., Canning, D. and Chan k., *Higher education and economic development in Africa*, preliminary report prepared by the World Bank, January 2006. May be downloaded at: <http://www-wds.worldbank.org/>

This issue on higher education has been produced in collaboration with the ADEA Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE). The ADEA Secretariat would like to especially thank Alice Lamptey, Coordinator of WGHE, and Piyushi Kotesha, former CEO of Higher Education South Universities (HESA), for their precious contribution to the *ADEA Newsletter*.

Higher Education and Development

By William Saint, Lead Education Specialist, World Bank

The author reminds us that “alleviating the crushing pressure of poverty on our global civilization” is the universal challenge to be faced. Higher education is essential for meeting this challenge. Because it contributes to economic growth, to achieving the MDGs, to consolidating the gains of the entire education system and to development in general, greater investments should be made.

As human beings, we face the challenge of adjusting to life in the 21st century that is no longer structured solely around our local communities. Today we are challenged to think and act as citizens of the global village. This global village of 6 billion people has to confront the problems of its 1.2 billion members – one out of five – who live on less than one dollar per day. Such inequality breeds insecurity and instability. The challenge of finding constructive ways to live in the community will become still more difficult over the next 25 years as 2 billion additional members are born into our global village. Ninety-five percent of these people will join the ranks of the poor in developing countries. The challenge of how to alleviate the crushing pressures of poverty on our global civilization – on its economies, political

systems, environment, and capacity for meaningful collaboration – is likely to be the defining feature of this century.

Education is tightly linked to economic and social development. It is simultaneously a driver and a beneficiary of economic growth, as expansion generates the resources to increase educational provision. But economies thrive and basic education expands only when they are supported by an education system that takes sig-

nificant numbers of students beyond the basic cycle, including to university completion. To ensure its sustainability, an education system needs to be balanced. It must be capable of producing students at different levels with qualifications that respond to labor market needs, generating a steady supply of skilled workers, technicians, professionals, managers and leaders.¹ Without such balance and diversity in education, the prospects for growth, social cohesion, more equitable economic distribution, and reduction of poverty will remain largely out of reach.

Loosening poverty's grip on our planet

The private benefits of higher education for individuals are well established, and include better employment prospects, higher salaries, and a greater ability to save and invest. Public benefits are less widely recognized, and this has led many governments and their development partners to neglect tertiary schooling as a vehicle for public investment.

In this context, higher education plays an important conditioning role in our efforts to loosen the grip of poverty on our world. It does this in four ways. First, tertiary education alleviates poverty through its direct contributions to economic growth as it enhances a nation's productivity and international competitiveness. It does this by training a qualified and adaptable labor force,

by assisting the nation to access and generate new knowledge through research, and by adapting global knowledge for local use. In this way, it helps to determine local living standards.

Second, tertiary education reduces poverty through empowerment and economic redistribution. Specifically, it generates empowerment through the building of social capital and aids redistribution by expanding opportunities for employability, income, and social mobility.

Third, it strengthens and improves the entire education sector's performance. Tertiary institutions train and re-train teachers, school principals and system managers. Their graduates play a major

South Africa. Proud graduates. Photo: USAID/R. Zurba



role in curriculum development, quality control and evaluation for primary and secondary education. Their researchers analyze education performance, identify problems, propose solutions, and provide policy advice.

And finally, tertiary education contributes greatly towards the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Tertiary institutions train the professionals – doctors, nurses, agriculturalists, teachers, administrators and others – who will oversee and implement MDG activities. They also foster relevant capacities in research, applied technology and community service that are essential for improving food supply, rural incomes, and the welfare levels for poor families, particularly vulnerable women and children, in those countries targeted by the Millennium Development Goals.

More investment needed

The 2005 report of the Commission for Africa transmits the clearest signal yet that the international community has come to recognize higher education's value for development. The Commission recommends that donors increase investments in Africa's capacity, "starting with its system of higher education, particularly in science and technology." Describing Africa's tertiary education system as being in a "state of crisis", the report urges the international community to provide \$500 million per year to strengthen the region's higher education institutions, together with \$3 billion over ten years to develop centers of excellence in science and technology.²

Compared with other world regions, overall educational achievement in Africa has been limited, and the positive effects of higher education on economic development have yet to be brought to light under African circumstances. The private benefits of higher education for individuals are well established, and

include better employment prospects, higher salaries, and a greater ability to save and invest. Public benefits are less widely recognized, and this has led many governments and their development partners to neglect tertiary schooling as a vehicle for public investment.

Traditional rate of return analysis focuses solely on the financial rewards accrued by individuals and the tax revenues they generate. It consequently neglects the broader benefits of advanced education in terms of entrepreneurship, job creation, good economic and political governance, and the positive effects of educated cadres of workers on a nation's health and social fabric. It particularly overlooks the very positive contributions of research – a core higher education activity – to economic growth.

on state finances. They also translate into increased consumption, which benefits producers of all educational backgrounds.

In a global knowledge economy, the increased learning gained from tertiary education can help national economies keep up or catch up with more technologically advanced societies. Higher education graduates are likely to be both more aware of and better able to use new technologies. They are also more able to develop new tools and techniques themselves. Their knowledge can help improve the skills and productivity of non-graduates with whom they work, while the greater confidence and expertise fostered by advanced schooling may increase levels of entrepreneurship, with positive effects on job creation.

Improving the quality of other levels of education

Tertiary schooling also imparts less direct benefits to national economies. By producing well-trained teachers, it can enhance the quality of primary and secondary education systems and give the latter's graduates greater opportunities for economic advancement. By training physicians and other health workers, it can improve a society's health, allowing it to be more productive at work. And by nurturing governance and leadership skills, it can supply countries with the talented individuals needed to establish a policy environment that is favorable

to growth. Establishing competent legal and robust political institutions and making them a part of a country's fabric, and developing a culture of job and business creation, for example, require advanced knowledge and effective decision-making skills. Other challenges such as addressing complex environmental problems and improving security against internal and external threats also place a premium on the skills that advanced education is best placed to deliver.

Individual gains, however, can also benefit society as a whole.³ Higher earnings for well-educated individuals mean increased tax revenues for governments and reduced demands

on state finances. They also translate into increased consumption, which benefits producers of all educational backgrounds.

Higher earnings for well-educated individuals mean increased tax revenues for governments and reduced demands

Conventional rate-of-return analysis has put higher education in a less favorable light than primary and secondary schooling. Pasacharopoulos and Patrinos reviewed ninety-eight country studies from 1960-1997 and found that typical estimates of the rate of return from primary schooling were substantially higher than those for advanced schooling.⁴ Such studies have exerted a major influence on international development policy.

More recent studies cast some doubt on the continued relevance of these findings. A joint study by UNESCO and the OECD shows that the rates of return to investments in higher education, particularly in Latin America, have been rising steadily.⁵ The World Bank highlights Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico as examples of this new trend.⁶ Traditional rate of return analysis focuses solely on the financial rewards accrued by individuals and the tax revenues they generate. It consequently neglects the broader benefits of advanced education in terms of entrepreneurship, job creation, good economic and political governance, and the affirmative effects of educated cadres of workers on a nation's health and social fabric. It particularly overlooks the very positive contributions of research – a core higher education activity – to economic growth.

New research suggests that investments in tertiary education may be important for promoting faster technological catch-up and improving a country's ability to maximize its economic output.⁷ It shows that Sub-Saharan Africa's current production level is approximately 23% below its existing production capabilities. Given this unused potential, investing in one year of higher education now could maximize the rate of technological catch-up at a rate of 0.63

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Institutional Differentiation and Articulation: Changes and Challenges

By George Subotzky¹ and George Afeti²

The need to respond to public demand and the job market, and to integrate an increasingly diverse student body are the changes that universities and other educational institutions are adapting to. Policy makers face other challenges.

Differentiation and articulation have currently become key higher education (HE) issues. As higher education institutions are required to fulfill a multiplicity of roles and to accommodate an increasingly diversified student body, a single institutional model cannot suffice. Given the priorities of African development, the traditional research university, is not sufficiently versatile to meet these demands. The articulation of students and staff between the rapidly expanding range of institutional types becomes increasingly important to ensure mobility and equity of access. To shape effective national and regional higher education systems, the policy challenge is therefore to find the appropriate balance between encouraging and regulating differentiation and articulation.

While differentiation and articulation are both strongly advocated in current education reform discourses, very little is known about the range and extent of these important aspects of higher educa-

tion in Africa. To fill this knowledge gap and to inform its work, the Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE) of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) commissioned a comparative study on the topic. This focused on university and non-university polytechnic-type institutions (the latter is in the following referred to as NUIs) in 12 selected African countries in three sub-regions: West Africa (Cameroon, Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal); East Africa (Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda); and Southern Africa (Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa and Zambia). Three regional experts conducted the study: Prof. George Subotzky, (project co-coordinator and Southern African researcher); Prof. Njuguna Ng'ethe (East Africa) and Dr George Afeti (West Africa).

Dimensions of articulation and differentiation

For the purpose of this study, differentiation was conceptualized in terms of the following criteria and dimensions: institutional mission and mandate; local or international orientation; curricular emphasis and teaching approach; admission requirements; qualifications levels and fields of study; the conduct of

research and the type(s) predominantly conducted; staff qualifications; governance, regulation, funding, quality assurance; and institutional size. Likewise, articulation was conceptualized in three main dimensions: (a) student mobility (credit transferability, qualifications recognition, compatible qualifications structures and conducive admission criteria); (b) staff mobility (exchanges and collaborative teaching and research); and (c) collaboration (infrastructure and resource sharing, and inter-institutional partnerships and affiliations).

Findings

Highly varied systems. A major finding was the highly varied systems of African higher education, with varied forms of institutional differentiation within them. These differences originate in the varieties of colonial rule, political economy and immediate post-independence history and also in how countries have subsequently been able to position themselves in relation to the internationalization of higher education and to market forces associated with globalization. There are significant variations between Anglophone and Francophone countries in the form of differentiation, in enrolment patterns and, importantly,

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in institutional reputation. In the latter countries, polytechnics enjoy high status with great student demand and highly competitive entrance requirements.

Non-university establishments are growing rapidly. This is a recent phenomenon in most countries. It derives from the widespread recognition of four fundamental rationales for differentiation: (a) to accommodate an increasingly diverse student body; (b) to meet changing labor market needs and national development priorities; (c) to increase cost effectiveness; and (d) to increase access, mobility and hence equity. The higher education landscape in Africa is clearly no longer totally dominated by universities.

The blurring divide between universities and NUIs. While most countries

studied exhibit forms of binary systems, relatively few true polytechnics are evident. However, the traditional binary divide boundary between universities and NUIs is becoming increasingly blurred. Some interesting university/non-university hybrids have emerged: for example, the Kigali Institute of Technology in Rwanda, the 'comprehensives' in South Africa, and the University of Malawi. This blurring is the result of two driving forces: First market forces that create a two-way drift, (a) an 'academic' drift, i.e. the aspirations of non-universities to gain university status, and (b) a 'vocational' drift, i.e. universities seizing market opportunities by offering vocational courses. Second, a lack of clear policy is evident in most countries regarding the appropriate boundaries between these two institutional types with respect to their mission, purpose, curricula and programs (and the knowledge underpinning of these). This has allowed the two-way drift to proceed unencumbered by regulation.

Drivers and inhibitors of differentiation. First, differentiation is driven by market forces of social demand (shaped largely by perceptions of greater employability) and labor market needs. Secondly, differentiation is also increasingly policy-driven as governments recognize the importance of differentiation. In some instances, policy was driven by political rather than educational motives. Conversely, differentiation is undermined by isomorphism – the gradual adoption of a single set of institutional characteristics. This takes two forms: mimetic (strategic seeking of status) and normative (seeking quality and professionalism). Furthermore, articulation can be seen to be in tension with differentiation in that it reduces (to some extent) the diversity of graduate output and can reinforce the low status of NUIs.

There exist few formal routes of articulation and instances of recognition of NUIs' qualifications. But there are exceptions: South Africa (with its National Qualifications framework, and Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) practices); Senegal (with its RPL and Credit Accumulation & Transfer Schemes); and Tanzania (with its admissions to diploma scheme). Even where formal routes exist, however, there is little evidence of actual articulation. Relationships between

the two institutional types are generally competitive and unstructured, with few instances of co-operation and limited ad hoc staff exchange schemes. The main obstacles to articulation are the reluctance of universities to recognize NUIs' qualifications and incompatible qualifications structures.

Similarities and differences between universities and NUIs. Identical governance, funding as well as management structures and approaches are evident among universities and NUIs in some cases, while others are clearly different. Generally, NUIs are more poorly funded and resourced, which has major implications for staff recruitment and retention, infrastructure and hence quality. They also generally enjoy less autonomy and poorer status than universities. The reasons for this include: lack of clearly defined institutional mandate of the NUIs; public misunderstanding of the orientation and philosophy of NUIs' training vis-à-vis university education; inadequate resources and hence low-quality teaching; ill-defined articulation and credit transfer mechanisms; absence of academic dialogue in the universities, and generally lower entry requirements.

Recommendations and challenges

- ▶ Participation and access should be encouraged but in a targeted way through both institutional and programmatic differentiation to meet development goals. To maximize diversity of offerings, cost effectiveness and access, the binary divide should be flexibly maintained through appropriate regulation to control academic and vocational drift. Prospects for effective regulation are dependent on national conditions. In some cases, such as Mozambique and South Africa, strong centralized national policy frameworks are conducive in this regard. In smallest systems, much greater institutional autonomy is evident, creating greater challenges for regulation.
- ▶ Comprehensive hybrids and combinations of residential and open learning should be developed, especially to provide access to lessons in rural areas.

- ▶ Quality must be maintained in the process of differentiation despite ongoing fiscal constraint.
- ▶ The dominance of universities (other than in Francophone countries) should be reversed. Expansion does not always imply diversity as many new universities, and not NUIs, are being established. This implies addressing ongoing popular aspirations for universities as institutions of first choice, and the persistent attribution of low status to NUIs. This could be achieved through: publicly clarifying complementary roles and identities; encouraging and rewarding collaboration; and creating single supervision and stakeholder bodies.
- ▶ Formal articulation channels must be created and actual articulation encouraged. However, emphasis on differentiation and diversity should be retained.
- ▶ Collaboration between universities and NUIs must be encouraged and rewarded.
- ▶ Linkages between higher education and industry should be strengthened to improve quality and relevance in research and vocational training.
- ▶ The private sector should be encouraged to provide complementary system of institutional and programmatic differentiation. However, quality and relevance must be assured through appropriate regulation. ▀

1. Associate Professor, formerly Director, Centre for the Study of Higher Education, University of Western Cape, South Africa, presently Executive Director for Planning & Analysis, University of South Africa
2. Principal, Ho Polytechnic, Ghana.

ADEA Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE)

New Home, New Vision

by Alice Sena Lamptey, WGHE coordinator

The Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE) was founded in 1989, to strengthen collaboration among African governments, development partners and tertiary education institutions in Africa, to improve the effectiveness of development assistance and, more broadly, to support the revitalization of African universities, polytechnics and teacher training colleges. WGHE membership comprises representatives of higher education institutions, representatives of African governments and ministries of education, and representatives of development partners interested in the development of higher education in Africa.

At the beginning, the WGHE was led by the World Bank, but since 2002 its work has been coordinated by the Association of African Universities (AAU), based in Accra, Ghana.

WGHE has a Steering Committee and Coordination Secretariat, and its activities are guided by a Strategic Plan (2003-05) and annual work programs. Following a 1999 review, the Group has progressively formalized its functions, which has allowed it to implement such activities as competitive grants for the development of institutional HIV/AIDS policies, support for universities to develop information communication and technology (ICT) strategic plans and governance training for university council members.

WGHE's three-pronged program strategy comprises analysis and research to identify priority issues facing higher education in Africa, advocacy and awareness-raising of the key issues

identified and capacity building through funding of small-scale pilot initiatives.

Outputs and results

WGHE has been credited with a number of achievements including keeping higher education on the donors' agenda. The group has conducted a range of studies on issues affecting higher education in Africa, most of which have been carried out by African scholars.

Among the most important studies are:

- an assessment of strategic planning experiences among African universities,
- three case studies of university reform experience in Africa during the 1990s,
- a survey of higher education innovations in Africa,
- seven case studies and a synthesis report on the challenge of HIV/AIDS to African universities;
- surveys and a directory of the HIV/AIDS response of universities, teacher training colleges and polytechnics; and
- a survey of tertiary level distance learning programs.

One achievement deserves particular mention. In 2003, WGHE, in collaboration with AAU and the World Bank, organized the tertiary education training conference on "Improving tertiary education in Africa: things that work!". The main purpose was to create a forum for learning and experience sharing on innovative approaches and things that are working in tertiary education in Africa. The conference showed that, after ten years of crisis in African higher

education, there is evidence of a new generation of younger higher education institutional leaders and ministers who are open and committed to change and innovation. There is also an emerging number of new types and models of tertiary institutions with new mandates and approaches to teaching, research and community engagement.

The majority of the thirty-four case studies presented were identified by the WGHE Innovations Survey from Anglophone, Francophone and Lusophone areas and addressed the fields of management, financing, gender and equity, expanding access, application of information technology and community engagement. Working group discussions generated priorities for development partners supporting higher education in Africa.

Development of the WGHE

WGHE's transfer to the Association of African Universities (AAU) ensures that it benefits from being anchored in a well-established African institution. Advantages include: the reinforcement of the capacity of the host institution, closeness to beneficiaries and greater visibility for the group and the impact of its activities.

In the coming months, full integration of WGHE into the organizational structure and core program activities of the AAU is anticipated. The WGHE will continue to serve as a forum and "broker of ideas", among the diverse stakeholders of higher education in Africa. In the shorter term, WGHE will continue to operate through experimentation and testing of small-scale ideas and innovations by networking with pan-African institutions at continental and sub-regional levels and remaining anchored in the AAU. ▀

For more information contact:
Alice Lamptey, WGHE Coordinator,
alamptey@aau.org



WGHE publications are available in both English and French on the ADEA website (www.adeanet.org/) or on the AAU website (www.aau.org/). Case studies carried out for the Conference on Higher Education, in cooperation with AAU and the World Bank can be viewed at www.worldbank.org/afr/teia

Policy Forum on Private Higher Education Accra, Ghana, 2-3 November, 2004

Growth of private institutions of higher learning in Africa

Today, the demand for private institutions of higher learning is growing more rapidly than the demand for public sector institutions. Even the number of private institutions has surpassed the public sector. On the other hand, private universities remain small and still only account for a small part of the total number of students.

Kenya was the first country to establish private institutions. It was followed by Benin, Senegal, Tanzania, Uganda, Ghana, Mozambique, Cameroon and others. Today, there are more than 100 private universities in sub-Saharan Africa; more than half of these have arisen since 1990.

It is still difficult to obtain reliable information on private institutions of higher learning in sub-Saharan Africa. The Table gives an overview of the number of institutions in selected countries.

Number of private institutions of higher learning, by country

Benin	27
Cameroon	17
Ghana	28
Nigeria	13
Kenya	14
Senegal	48
Tanzania	10
Uganda	15
Zimbabwe	4

Source: Workshop report "Policy Forum on Private Higher Education in Africa" AAU, IIEP, ADEA. December 2004.

During the last two decades, a growing number of private universities have emerged in Africa, in part due to the inability of public universities to satisfy the growing social demand for higher education, but also as a result of the increasing demand for employment-oriented courses. All stakeholders, particularly, national governments, the international education community, development partners, beneficiaries and parents – are very interested in this phenomenon, which was the focus of a policy forum organized by the Association of African University (AAU) from November 2-3, 2004, in Accra, Ghana.

Organized in cooperation with ADEA, the WG on Higher Education (WGHE) and the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), the forum aimed to provide an opportunity for public and private higher education institutions (PHEIs), policymakers and beneficiaries from 12 countries in Africa to exchange views and experiences on the problems and prospects of the growing private higher education sector in Africa. Country papers were commissioned and presented from Benin, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe. More than fifty participants discussed a range of concerning the principal characteristics of private institutions of higher learning, which are summarized below.

Types of private institutions

There are at least three types of PHEIs in Africa, i.e. (1) private universities, (2) private colleges, and (3) non-university institutions mostly in the area of vocational and pro-

fessional training. For example, Nigeria presently has three private universities and several private polytechnics and colleges of education. In Ghana, private colleges run diploma and certificate level programs. In countries such as Senegal, Benin, Cameroon, non-university private institutions are more common than private universities. In Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe, private universities are the most common institutional type. South Africa seems to have a preference for both types of institutions.

Legal and regulatory frameworks

The operation of PHEIs is regulated under a number of legal enactments. In Ghana, the Education Act of the 1960s empowered the Minister of Education to approve the establishment of private tertiary institutions, close institutions and make regulations regarding the conduct of the affairs of institutions. Following the 1987 education reforms, the National Accreditation Board now performs these functions. In South Africa the Joint Statute of 1984 stipulates that the University Council shall accept final responsibility for teaching and learning programs taking place in its partnerships. In Uganda, the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act 2001 was promulgated to regulate the general operations of higher education institutions. The legal framework in Kenya allows 90% ownership for religious bodies. PHEIs have been allowed to operate in Nigeria since 1999. The Republic of Benin passed a decree allowing the establishment and development of private higher education in 2001.

Ownership patterns

The type of ownership sometimes reflects the type of private institution. For example, private institutions owned by corporations are often for-profit. However, there are religious-owned

institutions that assume a for-profit character even though they are generally not-for-profit. Such religious-owned institutions also venture into programs perceived to be financially lucrative: business, management studies and information technology. Ownership of PHEIs in South Africa is diverse. Some are family-owned businesses, others are owned by religious institutions, consortia and corporations. Ownership in Nigeria and Uganda follows a similar pattern. Ninety percent of institutions in Kenya are owned by Christian organizations. The pattern of ownership of private institutions in Ghana is split between for-profit and not-for-profit entities. The not-for-profit institutions are mostly owned by religious bodies and are primarily aimed at providing service and teaching.

Financing

Private higher education institutions charge tuition fees. Although private tertiary institutions are funded entirely from private sources, governments may provide support to the institutions in other ways. In Ghana, since the establishment of the Ghana Education Trust Fund in 2002, students pursuing accredited programs in PHEIs are eligible for the same student loans as their colleagues in public institutions. Generally, private higher education institutions charge higher fees than public higher institutions.

Quality assurance

The question of standards in education is fundamental both nationally and internationally, and most countries are developing national systems of quality assurance (QA). The South African national QA body is the Higher Education Quality Committee of the Council on Higher Education, which is in charge of program accreditation and institutional audits. In Uganda, the National Council on Higher Education (NCHE) demands that higher education institutions recruit academic and administrative staff that meet the standards and qualifications set by NCHE. All students in Nigeria, both public and private are admitted into the universities through the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board examinations. Quality control is important, because of

the concern that the expansion of both public and private tertiary institutions may lead to the lowering of the quality of course offerings. It is for this reason that the National Accreditation Board has been empowered to grant both institutional and program accreditation, as is also the case in Ghana. In Zimbabwe, a quality control measure of a minimum of two passes at the Advanced (A) levels has been set for both private and public institutions. Student and faculty reviews are also undertaken annually.

Quality of education and graduate employment

The employment prospects of graduates of private institutions cannot be said to be higher than that of those from public institutions. However for the first time, employers can compare between private and public graduates before recruitment decisions are made. Innovations in the private institutions have helped improve the employment prospects of graduates from the private sector.

Private universities and research

The importance of research in higher education cannot be overemphasized. Research helps to re-tune faculty and to train academic and professional staff. It is also the process through which new knowledge is produced and transmitted to society. The evidence available suggests that not much research is being undertaken in the private higher education institutions in Africa. This is reflected in the fact that of the 28 accredited private tertiary institutions only two offer post-graduate programs. In a survey of quality assurance practices in seven selected private higher education institutions, not one mentioned research activities.

Public policy, equity and gender issues

In many instances, national legislations on the private higher education sector are not designed in a manner that allows the sector to contribute positively to human resource development needs. Indeed, on all the equity considerations, PHEIs are not making significant contributions.

Conclusions and recommendations

The Forum made a number of recommendations. The most important being the need to assure that:

- The establishment of PHEIs is gradual and not dictated by pressures from investors and the volume of students qualified for admission (especially in the case where they are unable to obtain admission into the public sector).
- Effective policy on human resource development exists so as to have a critical mass of full-time teaching and research staff for PHEIs.
- There is enforceable policy on Information and Communication Technology-driven delivery of education in the PHEIs.
- Partnerships between PHEIs and well established public institutions are encouraged.
- There is comparability of degrees, certificates, and diplomas between public higher education institutions and PHEIs through the development of appropriate guidelines on accreditation.
- Policies are put in place that promote a research culture in PHEIs through collaboration with the public sector using the experiences and good practices in the public sector.
- The programs of PHEIs respond to the needs of the country and are not driven by market forces.
- The AAU develops a mechanism that facilitates resource sharing among public and private institutions.
- There is the establishment of Networks of PHEIs in Africa.
- There is an increase in graduate training and research by PHEIs.
- PHEIs are aware of cross-border issues.
- PHEIs show greater social responsibility and accountability in education provision. ▀

BY SEPPÖ HOLTTA
PROFESSOR
UNIVERSITY OF TAMPERE
FINLAND

GATS and Cross-Border Trade in Education*

By N.V. Varghese, Head of Training and Educational Programs, International Institute of Education Planning (UNESCO/IIEP)

Education, previously a state prerogative, is rapidly becoming commercialized internationally, with higher education being especially affected. Is the business of educational services desirable?

Studying abroad is not new, and it is a reliable mode of capacity development especially in countries where universities are not in existence. Countries such as Cyprus relied entirely on foreign universities for higher education till the 1990s. What is new is the fact that, in the context of globalization, higher education has become a designed activity (OECD, 2004) to produce trained people to suit the requirements of a global labor market centred around knowledge production. What is also new is the emergence of a new set of providers – at times corporations – operating through cross-border provision of education facilities.

Profits and trade go hand in hand. Profits and education too are becoming close associates in the context of trade in education. In fact, it is the profits and the profitability of this sector that have attracted many providers and retained them in this business. There are registered education companies. Strayer University, Phoenix Online, and Apollo Group are some of the US firms that appear in the Global Education Index (GEI) – an index providing information on the stock prices of trans-national providers of post-secondary education. This is not a phenomenon confined to the developed world. For example, companies such as

such as SEGI, INTI Universal (Malaysia), PRIMSERV (South Africa), or NIIT and Tata Infotech (India) appear in the GEI and are listed on the stock exchange.

Education, especially higher education, is emerging as a profitable commercial venture and industry. It seems there is fierce competition among institutions of higher education to attract foreign students in their own countries and to open campuses in other countries to generate income and profit. The fast growth of this segment of education points to the fact that the trade in education is economically attractive and beginning to become politically and socially acceptable. No doubt, the returns associated with investments in cross-border education act as good incentives to both buyers and sellers, leading to the promotion of trade in education.

Education, especially higher education, is emerging as a profitable commercial venture and a profitable industry. There is fierce competition among institutions of higher education to attract foreign students in their own countries and to open campuses in other countries to generate income and profit.

GATS and modes of trade in education

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was established in 1948 to facilitate the multi-lateral arrangement governing international trade and the World Trade Organization (WTO), established in 1995, took over these responsibilities. The WTO essentially dealt with rules governing trade in goods. In 1995, services came under its purview. The creation of the General Agreement

on Trade in Services (GATS) is the first set of multilateral rules governing trade in services between countries. All of the GATS negotiations are held under the auspicious of the WTO. GATS covers 12 service sectors, and education is one of them. Inclusion of education under GATS implies that education should be treated just like any other tradable service. Trade in education is based on five sub-sectors, namely primary education, secondary education, higher education, adult education, and others (Knight, 2002). In fact, trade takes place more in the area of higher education covering the market for students, for programs, teachers and institutions/providers.

GATS discusses four modes of trade (Knight, 2003) in education: 1) Tall types of open and distance-learning activities (DAOL), including on-line learning and virtual universities; 2) study abroad; 3) the commercial presence of a foreign-provider in a country in the form of branch campuses or twining and franchising arrangements; 4) the presence of individuals in another country who provide the service of professors and researchers.

Transnational provision

Most of the transnational institutions (Mode 3) allow natives to acquire a degree from a foreign university through the branch campuses owned and operated by foreign universities in collaboration with public or private universities or independently. The examples are many. For example, the Georgian Institute of Public Affairs (GIPA) in Georgia is a joint venture with the United States Information Agency, Washington. The European School of Management, Georgia, is a limited liability company with many partners, (Varghese, 2004a). Similarly, Australia has a strong presence in Africa through Bond University and Monash University. In South Africa, the government has forced some of the trans-national providers to register as foreign companies. The United States International University (USIU), Kenya, is a company incorporated as per the code of the State of California, USA. Similarly, Daystar Company in the USA owns Daystar University of Kenya (Varghese, 2004b).

One can see a close association between the proliferation of private institutions of higher education and the operation of transnational institutions through twinning and franchising arrangements. These arrangements became common and acceptable, especially during the period of the East Asian Economic crisis when many students were forced to return to their home country without completing their studies (Varghese, 2002). This is a new and growing sector.

Transborder movement of students

Among all of these modes, Mode 2 – study abroad – is the most common and important form of trade in education accounting for more than US\$30 billion in 2001. The OECD (2004) estimates show that, in the late 1990s, more than 1.8 million students were studying in universities abroad. It is expected that by 2025 there will be around 8 million students studying abroad implying that cross-border higher education has a growing market.

Nearly 85 per cent of students were from OECD countries (OECD, 2004). Countries such as the United States (30%), the UK (14%), Germany (13%), France (9%), Australia (7%), and Japan (4%) host more than 75 per cent of the foreign students from OECD countries. The growth of foreign students is at times faster than that of the domestic students in some of the OECD countries. The fastest growth in foreign students is experienced by Australia, where it tripled in the 1990s, followed by the UK, where it doubled during the same period. In terms of earnings from this trade, in Australia earnings from education rank third of total service exports.

Asian countries head the list of countries sending a share of students (43%), followed by Europe (35%), Africa (12%), North America (7%), South America (3%), (OECD, 2004). In 2001, China ranked first in terms of the number of students sent abroad, followed by Korea and India. More than 70 per cent of all Asian students study in three English-speaking countries, i.e. the USA, the UK and Australia. After 9/11, there was a general decline in the number of students seeking admission in the USA.

Guidelines for Quality Provision in Cross Border Higher Education

UNESCO and the OECD have developed guidelines meant to guarantee the quality of Cross border higher education. These guidelines were developed in response to the growing commercialization of higher education in an increasingly globalized world. The guidelines speak to both developed and developing countries.

The guidelines aim to propose tools likely to help countries evaluate the quality and relevance of cross border higher education and protect students and other parties against mediocre services. They were developed in 2004 and 2005 with the input of a number of actors. The member states and experts of UNESCO and the OECD were invited to participate in the process as well as various stakeholders such as: associations of higher education, student associations, organizations of accreditation and quality control, organizations for the recognition of qualifications in higher education, unions of university workers, professional associations, the private sector and other international organizations. The guidelines focus on the priorities of higher education interest groups: governments, establishments and providers of higher education, student groups, organizations for accreditation and quality control, organizations for the recognition of qualifications of higher education and professional organizations.

The guide may be consulted at:

http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=29228&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html



The implications of trade in education

Trading education services under GATS is unacceptable in many countries. GATS and transnational education leave the sector open to international markets, which may not be desirable from the point of view of national concerns. While education in the developing world needs state support, market operations have only limited scope. Second, trade among unequal competitors may lead to a decline of the less equals. Third, the trans-national market may attract people with paying capacity, leaving the resource mobilization capacity of the neglected sector very weak. In countries such as the UK, fees for foreign students, have increased by several times in the recent past, subsidizing the education of the native students.

Most of the transnational agencies provide education in limited areas and in market-friendly subject areas. The potential students see a degree from a foreign university as a passport for a better job and higher earnings. Although it has not become a major sector in many countries, it is emerging as an important sector. It is therefore important to regu-

late it, and thus the guidelines prepared by the OECD and UNESCO should be useful. Regulations will help take advantage of transnational provisions without compromising national priorities and concerns. ▀

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For more information contact N.V. Varghese E-mail: nv.varghese@iiep.unesco.org

More about Higher Education in Africa Publications and web sites

- **The Journal of Higher Education in Africa (JHEA):** The Journal of Higher Education in Africa is a joint initiative between the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College, USA and the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) in Dakar, Senegal. JHEA provides a forum for debate, research analysis, and critique of the complex world of higher education. It offers an international forum focusing on Africa, and brings together policymakers, researchers, and the academic community around key issues shaping higher education in Africa. It is more than a research journal. It seeks to analyse policy and provide useful news and analysis to those responsible for decisions about higher education within and outside of the universities. It also provides the most relevant research to the academic community, to reporting on news and developments, and reviews of significant literature and policy documents in higher education.
http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/africaHEjournal/journal_home.htm
- **The Economist - "A survey of higher education"- September 10, 2005**
This issue on higher education contains a number of interesting articles, including:
 - *The Brains Business*: Mass higher education is forcing universities to become more diverse, more global and much more competitive, says Adrian Wooldridge.
 - *Secrets of Success*: America's system of higher education is the best in the world. That is because there is no system.
 - *Head in the Clouds*: Europe hopes to become the world's pre-eminent knowledge-based economy. Not likely.
 - *A World of Opportunity*: Developing countries see the point of universities.
 - *Wandering Scholars*: For students, higher education is becoming a borderless world.
 - *Higher Ed Inc.*: Universities have become much more businesslike, but they are still doing the same old things.
 - *The Best is Yet to Come*: A more market-oriented system of higher education can do much better than the state-dominated mode.http://www.economist.com/displaystory.cfm?story_id=4339960. All articles mentioned above are available in the Related Items column.
- **The Implications of WTO/GATS for Higher Education in Africa: Proceedings of the Accra Workshop on GATS (Accra, Ghana, April 27-29, 2004)**
The three-day workshop on the implications of WTO/GATS for Higher Education in Africa brought together Vice Chancellors, Deans, and other Higher Education specialists from Africa and other regions of the world. Discussions focused on a number of issues related to cross-border education: complexities, policy implications and challenges; international trade in services; quality assurance; and accreditation and recognition of qualifications. The workshop was organized by the Association of African Universities, in collaboration with UNESCO and the Council on Higher Education (South Africa). The proceedings as well as the Accra Declaration on GATS and the Internationalization of Higher Education in Africa are available online at <http://www.aau.org/wto-gats/papers.htm>
Hardcopies of the publication can be obtained from The Association of African Universities, P.O. Box 5744, Accra, Ghana, Tel. 233 21774495 / 761588, Fax: +233 21774821, e-mail: info@aau.org
- **A Toolkit for Higher Education Institutions Mitigating the Impact of HIV/AIDS in Africa**
With funding from the ADEA Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE), the Association of African Universities (AAU) has developed a comprehensive Toolkit for higher Education Institutions to assist in the development and management of comprehensive institutional responses to HIV/AIDS. The Toolkit comprises resource materials, advocacy strategies and practical guidelines. It is available in print in English (and shortly in French and Portuguese) or online at: www.worldbank.org/afr/teia/conf_0903/dhianaraj_chetty.pdf
AAU also plans to develop the Toolkit into an on-line certified training program. Hardcopies can be obtained from the Association of African Universities, P.O. Box 5744, Accra, Ghana, Tel: +233 21774495/761588, Fax: +233 21774821, email: info@aau.org
- **Regional Survey of Innovations in Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa with Specific Reference to Universities: Synthesis Report**
Conducted By Dr. Njuguna Ng'ethe, Dr. N'dri Assié-Lumumba, Dr. George Subotzky and Esi Sutherland-Addy for ADEA Working Group on Higher Education, 2003.
The survey sought to identify and document higher education innovations currently underway in Africa. Its purpose was to identify significant innovations at three distinct levels of systems, institutions and faculties and in six areas deemed critical to the transformation of higher education in Africa namely responsiveness to societal needs, strategic planning, financing, governance, curricula reform and human resource development.
- **Higher Education Institutions Responding to HIV/AIDS**
ADEA Working Group on Higher Education, 2006.

Selection made by the ADEA Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE)

Flagship program

Integrating HIV/AIDS into University Programs

Today, many African universities have policies and services devoted to confronting the pandemic. The flagship program for integrating HIV/AIDS into the university curriculum is one example of the initiatives being taken.

"In the absence of biomedical remedies, the only remedy left to society is education. Education is part and parcel of every intervention against the disease. It is the social vaccine we must rely on. Evidence is growing that formal education, not education necessarily about HIV or reproductive health, makes a difference. Hence, we must use all our energies to ensure that every young person has access to good quality education. In addition, the impact of education in rolling back the disease will be increased if there is good HIV education in the curriculum..." (Professor Michael J. Kelly)

Thanks to the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), the Association of African Universities (AAU) is collaborating with the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Regional Project for HIV and Development (RSC-UNDP) based in Johannesburg, South Africa. Their goal is to develop a multi-disciplinary program addressing the HIV/AIDS pandemic through university curricula. This collective effort has trained a core group of academics in a multi- and inter-

disciplinary course on HIV and development. It has also created partnerships with selected universities. The program, which began in September 2003, has trained over 100 academics from 30 Anglophone and Francophone institutions. Participants were selected from diverse fields and underwent intensive 6-10 week courses. Now back at their respective institutions, they are imparting the skills and experiences they acquired to their colleagues, so they in turn can teach and do research on HIV/AIDS and, in the process, produce graduates able to influence not only their own sexual behaviors but to make better decisions in the workplace, as parents and as community leaders.

To monitor progress, UNDP established a Steering Committee and assigned AAU responsibility for continuous advocacy through the Association's structures, specifically, the biennial Conference of Rectors, Vice Chancellors and Presidents (COREVIP). AAU also monitors technical progress of the par-

ticipants and networks the institutions for information sharing and to document best practices. AAU will provide further capacity building through its Senior Universities Managers Workshops (SUMA) and the sub-regional HIV/AIDS Toolkit training workshops. The latter workshops are using the toolkit developed by AAU in 2004 with funding from WGHE.

A major outcome of the curriculum integration training workshops has been the establishment of a Forum for Universities in Africa on HIV/AIDS (HAFUA) by the participants. Through HAFUA, institutions exchange information and experiences by email. Trainees are making good progress and monitoring visits show that they are anxiously awaiting additional support. AAU and its partners intend to establish HIV/AIDS resource centers, stocked with books and other learning materials. There is no doubt that the active involvement of academics and students is critical in order for HIV/AIDS in the curriculum to have an impact. Institutions therefore would like to make available small grants to support students' research and campus activities.

The monitoring visits turned up a complementary activity by the UNESCO Harare Cluster, which is collaborating with the National Universities Commission (NUC) of Nigeria to provide HIV/AIDS online training for teachers. The Virtual Institute for Higher Education in Africa (VIHEAF) (www.viheaf.net), an internet-based training site, seeks to build the capacity of teachers and other professionals by providing training modules in HIV/AIDS. VIHEAF has trained over 30,000 teachers and over 2,000 academics from Nigerian Universities.

Barely four years after the landmark publication (See Box) by WGHE, a number of surveys have confirmed that African Universities are making great strides in their efforts to address the threat that the HIV/AIDS poses to their institutions. Initiatives include formulating workplace HIV/AIDS policies, establishing coordinating units and services and appointing and training full-time personnel to manage their programs. AAU and partners consider the HIV/AIDS curriculum integration program a flagship in this effort. ▀

WGHE support to the fight against HIV/AIDS

Considering the gravity of the HIV/AIDS situation on the African continent, institutional policies and interventions related to HIV/AIDS will be central in ADEA's Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE) program in the next few years. Since 2001, WGHE has encouraged tertiary institutions in Africa to develop institutional HIV/AIDS policies and has funded a set of ten such policies. WGHE also undertook a study in 2001 investigating how African higher education institutions have responded to HIV/AIDS. Two other studies were carried out in 2003 and 2004 to assess the situation a few years later out of which WGHE published a directory of higher education institutions responding to HIV/AIDS. The policies, studies and directory (listed below), are available at <http://www.aau.org/wghe/publications/>

Challenging the Challenger: Understanding and Expanding the Response of Universities in Africa to HIV/AIDS, by M.J. Kelly, University of Lusaka, Zambia. ADEA WGHE. January 2001.

Higher Education Institutions in Africa responding to HIV/AIDS by B. Otolaa, University of Namibia. ADEA WGHE. June 2004.

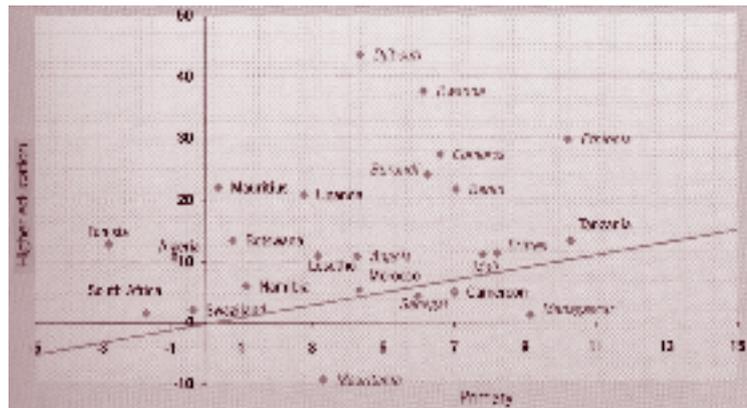
In Depth Survey of the Response of African Universities to HIV/AIDS in twelve global HIV/AIDS Initiative countries, ADEA WGHE and AAU, with funding from the Africa America Institute. February 2005.

Directory of Higher Education Institutions Responding to HIV/AIDS, Volume I, ADEA WGHE, 2006.

Overview of Tertiary Participation in Africa¹

What are the rates of participation in tertiary education in Africa?
 How does Africa compare with the rest of the world? Is tertiary enrolment developing more rapidly or more slowly than primary enrolment?
 What is the importance placed on tertiary education in education budgets? An overview in tables and graphs.

Figure 1: Average annual variation in number of pupils in primary education and higher education between 1998/99 and 2002/03 (in %)



Source: UNESCO 2005, EFA Paving the Way for Action Dakar+5 Graph 2.19 pg 99. Authors' calculation from UIS and national data

Participation

Participation is growing but rates are still weak in comparison to the rest of the world

In spite of a clear increase in enrolment in the last 15 years, the rate of tertiary enrolment in Sub-Saharan Africa remains weak [See Table 1]. The regional average of tertiary enrolment was 2.5% in 2002-2003 compared to 2.3% in 1998-1999. Despite this increase, African enrolment rates (2.5% in 2002/2003) remain far behind those of the world average (26.7%). Southern and Western Asia – with the

second lowest figures in the world – still boasted rates of tertiary enrolment 10 times that of Sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, tertiary enrolment in Africa has grown more slowly (+9% between 1998-1999 and 2002-2003) than in other regions (world average: 26%). Strong gender disparities are also observable with twice as many male students as female students.

Strong disparities exist within the continent

Although higher education in Africa grew strongly between 1990-1991 and 2002-2003, it did so in a highly irregular

way. As seen in Table 2, the number of students per 100,000 inhabitants varies quite considerably from one part of Sub-Saharan Africa to another, ranging from 220 within Eastern African and Indian Ocean nations, to 919 within Southern Africa. However, regional averages are in no way homogenous; in southern Africa, for example, Zambia has 236 students per 100,000 inhabitants, while this figure is over 6 times greater in South Africa.

With the exception of a three countries including Madagascar where the number of students per 100,000 inhabitants has fallen by nearly 35%, coverage has generally increased, as shown by Table 3. The rates of increase are also quite variable: while South Africa (+27%) and Botswana (35%) have recorded more modest growth, other states such as Djibouti (+970%), Mauritius (+320%) and Mali (+323%) have witnessed a real explosion in student enrolment.

Table 1: Comparison of Median Gross Enrolment Ratios in Tertiary Education for 1998/1999 2002/2003 (page 351 EFA Global Monitoring Report)

	Total		Male		Female		GPI (F/M)	
	1998/99	2002/03	1998/99	2002/03	1998/99	2002/03	1998/99	2002/03
World	21.2	26.7	20.4	23.5	21.9	30.0	1.07	1.28
Arab States	19.7	26.0	10.6	22.1	34.0	30.2	3.22	1.37
Central and Eastern Europe	38.7	39.4	32.8	36.1	43.8	42.8	1.34	1.18
Central Asia	24.9	32.2	21.1	26.0	28.2	34.0	1.33	1.31
East Asia and the Pacific	...	16.4	...	18.2	...	14.5	...	0.80
Latin America and the Caribbean	...	23.4	...	23.1	...	23.7	...	1.03
North America and Western Europe	49.1	57.7	40.5	49.6	58.2	66.2	1.44	1.34
South and West Asia	...	6.2	...	8.2	...	4.1	...	0.50
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.6	2.1	1.7	0.84	0.46

Source: Data extracted from Table 9A: Participation in Tertiary Education, UNESCO 2005, Global EFA Monitoring Report 2006 page 351.

Participation rates in higher education are growing faster than in primary education

Despite common perceptions, tertiary enrolment rates, as well as secondary enrolment, is growing more rapidly than primary school rates. This is also true for countries that have yet to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE).

Figure 1 shows the relation between primary and tertiary enrolment rates in 23 African countries. It shows that between the years 1998/1999 and 2002/2003, tertiary participation rates grew more quickly than primary rates in all but three countries (Cameroon, Madagascar, and Senegal). If such a situation makes sense for countries near Universal Primary Education it is less justified for countries that are far from such a goal (Angola, Benin, Burundi, Comoros, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Djibouti, Mali, Rwanda). This trend is actually being emphasized as the variation between the expansion of primary education and other levels (secondary and tertiary) is more important than in the past.

Table 2: Number of students per 100000 inhabitants, 1990-1991 and 2000-2003 Education for All pg 80

	Number of Students per 100,000 inh. in 1990/91	Number of Students per 100,000 inh. in 2002/03	Percentage of ratio growth between 1990/91 and 2002/03
Angola	70	95	36 %
Benin	234	644	175 %
Botswana	385	518	35 %
Burkina Faso	61	127	108 %
Burundi	64	180	181 %
Cameroon	300	517	72 %
Comoros	41	229	459 %
Congo	428	370	-14 %
Djibouti	10	107	970 %
Ethiopia	70	215	207 %
Guinea	89	262	194 %
Kenya	137	311	127 %
Lesotho	129	339	163 %
Madagascar	300	193	-36 %
Mali	53	224	323 %
Mauritius	330	1386	320 %
Mauritania	263	311	18 %
Namibia	285	691	142 %
Niger	57	124	118 %
Nigeria	402	784	95 %
RDC	215	358	67 %
Senegal	255	338	33 %
Sierra Leone	117	198	69 %
Swaziland	381	491	29 %
Tanzania	28	86	207 %
Tunisia	835	2349	181 %
Uganda	101	295	192 %
Zambia	187	236	26 %
Zimbabwe	472	469	-1 %
South Africa	1191	1508	27 %
Southern Africa (8 countries)	707	919	30 %
Central Africa (5 countries)	306	502	64 %
East Africa and the Indian Ocean (11 countries)	78	220	180 %
West Africa (10 countries)	278	555	100 %

Source: Data extracted from Tables 2.4 and 2.5 number of Students per 100,000 inhabitants and percentage of growth; Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants 1990/91 and 2002/2003 (or close), UNESCO 2005, EFA Paving the Way for Action Dakar+5, pages 79-80

Intra-sectoral resource allocation

Tertiary education is far from being ignored in the distribution of educational resources

There are great variations between countries when it comes to intra-sectoral allocations. Resources allocated to primary education varie from 23% to 62% (median for Africa : 44%), resources allocated to secondary education fall between 11% to 52% (median: 36%) and allocation for tertiary education is anywhere from 8% to 40% (median: 19%).

The following countries allocate the most to tertiary education [the percent of the budget allocated to tertiary is in parentheses]: Equatorial Guinea (40); Rwanda (37); Sierra Leone (33); DRC (33); Senegal (28); Congo (28); Gambia (26); Swaziland (26); Burundi (25); Guinea-Bissau (24); Mozambique (22); Benin (22); Chad (22); Nigeria (20). Among those countries only Swaziland and Nigeria maintain rates of primary education over 65%.

Table 3 gives a list of countries where the budgetary priority for primary education is not marked although Universal

Primary Education is not close to being achieved. It also details the parts of the budget allocated to each level of education. Within the 18 countries for which figures are available, 9 have room for manoeuvre between allocation to tertiary education and primary education (Burundi, Chad, Congo, DRC, Equatorial Guinea, Guinea, Mozambique, Rwanda and Zambia).▶

Table 3: Distribution of expenditure and room for manoeuvre for increasing the primary education share, countries far from UPE and where primary education has a low budgetary priority

Countries	PCR*	% primary (6 years)	% secondaire (7years)	% higher
African mid-point	57	44.2	35.4	19.4
Burundi	32	43.1	32.0	24.9
Congo	59	39.0	32.9	27.8
Cameroon	60	40.0	46.0	14.0
Comoros	47	45.7	46.7	7.7
Côte d'Ivoire	51	46.6	37.4	16.0
Eritrea	38	32.1	49.8	18.1
Ghana	68	35.2		
Guinea	52	44.3	30.8	24.8
Guinea Bissau	38	33.3	43.0	23.7
Equatorial Guinea	44	41.8	18.3	39.9
Kenya	70	36.1		
Lesotho	67	43.7	37.7	18.6
Malawi	73	47.0		
Morocco	69	36.6	47.1	16.3
Mauritania	46	44.2	38.9	16.9
Mozambique	46	48.0	30.0	21.9
Uganda	64	47.2		
Dem. Rep. of Congo	52	32.2	34.9	32.8
Rwanda	45	43.2	19.6	37.3
Sudan	49	46.0		
Swaziland	66	22.6	51.9	25.5
Chad	35	49.2	28.7	22.2
Zambia	60	45.6	35.0	19.4

Source: UNESCO 2005, EFA Paving the Way for Action Dakar+5 Graph 3.2 pg 119. Authors' calculation, year 2002 or close.
* PCR = Primary Completion Rate.

1. Article based on tables and texts included in EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006, UNESCO 2006, and Dakar +5, EFA, Paving the Way for Action, UNESCO BREDAPôle de Dakar, 2005.

Open Educational Resources – Are They A Solution for Higher Education?

by Susan d'Antoni, Program Specialist, OER Project, IIEP

IIEP Forums have explored OERs as an option for meeting increasing and increasingly varied demand for quality higher education.

Higher education institutions worldwide face significant challenges related to providing increased access, while containing or reducing costs. Meeting increasing and increasingly varied demand for quality higher education is an important consideration in the policy debate and institutional development in many countries.

In response, the Open Source movement has generated great interest in the education sector. Open initiatives in higher education include three areas – open source software and development tools, open course content, and standards and licensing tools – that are captured by the term, Open Educational Resources (OER). This term has been adopted by UNESCO to refer to the open provision of educational resources, enabled by information and communication technologies, for consultation, use and adaptation by a community of users for non-commercial purposes¹.

Raising awareness about OER

OER and open content, whether full course materials or course elements, constitute an important resource to higher education institutions, teaching staff and learners. However, if there is little or no awareness of availability, open course content cannot be exploited, and even with awareness of availability, there are challenges and barriers to its effective use.

The UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) has held two discussions on Open Source Resources: the first on free and open source software for e-learning, the sec-

ond on open content for higher education. From 24 October to 2 December nearly 500 persons from 90 countries came together in the forum on Open Educational Resources – Open Content for Higher Education, and exchanged almost 750 messages. From these discussions, a number of important points emerged:

The importance of OER The OER movement is breaking down barriers that have 'locked up' electronic educational content – it represents an important step towards sharing teaching materials, methods and tools. This results in an increase in available teaching materials for faculty members, but also independent learners. Faculty can adopt, adapt, localize and translate materials for use in their own specific situation. Learners can make use of materials for independent study.

Benefits and barriers: Although the benefits of OER to individuals as learners were seen as evident, those to the institution and the faculty seem less so. Institutional and faculty resistance represents a major barrier. Support from the whole institution, whether for producing or using OER, and incentives for faculty involvement were viewed as particularly important. Intellectual Property Rights constitute a thorny issue, and although there are alternative copyright options, such as the Creative Commons licences, the concerns around the way knowledge is protected and shared will need to be addressed if the OER movement is to progress.

Language and cultural issues

In introducing these two key concerns, Mamadou Ndoeye noted that the «production and dissemination of educa-

tional resources for open learning create new opportunities for accelerating progress toward education for all, narrowing the knowledge divide around the world, and combating inequality and poverty. Developing countries, it is hoped, will be able to take advantage of these resources to catch up to the scientific and technological advances recorded in developed countries». However, he cautioned that there are two barriers: language and cultural differences. At present the English language dominates developments in OER, although there are efforts in non-English speaking countries. And a monopoly of developed countries over the production of OER would relegate developing countries to the role of mere consumers.

Mr Ndoeye, ADEA Executive Secretary, then put forward a challenge to those involved and interested in OER: Might it be possible to couple OER with intercultural procedures and tools that encourage users to assert ownership of these resources from the standpoint of their linguistic and cultural contexts? Can content development be made sufficiently flexible to allow adaptation of materials to the variety of needs and situations encountered in different contexts? Can we meet the challenge of promoting, on an intercultural and multilingual basis, frameworks and networks for dialogue, interaction, and cooperative development of OER, in order to include developing country actors as active stakeholders in the production process? ▶

Join the ongoing discussion

The Community of Interest on OER is continuing its deliberations through 2006. Anyone who would like to join should send a message to Susan D'Antoni at virtual.university@iiep.unesco.org. All forum documents are available at <http://www.unesco.org/iiep/virtualuniversity/forums.php>

1. 2002 "Forum on the impact of Open Courseware for higher education in developing countries. Final report" Paris: UNESCO.

Broadening the Band in South Africa

By Piyushi Kotecha, former CEO, Higher education South Universities, South Africa

Providing rapid and effective internet communication has become a major challenge for institutions of higher learning. Recognizing this, the universities of South Africa have formed TENET, a network responsible for strengthening their negotiating power with Telkom, the country's only telephone service provider.

Breakthroughs in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) generally become revolutions once they gain critical mass. The growth in Internet, which was originally a way for the US military to achieve greater connectivity, was then rolled out to include academic connectivity, first in the USA and then in Europe. From this point, Internet has precipitated a revolution in the way that we deal with the world.

Gauging by the early signs, the adoption of broadband connectiv-

ity could well become the next revolution. Although definitions vary, broadband is understood as "always on data connection... and has the capability of a minimum download speed of 256 Kbps".¹ Assuming that the USA is still one of the world leaders in ICT trends, a report published in September of 2004

Higher education depends on a continuous access to information, the ability to cope with real time data, rapid transfer of ideas with colleagues across the globe and a common platform which makes it possible to 'speak the same language' irrespective of one's location.

Broadband is thus essential to the optimal functioning of a university if it is to remain competitive.

and leisure. As fascinating as it would be to examine the behavioral changes that this will bring about in the next decade, the importance of broadband to higher education has specific benefits.

Higher education thrives (one might say survives) by means of continual access to information, the ability to cope with real time data, video and voice over internet protocol (VoIP) and less prioritized data, rapid transfer of ideas with colleagues across the globe and a common platform which makes it possible to 'speak the same language' irrespective of one's location. Broadband is thus essential to the optimal functioning of a university if it is to compete nationally, if not globally. However, the fact remains that Africa still lacks the developments in the rest of the world; we are still a casualty of the digital divide. A UNESCO study,

released in September 2005, measures the "infostate" of 192 countries and observes that while the digital divide is gradually closing, the low infostates (32 countries, mostly African) are being outpaced by the 60 middle group countries. Thus African countries suffer from an additional divide even within the broader divide.²

The South African case is typical of many other African countries. Although it has a solid ICT infrastructure and benefits from some competition in cellular telecommunications services, there is presently only one fixed line provider, Telkom. The danger behind any monopoly, but especially in the case of telecommunications, is that the sole provider is able to fix costs, product offerings and services. The South African government has legislated for a second national operator to commence services but this has still not transpired.

Given that higher education within a developing context is obviously a public good, negotiations between the universities and Telkom have been fruitful. The leadership of South African higher education institutions jointly formed a Technical Working Group to negotiate with Telkom in 2000. This evolved into the establishment of the Tertiary

is telling. Entitled: 'A Nation Online: Entering the Broadband Age,' it demonstrates the decline in slower speed modems and a 182% increase in the use of DSL and 91% in Cable usage between 2001 and 2003. Similar increases were registered for 2004. The implication is that in OECD countries at least, the growing popularity of broadband means an increased use of and reliance on Internet connectivity for both work



Photo: R. Zurba/USAID. South Africa

Education Network (TENET) and after extensive negotiations, an arrangement was in place by 2001 whereby Telkom connects institutions at substantially reduced rates to Internet gateways using its Public Broadband Network. Presently, 47 academic institutions (with over 80 sites) authorize TENET to act as agents on their behalf. In effect, this means that higher education institutions are one of Telkom's largest corporate clients providing institutions with nearly 50% of the Telkom Internet traffic via the submarine SAT3 cable. During 2003, the total Internet access bandwidth grew from 85 MB/s to 107 MB/s for participating institutions.

While the founding idea was to provide higher education institutions with cumulative bargaining power, TENET's roles and responsibilities has grown over the years. Presently, TENET handles all interfaces and communications with Telkom on behalf of the institutions. These roles include informing the institutions about services and prices, receiving orders from institutions and capturing all associated details into an administration system, placing orders and managing Telkom's performance throughout the installation process. TENET has also built operational databases and information systems to handle all administrative processes with Telkom on behalf of institutions. It also manages the "ac.za" domain and has established communities of practice in three key domains within South African public higher education: (1) IT professionals, (2) scholars and academics committed to using IT for educational and research purposes, and (3) library and affiliated information professionals.

While Higher Education South Africa (HESA) is keen to expand and enhance the services that TENET provides nationally, it is also presently acting as the secretariat for the Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA), which presently represents 43 public universities in the region. In this regard, SARUA is exploring ICT models that can be implemented within the greater region of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). SARUA has prioritized ICT as one of its four programmatic pillars and notes that, in principle at least, there is the possibility of linking fibre connections (as the preferred broadband carrier) with Mozambique, Swaziland, Lesotho, Namibia and Botswana. However, as the South African case makes clear, whether this is possible will depend on the existing regulatory framework that exists in each country. Trans-border telecommunication agreements will depend on how willing these countries are to co-operate while protecting their national market share.

The possibilities suggested by the TENET example within a regulatory context imply that the broadband issue is larger than a simple matter of bandwidth. In fact, it is possible to trace a connected trajectory, like a chain of dominos, that needs to be in place if the SADC region and Africa are ever to achieve their necessary potential. Increasing bandwidth and the speed of connectivity is integral to effective ICT platforms. However, if Africa is ever to band together to generate its own solutions to its challenges, it will necessitate regulatory agreements that allow for linked-up broadband connectivity across national boundar-

ies. Moreover, the central role that the university plays in the production of knowledge and in creating the future Human Resource Development (HRD) capital that our economies require, means that e-linked universities across the region (and across the continent) is fundamental to development. Although NEPAD's present concern is with the creation of e-schools³, it is a matter of urgency for higher education to create its own network. Regional associations, like SARUA, will have to embark on advocacy drives within NEPAD as well as with private telecom providers in order to persuade the highest levels of government and business in the region that a less regulated telecommunication environment is crucial to the long-term re-involution of the continent. ▀

1 Definition taken from Republic of South Africa, Government Gazette, vol. 491, No. 27844, 27 July 2005, p.3.

2 See details of the forthcoming report, http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en/ev.php-URL_ID=19392&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html. Accessed 12/08/2005.

3 A NEPAD e-school is a school connected to the Internet; it has teachers trained to teach ICT skills; allows teachers to use ICT to deliver their lessons; uses ICT for administration of the school and has, in a longer term, a "health point". See, in this regard, the workings of the NEPAD ICT Task Team: <http://www.unicttaskforce.org/thirdmeeting/documents/NEPAD%20PRESENTATION%20-%20chasia.ppt>. Accessed 15/08/2005.

↳ Continued from page 4

percentage points per year, or 3.2 percentage points over five years. Tertiary education may therefore improve technological catch-up thus maximizing Africa's potential to achieve greater economic growth and poverty reduction under current constraints. ▀

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Washington, DC: World Bank, 2001.

2. Commission for Africa, Our Common Interest, Report of the Commission for Africa, March 2005.

3. D. Bloom, M. Hartley, and H. Rosovsky, Beyond Private Gain: The Public Benefits of Higher Education (in press).

4. Pasacharopoulos, G. and Patrinos, H., Returns to Investment in Education: A Further Update. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 2881, September 2002.

5. UNESCO and Organization for Economic Development and Cooperation, Financing

Education – Investments and Returns: Analysis of the World Education Indicators, Paris, UNESCO, 2003.

6. World Bank, Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education, Washington, DC: World Bank, 2002.

7. Bloom, D., Canning, D. and Chan K., Higher Education and Economic Development in Africa, draft report prepared for the World Bank, June 2005.

Workshop on the collection and analysis of data on HIV/AIDS.

ADEA, the IIEP and ERNWACA organized a methodology workshop in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso) on tools and practical methods for collecting data on HIV/AIDS and education. It took place on the premises of the Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa from 4 to 8 July, 2005. The workshop covered a variety of topics including how to use editorial skills to collect qualitative information, using a data analysis software (MAX QDA), designing field guides and surveys, sampling techniques and interviewing, and interpreting results.

➔ For more information, contact: Lucy Teasdale, IIEP, l.teasdale@iiep.unesco.org or Hamidou Boukary, ADEA Secretariat, h.boukary@iiep.unesco.org.

The "School for Parents" radio broadcast

The 3rd Congress of the African Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations (FAPE), which convened in Brazzaville last 5 to 8 July, also provided an opportunity for the Working Group on Communication for Education and Development (WGCOMED) to learn more about the "School for Parents" radio program. This project, initiated by FAPE and now being tested in Burkina Faso, Guinea and Senegal, is broadcasting information to help sensitize families about the importance of education for their children.

➔ For more information, contact: Opubar, WGCOMED coordinator, comed@wanad.org

Ad hoc WG on Post-Primary Education holds consultative meeting

The brand new WG on Post-Primary Education met in Paris last July 18, 2005 and sketched out its basic work plan, which is built around three priorities: i) to develop an indicative framework based on lessons learned from promising experiences; ii) identify good practices and examples of reform in post-primary and secondary teaching, including skills development; and iii) to identify cost-effective policy options for developing post-primary education.

➔ For more information, contact: Hamidou Boukary, ADEA Secretariat, h.boukary@iiep.unesco.org.

Experts' conference on bilingual education and the use of local languages

A regional experts' conference on bilingual education and the use of local languages in education was held in Windhoek, Namibia, from 3 to 5 August, 2005. It presented the initial findings of ongoing stock-taking research.

The meeting was jointly organized by ADEA, GTZ and the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE) in partnership with the Ministry of Education of Namibia and the Agence intergouvernementale de la francophonie (AIF).

➔ For more information, contact: Thanh-Hoa Desruelles, ADEA Secretariat, th.desruelles@iiep.unesco.org

Workshop on web site design and dynamic database development

The ADEA Working Group on Education Statistics held a workshop for English-speaking African countries (Eritrea, Liberia, Sudan and Zimbabwe) on Database Development, Development of Dynamic Web Sites and Security through Content Management Systems (CMS) It took place from August 29 to September 3, 2005 in Harare (Zimbabwe), in the modern WGES Training Lab.

➔ For more information, contact: Tegegn Nuresu Wako, WGES Interim Coordinator, t.nuresu-wako@unesco.org

Workshop on professional development tools for teachers

The WG on the Teaching Profession (WGTP) organized a regional workshop on professional development tools for teachers in Cotonou (Benin) from 3-5 August, 2005. It brought together WGTP focal points and teacher educators from six West African French- and English-speaking countries. The twin objective was to bring together countries of the former WG Francophone and Anglophone sections, following their merger, to seek a common understanding of the new WGTP governance structures and vision; and to reflect on what tools would be useful for expanding teachers' professional skills (such as teachers' guides, school projects, and self-evaluation techniques.)

➔ For more information, contact: Virgilio Juvane, WGTP Coordinator, v.juvane@commonwealth.int

WG on Finance and Education tests new training manual

The WG on Finance and education (WGFE) organized a seminar in Windhoek, Namibia, from 4 to 13 August, 2005, to test out its new training manual. Some thirty mid-level managers from the ministries of education, finance and from local government attended the training sessions.

➔ For more information, contact: Mohamed Cherif Diarra, WGFE Coordinator, mohamed.diarra@codesria.sn

WG on Finance and Education holds Steering Committee meeting

The WG on Finance and Education (WGFE) held its Steering Committee Meeting in Kampala, Uganda, on September 1-2, 2005. At the same time it held a conference on: Financing Education in Eastern Africa – from Government Intervention to Community Involvement. It covered all levels and kinds of education and addressed the whole question of how to finance education sector development plans

➔ For more information, contact: Mohamed Cherif Diarra, WGFE Coordinator, mohamed.diarra@codesria.sn

Workshop on communication for education and development

The ADEA Working Group on Communication for Education and Development (WGCOMED) organized a national training workshop on communication for education and development in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), on September 2-3, 2005. Its goal was to strengthen the technical and professional capacity of journalists covering education and to improve and sharpen the skills of those charged with disseminating information from the Ethiopian Ministry of Education. The workshop took place just before the Ministerial meeting on the education of rural populations, also held in Addis Abeba from 7 to 9 September, 2005.

➔ For more information, contact: Professor Alfred Opubar, WGCOMED Coordinator, comed@wanad.org

Steering Committee of the WG on Books meets

The Steering Committee of the WG on Books and Learning Materials (WGBLM) met in Johannesburg, South Africa on September 7-8, 2005. WGBLM reviewed activities since the last meeting. On the agenda were the development of two manuals relating to the selection and development of ECD and adult literacy materials, a study on book purchasing practices, another on communication, ICT and book policies. Future collaboration with such key partners as APNET (African Book Publishers Network) and PABA (Pan African Booksellers Association) was also discussed.

➔ For more information, contact: Bheulah Thumbadoo, WGBLM Coordinator, thumper@icon.co.za

ADEA and the African Union explore avenues of cooperation

Members from the ADEA Secretariat met with a delegation of the African Union (AU) in Addis Ababa, on 5 September 2005. Discussions focused on possible areas of common interest and collaboration: higher education; teacher training; distance learning; women's participation; language issues; and mathematics and science.

The African Union invited ADEA to participate in two meetings: an experts' meeting on the renewal of higher education that will take place in Midrand, South Africa, October 27-28; and the Steering Committee for the new Decade of Education activities to be held in Addis in October. For its part, ADEA invited the AU to be a co-organizer of the Ministers Bureau during the ADEA Biennial Meeting (Libreville, Gabon), held on 27 March 2006.

Ministerial seminar on education for rural people

ADEA, the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) organized a ministerial seminar on education for rural people (ERP) in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), from 7 to 9 September, September, 2005. At the end of the seminar, the Ministers of education, agriculture, fisheries and rural development from 11 African countries arrived at an agreement for joint actions to be taken. The agreement was formalized in a joint communiqué.

⇒ For more information, contact: Thanh-Hoa Desruelles, ADEA Secretariat, th.desruelles@iiep.unesco.org

WG on Communication for Education and Development holds Steering Committee meeting

At its annual meeting September 12 and 13 in Nairobi, Kenya, the WGCORED Steering Committee discussed future activities and the medium-term plan for 2006-2008.

The new thrust will emphasise strengthening the communication capacities of education ministries. Therefore attention is to be given to the institutional and corporate communication challenges facing education ministries and how to assist them in adopting more strategic and results-oriented communication approaches that will provide support to on-going and proposed education reforms. It was also agreed that a concerted advocacy effort should be directed towards the leadership of education ministries to persuade them to give communication higher visibility and to use more effective communication strategies in educational policy development and management.

⇒ For more information, contact: Professor Alfred Opubor, WGCORED Coordinator, comed@wanad.org

Visit by the WG on Mathematics and Science Education

The WG on Mathematics and Science Education (WGMSE) traveled to Southern Sudan from October 4-12, 2005 to conduct a preliminary study and identify areas of assistance to the education system in mathematics and science. Faced with the many needs existing at every level, the WGMSE extended an invitation for 10 teachers to take part in one of its training courses.

The government and the WGMSE have also agreed to draw up an ambitious technical cooperation plan that would involve all the actors.

⇒ For more information, contact: Obadiah Maganga, WGMSE Coordinator, info@smasse.org

ADEA Steering Committee meets

ADEA Steering Committee members met in Paris from September 28 to 30, 2005 and attended two meetings: a seminar and an administrative meeting. During the seminar, the very favourable results and recommendations of an external evaluation conducted this year were presented and members reflected on future priorities and strategies. One of the recommendations was that ADEA should put together a strategic plan to begin in 2006.

The administrative meeting approved the 2005 activities report and the program and budget for 2006. Steering Committee members were also updated on preparations for the Biennial Meeting in Libreville (Gabon), March 27 - 31, 2006.

⇒ For more information, contact: Thanh-Hoa Desruelles, ADEA Secretariat, th.desruelles@iiep.unesco.org

First workshop of the Ad Hoc Working Group on Policy Dialogue

The ad hoc Working Group on Policy Dialogue (WGPD), which is co-led by ADEA and UNESCO's International Bureau of Education (IBE), met for the first time on October 1 and 2 in Paris. The meeting took stock of training activities carried out by ADEA and IBE in 2004 and 2005 and, based on this review, launched the production of a toolkit for training in policy dialogue. Ministry of education staff who are involved in dialogue and negotiation with internal and external partners as well as union members attended the workshop. Seven countries were represented: Benin, Cameroon, Congo, Cape Verde, Niger, Mali and Senegal.

⇒ For more information, contact: Thanh-Hoa Desruelles, ADEA Secretariat, th.desruelles@iiep.unesco.org

FAWE fundraising dinner graced by Graça Machel

The Graça Machel, a member of the Endowment Task Force for the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), and also the Chair of the Mozambique Chapter of FAWE, graced a FAWE fundraising dinner for members of the business and corporate community in Kenya's capital city. It was held at the Grand Regency Hotel, Nairobi, on October 12, 2005. Mrs. Machel addressed 32 Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and expressed the need to explore with them innovative ways of partnering with FAWE in the development of the education of girls and women in Kenya and beyond. Seven CEOs have agreed to support the FAWE Endowment Fund.

⇒ For more information, contact: Marema Dioum, FAWE, fawe@fawe.org

Meeting of the WGESA Steering Committee

The Steering Committee of the Working Group on Education Sector Analysis (WGESA) met in Paris on October 18-19, 2005 to review the past year's activities and make plans for 2006. Specifically, the meeting discussed:

- the progress of the peer review exercises carried out in Mauritius, Gabon and Nigeria;
- follow-up activities concerning formative research;
- the anchoring of WGESA in Africa;
- updating of the working group's website; and
- coordination, financing and scheduling of the 2006 activities.

⇒ For more information, contact: Ibrahima Bah-Lalya, WGESA Coordinator, i.bah-lalya@iiep.unesco.org

WGES workshop on education planning and EMIS

The Working Group on Education Statistics (WGES) organized a workshop in Botswana in collaboration with the Botswana National Commission for UNESCO from October 24-28, 2005. Participants came from Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The workshop took place in Mochudi, Botswana and allowed one planner and one statistician from each national team to get an overview of education management information systems (EMIS) and to describe the problems they confront on a daily basis:

lack of resources and manpower, dependence on technical assistance, and untrained personnel.

⇒ For more information, contact: Tegegn Nuresu Wako, WGES Interim Coordinator, t.nuresu-wako@unesco.org

Close-up on Benin's education system

By Mathieu Brossard and Joseph Ahanhanzo

Why go to school? Certainly, in order to develop human capital and contribute to the sustainable social and economic development of the country and its citizens; but how many years of schooling are necessary to develop sustainable literacy in adults? Even though there is no study specific to Benin to answer this question, the results from other countries of the region are unequivocal: a strict minimum of six years of primary schooling is necessary in order to ensure a life-long capacity to read and write.

Who goes to school?

How many children get to school? How long do they stay? What percentage complete the primary cycle?

The Benin education system has undergone a major quantitative expansion at all levels during the last decade. The Gross Enrollment Ratio at primary level has increased from 71% in 1992 to 93% in 2004. At the secondary level, the rate has more than doubled – from 12% in 1992 to 27% in 2004. The greatest growth has occurred in higher education; in 1992 there were 200 students enrolled for every 100,000 inhabitants and in 2004 there were 522.

Nevertheless, Benin is still behind in terms of achieving universal primary education. As Figure 1 shows, even if access to first grade is now universal, only one out of every two children manages to complete the primary cycle; thus one out of every two is not in school long enough to acquire life-long literacy. Improving retention rates should certainly be the first educational policy priority for Benin.

Does school benefit everyone?

During the past decade, a movement towards equitable access to primary school for girls and boys may be observed; nevertheless, great dis-

parities remain: although 64% of Benin's boys have access to CM2, only 37% of girls enjoy the same access.

When the gender dimension is crossed with place of residence, the gaps are even larger: 70% of urban boys enter CM2 whereas only 27% of girls from rural areas do, the equivalent of 2.6 times less, proportionately.

Which school do we mean?

The same school everywhere? Are resources managed in an equitable way?

Do students in Benin's primary school benefit from the same learning conditions? By studying the allocation of teachers from school to school we can offer a partial reply to this question: the national average – 52 students per teacher in Benin – hides the great differ-

ences between schools. We can assess the degree of coherence in individual schools by estimating the variation between the number of primary school teachers that is statistically explained by the number of students (correlation coefficient 2 – see figures below).

In Benin, this indicator is only 0.61, whereas the average for Africa is estimated at 0.75 and the best countries achieve values over 0.90. For example, among those schools with 200 pupils enrolled, we find between 2 and 7 teachers. An analysis of who profits and who suffers from this general incoherence shows that the departments of Mono-Çouffo, Attacora-donga and Zou-Collines are under-resourced, whereas the more urban departments of Atlantique-Littoral and Oueme-Plateau are privileged. Clearly the situation can be improved with great potential gains for both efficiency and equity.

Falling behind: Lack of resources or inefficiency?

Is the system efficient?

In Benin, the share of resources for education (3.6% of GDP for current public expenditures) as well as the

Benin at a glance

Geographic area (km ²)	112 620
Population (in millions) en 2004	7,2
Population growth rate	3,0%
Proportion of the population aged 0 to 14 years old	47%
Rate of dependency by age (Pop 0-14 + Pop 65 et +)/ Pop totale	49%
% urban population	40%
Life expectancy	51 years
Ranking in Human Development Index (UNDP)	161/177
Gross Domestic Product per capita (F CFA 2004)	301,190
Real growth rate of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (2004)	3,0%
Public spending on education as % of GDP (2004)	3,6%
Estimated adult literacy rate (15 years +, 2002)	40%
Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) at primary level (2003/04)	96%
Primary school completion rate (2003/04)	50%
Primary school completion rate (girls 2003/04)	37%
Primary school completion rate (rural girls 2003/04)	27%
Private school teachers as % of total primary school teachers	13%
Teacher/student ratio (2003/04)	52
Number of textbooks (reading + mathematics) per student (2003/04)	0,88
% of non-civil service teachers among all primary school teachers (2003/04)	49%
Average salary of primary teachers expressed as units of GDP per capita	3,6

Source: Calculated by the authors from national education statistics and United Nations population data

quantitative results of the system (6.8 years of schooling on average) are both slightly higher than the continental average (respectively 3% of GDP and 5.7 years). Consequently, the quantitative efficiency of the Benin system is roughly equivalent to the African average. Each percentage point of GDP allocated to the education sector produces 1.9 years of schooling, or a value superior to that for less efficient countries (1.2 years in Mali, 1.3 in Burkina Faso, 1.6 in Côte d'Ivoire) but inferior both to more efficient countries (2.3 years in Togo, 2.5 in Uganda, 2.6 in Tanzania) and the average for developing countries outside of Africa (2.6).

The system's results are very weak in terms of internal efficiency: 46% of public resources mobilized for primary education (and about 30% of those for secondary) are « wasted » to the extent that they are used for students to repeat grades and not complete the primary cycle. Half of all resources lost are due to the high level of repeats (23% in primary, compared with a 7% average in English-speaking Africa, for example). Students who abandon school account for the other half of wasted resources.

Another aspect of the effectiveness of the system concerns its ability to train individuals adequately in both quantitative and qualitative terms to meet society's social and economic needs. This leads one to consider educational policy and the crucial question of regulating the flow of students between education cycles (see table).

To pursue this enquiry we need to follow a comparative approach and analyze Benin's education policy in terms of trade-offs effected from the use of resources at global level (State resources) and the breakdown per unit cost of primary education.

Benin's policy: what resources? What trade-offs?

Is the fiscal and macro-economic context a favorable one? Are enough resources being mobilized for education?

With internal public resources representing 15% of GDP, Benin has a level of fiscal pressure inferior to the African average (21%) but higher than that for most countries in the region (11% in Burkina and Niger, 15% in Togo). The total amount available to the government (the financial reserves on which the government can draw for education spending) is, in relative terms, equivalent to what is available in comparable countries.

In addition, the intersectoral trade-off and the choice of national policy are both rather favorable to the education sector. Current expenses allocated for education represent 23% of revenues outside of gifts, and should be compared with the 19% which is the average value both of African countries and those that are the best performers. In conclusion, we might say that the education sector is not suffering from a lack of resources, when compared with other countries.

Is primary education a high enough priority?

Analysis of intra-sectoral trade-offs, the second level, which figures in the choice of how resources for education are distributed among the different levels, reveals that budgetary resources for the primary cycle are within the average of what is observed in other African countries (50% of current education spending is allocated to the primary cycle).

Are more students being schooled or are more resources being allocated per student?

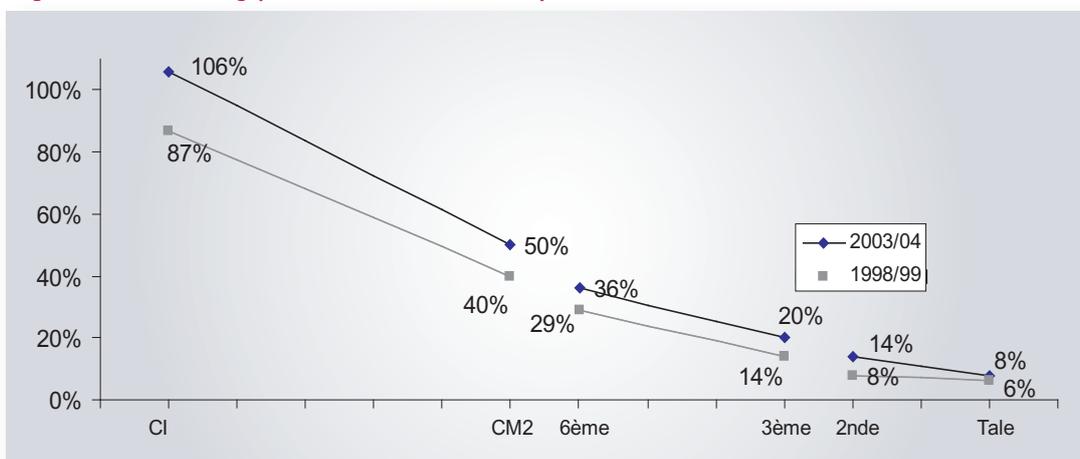
Knowing that for a given budget the more spent on enrolling children the lower the resources available per student, and vice versa, every education system treads the fine line that allows a balance between quantity and spending per child. In comparative terms, the Benin education system, with a unit cost of 11% of GDP per capita, also falls within the average for African countries, even if the best performing countries in terms of universal enrollment register a relatively lower unit cost, which allows them to enroll more children.

What makes up the unit cost?

The unit cost is composed of three major elements: teacher salaries (the main expense in all systems), other expenses (salaries of non-teaching staff, educational materials, administration etc.) and the teacher ratio (the fewer the students per teacher, the greater the cost of that teacher). There is considerable

variation from one country to another in this distribution of costs. The Benin example shows: i) a teacher salary level (3.6 units of GDP per capita) and a teacher/student ratio (52 students per teacher on average) that is close to the African average, and ii) spending, except for

Figure 1: Schooling profile: % of children by level of education



Source: Authors' own calculation based on United Nations national education and population statistics.

salaries, that is greater than elsewhere (42% of total current spending whereas the average found in the best performing countries is around 25%).

Regarding salaries for teachers, the averages should not be allowed to mask the disparities between the different teacher categories; while regular state employees receive an average salary worth 4.8 times the per capita GDP, contractual teachers receive 3 GDP units per person and community teachers only 1.5. This information suggests the need to revise policies on salaries and recruitment in the interests of a long-term strategy for a sustainable budget to support career development and merit promotions based on student learning achievement.

Is enrolling all children by 2015 realistic or idealistic?

What does realizing universal education involve?

- Ensuring a balance between resources and expenditures

The present low completion rate is the result, among other things, of a balance between available resources and the distribution of spending (arbitrage). Whether this balance is deliberate (and planned in the framework of sectoral policy) or unexpected (resulting from the system's self-adjustant), it will always be present. Even if it is difficult to foresee the future and especially to measure the risks inherent in implementing a 10-year program, it is possible—and neces-

sary—to assess at least how realistic the goal of universal education is in the light of this financial equilibrium.

Given the constraints and margins identified earlier, what structural changes (resources and expenditures) would allow the system to achieve a nationally sustainable balance and also close to 100% enrollment? The two scenarios proposed (see table) answer this question by assuming 100% enrollment (or nearly 100%) on the condition that the hypotheses hold true until 2015.

- If resources available to education are increased

Beninois and international macro-economists (IMF) foresee a possibility of slightly increasing the rate of fiscal pressure (from 16 to 17% between now and 2015), which would liberate additional resources for the government. It is also expected that in the framework of the 10-year program beginning with the 2006 school year, that there will be a slight increase in budgetary priority accorded to education (from 23 to 24% between now and 2015).

- If there is a decrease in the relative share of non-salary expenditures

As already discussed, the share of non-salary expenditures is particularly high in Benin. While it is not appropriate to revise spending on teaching materials (fewer than one out of two pupils has their own reading and mathematics textbook), the rationalization of spending for non-teaching staff (to bring spending back to 33% of current outlays, as pro-

posed in the Fast Track Initiative indicative framework), would help improve the very high teacher/student ratio by : i) reallocating qualified teachers away from other tasks and back into the classroom and ii) liberating some funding for recruiting new teachers.

- If there is a drastic reduction in numbers of pupils who repeat a grade or abandon school entirely

The gains in efficiency necessary for achieving UPE must come through a significant reduction in repeat rates. The Ministry of Education is aware of this need, and has decided to implement, in the framework of the 10-year program, a strategy (to include sub-cycles during which repeating is not allowed) aimed at lowering the proportion of repeats to 10% by 2015 – a value reflected in the simulations from Table 1.

Taken together these measures (scenario 1) would provide the financial balance needed to ensure universal primary education by 2015 under reasonable learning conditions (45 pupils per teacher on average). Stimulating the private sector in order to increase the proportion of students enrolled in private schools from 13 to 20% (scenario 2) would finance a further decrease in the number of students per teacher (down to 40) by 2015.

- Improving the student retention rate within the cycle

Improving the retention rate of students is another essential prerequisite. Obviously, if students are to complete

Table 1 : Available resources and how the education budget is divided up in Benin

		Current situation	2015 Scenario 1	2015 Scenario 2
Context	School age population (as % of total)	17%	17%	17%
	Government resources (as % GDP)	16%	17%	17%
Inter-sectorial trade-offs	Education's share of government resources	23%	24%	24%
Intra-sectorial trade-offs	Primary schools's share of education spending	50%	50%	50%
Policies / Spending	Teacher/student ratio	52	45	40
	Average teacher salary (in per capita GDP)	3,6	3,6	3,6
	Non-teacher salary expenditures (as %)	42%	33%	33%
	% of repeats	22%	10%	10%
	% of students in private education	13%	13%	20%
Results	Primary school completion rate	50%	100%	98%

Source: calculated by the authors from data in the 10-year plan.

Overproduction of tertiary graduates in Benin

The flow of students between cycles needs to be controlled

Benin is, and will remain for the next 20 years, a dual economy characterized by i) agricultural and informal sectors that employ the majority of people and ii) a modern sector that is more productive but only employs only a small part of the population. It is important, therefore, to have a human capital development strategy that can answer to both the informal and formal sectors of the economy. Basic education (especially primary) is a highly pertinent investment for developing the traditional sector, whereas higher education and technical and vocational training are necessary for developing a modern economy. International experiences also show that production of human capital must be a function of market-driven demand, both in terms of quantity and quality; above a certain threshold, increases in trained manpower are transformed into increases in the number of unemployed wasting public funds.

In Benin's case there is a flagrant overproduction of tertiary diplomas in relationship to the economy's ability to absorb them. During the last decade the number of students has tripled. In parallel, the share of education expenditure for tertiary students has increased from 19 to 22%. Thus, some control over the flow of students into the workplace is certainly necessary. This is probably not possible only at entry to higher education, since the baccalaureat diploma cannot accomplish this alone. The lycee can play its role by clearly controlling access to a desirable level of entry into higher education, on the one hand, and by insisting education be modernized, on the other.

« Colleges » have also expanded greatly (the number of students in public institutions has grown from 66,000 students to 208,000 in ten years), but the evolution has not been controlled: 72% of students in CM2 gain entry to college (as compared to 50% on average in comparable countries). Resources available for secondary education have not kept up with growth, thus leading to: i) decreasing numbers of teachers, and ii) the need to use colleges to recruit temporary teaching staff who have now become a majority. It is now imperative to improve teaching conditions, and it would probably be wise to retain educational quality in colleges before thinking about expanding them. It would also be useful to promote the establishment of other training institutions (modeled on community efforts) for a larger share of primary school graduates who cannot accede to regular colleges.

Based on: A. Mingat, Eléments de synthèse de l'étude : le système béninois, performances et espaces d'amélioration pour la politique éducative, World Bank, 2004

↳ Continued from page 23

the cycle, they must not abandon their studies along the way. Actions are needed to see that schools are able to offer a complete cycle (some 11% of pupils are enrolled in a school that doesn't allow local access to the full cycle) and to see that strategies promoting enrollment among least-favored populations are adopted or strengthened.

How can quality be improved?

However, even if these actions ensure us of the financial feasibility of such reforms and an improvement in teaching conditions, they don't guarantee a result in terms of improved student retention of learning. Studies in Benin have shown that investments in textbook and professional training for teachers are among the most cost-effective elements for improving quality. Yet the poor results achieved by schools (as measured by the average success rate on end-of-cycle

examinations) demonstrate that the link between learning conditions and learning achievement is very weak. Resources may be important, but the ability to transform them into good results with the support of the local communities counts more towards achieving quality education for all.▶

1 The access rate to C1 (106%) add up to more than 100% because of access of

several cohorts of children to school at the same time. Le taux d'accès au C1 (106%) est supérieur à 100% du fait de l'accès simultané à l'école de plusieurs cohortes d'enfants

2 The correlation coefficient is a statistical indicator for measuring the degree of coherence between two variables. It ranges from 0 to 1. The closer it is to 1, the more attention is being paid to allocating more teachers to schools having more students.

For more information, please contact :

Mathieu BROSSARD
Analyste des politiques éducatives
Pôle d'Analyse Sectorielle Education de Dakar (Pôle de Dakar)
UNESCO-BREDA / France – Ministère des Affaires Etrangères
mathieu.brossard@poledakar.org

@

Joseph AHANHANZO
Former director of planning for the Ministère des Enseignements primaire et secondaire. Education consultant for Danish Cooperation (DANIDA)
Bénin josaha@um.dk

Education in Mauritius

by Ibrahima Bah Lalya, WGESA Coordinator

Three African countries¹ (Gabon, Mauritius and Nigeria) decided to engage in an educational peer review exercise in 2005. Here, the WGESA, which is responsible for implementing the project, presents a summary of the first completed peer review on Mauritius.

As implemented with support from the Working Group on Education Sector Analysis (WGESA) Peer Reviews are designed to be more field oriented and respond more directly to country needs than traditional approaches, providing more effective ownership at the national level. They also offer a means to foster South-South cooperation and build implementation capacity. ADEA and WGESA have worked together to align the exercise with NEPAD's Peer Review evaluation of good governance that is already underway in several African countries. The Peer Review exercise facilitates public debate on key policy reforms regarding education and encourages international partners to invest more deeply in the education systems evaluated. It gives a legitimacy to programs being reviewed as its recommendations are validated by top-notch experts representing a variety of countries and backgrounds.

The Mauritius peer review

Mauritius was the first country to participate in the review exercise. As of early 2000, it had initiated a large-scale reform focusing on the following:

- Increasing access and streamlining flow;
- Facilitating the transition process from one level to the other;
- Providing remedial education for those who failed and bringing them back to school without stigmatizing them;

- Improving the quality of teaching and learning;
- Providing compulsory free education up to the age of 16; and
- Facilitating enrollment and attendance.

The peer review process was implemented using an African-led team of experts from seven different countries. Sound experience in policy formulation and a strong record in program implementation were among the main criteria for selection. The approach emphasized collegiality and full national participation at all stages; it ran public debates to discuss both the process and its findings; and to disseminate the outcomes and recommendations as a way of sustaining public debates on the reform.

Major findings

In primary education, the bottleneck upon completion has barely improved despite the measures implemented by the government and other stakeholders. Thirty to forty percent of all children still fail the Primary Education Certificate exam each year. One of the most noticeable side effects of this poor attainment is the development of private tutoring, which undermines mainstream education and puts the poor at a disadvantage. It was also found that the curriculum is too academic and the medium of instruction does not help solve the language problem: English is the medium of learning and the language of the privileged, French, the language of prestige and culture, while Mauritian Creole is the day-to-day medium of communication.

In secondary education, many reform initiatives overlap. Most problems seem to stem from the primary level—such problems include the language issue, effects of rote learning and the exam culture, high CPE failures, automatic promotions, overloaded curricula.

In addition, the “U” curve stratification is reinforced in secondary with a high rate of repetition and dropout. In many cases, competition persists despite all the reform initiatives to end the “Rat Race” for the few national university scholarships available at the end of secondary.

One of the solutions advocated through the reform was the creation of a prevocational stream. But this approach is accompanied by its own problems as it tends to develop parallel education systems with one for achievers, another for failures.

In tertiary education, the demand for access to education is still a major challenge despite considerable achievement by public and private institutions. Also, the disconnect with other streams is still a problem. Intra and inter-policy coherence should be a requirement throughout the system—pre-primary / primary / secondary / tertiary.

Recommendations were grouped under five headings:

- Broadening the base of participation in the reform process;
- Developing a systemic approach to the reform;
- Tackling some fundamental policy issues, especially those regarding language, exams, vocational education, disparities resulting from different socioeconomic levels, extra-tutoring, and student performance;
- Integrating tertiary education into the reform process; and
- Improving methods and management of the reforms.

The way forward

The Mauritian Peer Review exercise is almost completed and a first draft report has been prepared. This document will go through a national validation process during July 2006, and 18 months later will be followed by a review of recommendations' impact. ▸

1. Fourteen countries were candidates for the peer review exercise. Three (Gabon, Mauritius, Nigeria) were selected.

For further information, contact:



Ibrahima Bah Lalya,
i.bah-lalya@iiep.unesco.org

The Association of African Universities (AAU)

The Networking of African higher education institutions for the renewal of the African university

The Association of African Universities (AAU) was founded in November 1967 at a conference in Rabat, Morocco. Its genesis was due to the vision of 34 public universities and followed earlier consultations with executive heads of African universities at a UNESCO conference on higher education in Africa in Antananarivo, Madagascar, in 1962 and another conference of heads of African universities in 1963 in Khartoum, Sudan. The AAU is an international nongovernmental organization, which serves as the principal forum for consultation and exchange of information and cooperation among higher education institutions in Africa.

From its modest beginnings, the AAU currently has 195 members from 44 African countries, cutting across the five sub-regions and the major linguistic groupings and the educational traditions in Africa, with Arabic, English and French as its official languages. As a continental body coordinating higher education programs and initiatives in Africa, the AAU is credited with a unique capacity to convene African university leaders from all parts of the continent to reflect and consult on key issues affecting higher education in Africa. Many AAU programs and activities, including publications, have sought to assess, enhance or share the contributions of the African higher education community to the development of their countries and the continent.

Headquartered in Accra, Ghana, the Association must hold a General Conference, which convenes every four years and the Conference of Rectors, Vice Chancellors and Presidents (COREVIP), which meets every other year and which, in addition to scientific work, receives reports from

the Executive Board. The Executive Board meets annually and serves as the key policy-making, monitoring and evaluation body, and provides direction and feedback to the Secretariat, which has primary responsibility for overseeing the development and implementation of programs and activities as well as the management of the finances of the Association.

As a means of ensuring coherent and efficient use of human, material and financial resources, the AAU, in the discharge of its mandate, develops Core Program Activities every four years providing the framework within which the Association's partners can support its work in a coordinated and effective way. Core Programs take due cognizance of trends and developments in higher education on the continent specifically and in higher education globally.

The 11th General Conference of the Association, held in Cape Town, South Africa, in February 2005 adopted the Core Program (2005-09), building on the Association's Strategic Plan (2003-2010) under the banner "Networking African Higher Education Institutions for the Renewal of the African University". Specific areas of the Core Program are:

- study program on higher education management in Africa;
- networking in graduate training and research; quality assurance;
- gender and higher education in Africa;
- staff exchange and academic mobility;
- leadership development in higher education;
- leadership and management research;
- using information and communication technology to enhance teaching,

learning, research and management, curriculum responsiveness;

- improving access to African scholarly work and expertise; and
- mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS.

The AAU Strategic Plan seeks to build on the Association's comparative advantage as the only continent-wide body of higher education institutions in Africa with over 30 years of experience in promoting co-operation and providing services to members. These include:

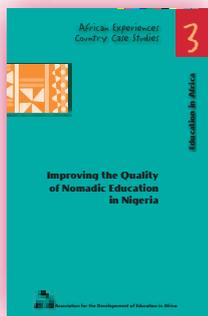
- authority to speak on behalf of the African higher education community;
- convening power to bring together the leadership of African higher education on a regular basis and for special purposes;
- access to key decision-makers in higher education and, more broadly, within the education sector;
- reaching to bring together under one umbrella higher education institutions from Northern Africa and sub-Saharan Africa including South Africa (from the Anglophone, Francophone and Lusophone traditions);
- networking of institutions and scholars for information gathering and sharing across geographic, political, linguistic and cultural borders;
- partnership experience in procuring and managing grants and agreements with multilateral and bilateral development partners; and
- institutional infrastructure of a Secretariat managed by a small group of experienced professional international and local staff.

A significant proportion of the Association's funding comes from membership subscriptions, and is supplemented by grants from its development partners, income from publications and services, as well as grants from some African Governments-particularly, the host country Ghana, which provides tax waivers and accommodation for the Secretariat and the Secretary-General. ▀



**For further information, contact:
Association of African Universities,
P. O. Box 5744, Accra-North,
Ghana. Tel: +233-21-774495/
761588 Fax: +233-21-774821
e-mail: info@aau.org**

Improving the Quality of Nomadic Education in Nigeria



Improving the Quality of Nomadic Education in Nigeria: Going Beyond Access and Equity. A study conducted by the Federal Ministry of Education of Nigeria ADEA, 2005. ISBN: 92-9178-054-5. African Experiences—Country Case Studies

This publication describes efforts to provide basic education to 3.1 million school-age children of the nomadic people of Nigeria, comprising migrant communities who make their living

by tending cattle, sheep and goats and also fishing. Prior to these interventions, the enrollment rate of nomads in formal and non-formal education was very low, and the illiteracy rate was between 0.2% and 2.0%.

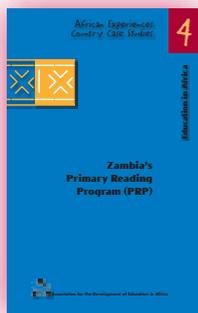
The Nomadic Education Program (NEP), designed to give nomads unhindered access to quality basic education, is carried out by Nigeria's National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE). NCNE has developed relevant curricula, teaching methods and materials, created new materials using local languages, provided suitable facilities for the nomads including mobile, quick-assembly classrooms, motorboat schools as well as permanent school buildings. Furthermore, NEP schools have flex-

ible academic calendars and hours that suit the learners. It is also building awareness in the various target communities and empowering its members to take responsibility for educating their children.

The study gives an account of the goals targeted, strategies employed and results obtained pertaining to a number of initiatives including teacher training, curriculum adaptation, the design of new teaching material using local languages, and the provision of suitable learning facilities.

The study was prepared within the framework of ADEA's study on improving the quality of education in sub-Saharan Africa.

Zambia's Primary Reading Program (PRP): Improving Access and Quality Education in Basic Schools



Zambia's Primary Reading Program (PRP): Improving Access and Quality Education in Basic Schools. By K. Sampa. ADEA, 2005. ISBN : 92-9178-055-3. African Experiences—Country Case Studies

The study is about the Zambia Primary Reading Program (PRP), which uses a variety of approaches to teaching literacy. These include Zambian New Breakthrough to Literacy, which

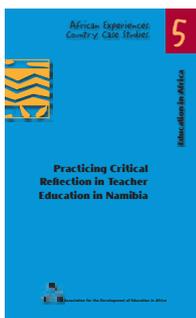
uses the seven local languages to teach initial literacy skills in Grade 1; Step In To English, an English literacy course that builds on the Grade 1 work; Oral English Pathway in Grades 1 and 2; and the Read On course, which develops reading and writing in English and Zambian languages in Grades 3-7.

Teachers are equipped with teachers' guides, and each class is supplied with a kit containing pupils' books and charts. Continuous assessment procedures are built into the courses, and a monitoring system helps teachers support one another and get external support. Cross-cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS, gender and life skills are included in the reading materials.

Reading and writing tests conducted in 1999 before the program started and repeated in 2002 show encouraging results. Generally the reading levels of pupils in Grades 1 and 2 have improved from 30% to 68%. Children are able to read at two grades above their expected grades in local Zambian languages and at their appropriate grades in English.

The PRP has been rolled out from pilot stage to covering the whole country. It has been built into every level of the ministry's system. The ministry also has a financial plan for sustaining the program after international assistance terminates.

Practicing Critical Reflection in Teacher Education in Namibia



Practicing Critical Reflection in Teacher Education in Namibia. Research coordinated by: The National Institute for Educational Development (NIED): Namibia ADEA, 2005. ISBN : 92-9178-058-8. African Experiences—Country Case Studies.

This case study describes how critical reflection has been used in three teacher education programs in Namibia. The first program, the

pre-service Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD) program, uses a critical inquiry approach through students completing action research projects. The second program, the in-service BETD program, uses a practice-based inquiry model. In the third program, the ministry uses a school and teacher self-assessment system of reflective practice in schools in four regions of northern Namibia. These schools are part of the ministry's school improvement program (SIP).

There is evidence that critical inquiry has influenced the classroom practice of some BETD graduates and is providing them with skills that

they apply in their teaching. Teachers reflect critically on their own practice. In the so-called SIP schools, it has also been found that there is a positive relationship between teachers' self-assessment scores and outside observers' scores on their performance. However, this happens gradually, as teachers gain confidence and reflective skills through the process of self-assessment.

ADEA Activities

January 2006

19 - 21

Meeting of the WGECD Steering Committee
Working Group on Early Childhood Development (WGECD)
Maputo, Mozambique

February 2006

27-28

Third meeting of the WGDEOL Technical Committee
Working Group on Distance Education and Open Learning (WGDEOL)
Mauritius

March 2006

27 - 31

ADEA Biennial Meeting
Libreville, Gabon
ADEA Secretariat

May 2006

18-19

WGPD Workshop
Ad Hoc Working Group on Policy Dialogue (WGPD)
Paris, France

25-26

WGTP Steering Committee Working Group on the Teaching Profession (WGTP)
Nairobi, Kenya

29-31

WGMSE Steering Committee Working Group on Mathematics and Science Education (WGMSE)
Dakar, Senegal

29 May-1 June

WGESA Steering Committee and Formative Research Seminar Working Group on Education Sector Analysis (WGESA)
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Other Activities

January 2006

21-24

Extraordinary meeting of ministers of education of the African Union to adopt the new Decade of Education AU
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

February 2006

6-10

International conference on accreditation, quality assurance and recognition of qualifications in higher education
UNESCO/OECD
Nairobi, Kenya

March 2006

6 - 10

International conference on Education, violence, conflicts and peace perspectives for Africa
ERNWACA
Cameroon

April 2006

25-26

Education and economic development in Africa
Canadian Council for Africa
Montreal, Canada

May 2006

16-18

Conference on national policies: the role of transboundary and minority languages in Western Africa
UNESCO and ACALAN (Académie Africaine des Langues)
Bamako, Mali

24-25

First World Conference on ICTs for Development
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

27 May-2 June

52nd Ministerial Session of CONFEMEN on school management
Niger Ministry of Education/CONFEMEN
Niamey, Niger

June 2006

13-15

Higher Education at the heart of development strategies in Francophone Africa
Association of Francophone Universities (AUF), the Rectors of Universities in Francophone Africa and the Indian Ocean (CRUAFI), the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, World Bank Institute, Ministry of Education of Burkina Faso
Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso



ADEA Newsletter

Association for the Development of Education in Africa

Quarterly Newsletter published by ADEA

Please address all correspondence to:

The Editor, ADEA Newsletter
Association for the Development of
Education in Africa

7-9 rue Eugène-Delacroix,
75116 Paris, France

Tel: +33 (0)14503 7757

Fax: +33 (0)14503 3965

E-mail: adea@iiep.unesco.org

web site: www.adeanet.org

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