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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE: IMPLICATIONS FOR INTER-

AFRICAN COOPERATION IN EDUCATION, 1961-1979

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
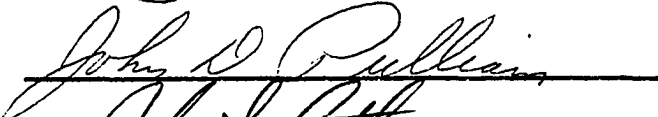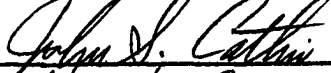
BY

GASHAW WEYNESHET LAKE

Norman, Oklahoma

1981

THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE: IMPLICATIONS FOR INTER-

AFRICAN COOPERATION IN EDUCATION, 1961-1979

A DISSERTATION

APPROVED BY:

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ABSTRACT

In the 1960's, many African nations achieved political independence. With political independence came mounting problems of national security, economic stability, and attempts at achieving modernization in a relatively short period of time. With these problems also arose the problem of achieving cultural and racial identity in a world of rapidly changing values and ideas.

Conceived as the most vital and most important technique in providing solutions to these problems was education. The African peoples decided that education was the key toward solving many of the problems confronting the African nations at independence. The other technique they resorted to once they decided that in education lay the common salvation to their problems was the interregional conference that would furnish a common organization toward achieving common goals. The interregional organization that they formed with the support and assistance of many other groups and nations was the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, otherwise known as the Addis Ababa Conference. It was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia from May 15-25, 1960.

Although the Conference was not an original idea, it was the first occasion in Africa which dealt with educational programs, progress, needs, and problems of middle Africa as a whole. It was recognized as the first effort to locate and examine the problems of African education on a continental basis, to identify those problems, and to devise ways and means of dealing with them.

This study investigates the following issues: First, what were the motivations or reasons of the African states in organizing the conference? Second, what was the basic philosophy of the conference as it related to education? Third, how did the conference translate that philosophy into targets and objectives which in turn were transformed into public policies by the respective members of the conference to be implemented by government agencies in each member country? Fourth, what were the achievements of the member states of the conference insofar as they related to conference targets and objectives? Fifth and last, what are the prospects of the conference for the coming years?

The Addis Ababa conference provided the initiative for African nations to act in concert in attempt to meet problems of common concern in education. It provided a common forum for the discussion of educational problems as well as providing opportunities for the development of mutual respect and understanding among peoples

who though living on the same continent had been separated by different educational systems, political institutions and cultural traditions as a result of colonialism. It provided a common ground for collective thinking on the new trends and factors which were affecting the African countries as a group. It also drew the attention of the developed countries to the eudcational needs of Africa. The conference has to be realistically viewed as the individual effort of each country in the development and use of its own natural and human resources as well as the utilization of any assistance received from outside sources. The conference may well provide concrete evidence to the philosophy that the problems of humanity can well be solved by human beings involved in the peaceful pursuit of an education that will benefit the human race as a whole.

DEDICATION

To my late father, Lt.Col.Workalemahu
Teklehymnote, my mother Weyneshet Yemer
and my brother Samson.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I cannot name all my Ethiopian countrymen who gave moral and material assistance to me during the crucial stages of the writing of this manuscript.

My wife, Leyouwork Makonnen, gave me the love, the inspiration, and the courage to write this study. Her patience is beyond praise.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Until 1960, people thought of Africa in terms of darkness. The

popular cliche is to call the continent "darkest Africa." Now there

is a tremendous upheaval in Africa--a monumental social revolution

is in the making. In Africa, the nations are now engaged in a strug-

gle to push back the darkness that had so long dominated the lives

of the African people.

The leaders of the African people believe that education is the

key to a better quality of life, in achieving modernization, and in lay-

ing the foundations of a highly technological and industrial society,

enabling them at the same time to discover their identity as a people

without forsaking or rejecting the cultural traditions of their ancestors.

This belief of the African leaders is expressed in the organization

and operation of the Conference of Ministers of Education on the

Development of Education, which was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopa in

1961.

The Conference is also described as an expression of a philoso-
phy of education as well as an organization that seeks to translate a
philosophy of education trhough practice: first, by providing a model
for educational planning that the various African member states may
use in the formulation of their respective public policies dealing with
education; second, by the actual implementation of that public policy
by each of the African member states in their respective jurisdictions
through assistance rendered by international organizations interested
in national development and planning.

The specific purpose of the Conference was stated as follows:

> . . . to provide a forum for African States to decide on
> their priority educational needs, to promote economic
> and social development in Africa and, in the light of
> these, to establish a first tentative short-term and long-
> term plan for educational development in the Continent,
> embodying the priorities they had decided upon for the
> economic growth of the region. . . . The program they
> were to establish for Africa was to conform to the quanti-
> tative targets and qualitative changes that they decided
> should be achieved by each of the countries.[1]

The Conference of African States on the Development of Education
in Africa, otherwise known as the Addis Ababa Conference, was held in
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia from May 15 to 25, 1961. It was convened in res-

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[1]Final Report, Unesco ECA 181, Addis Ababa: May 15-25, 1961.
UNESCO & ECA, 1961, P. V.

ponse to resolution 1.2322 which was adopted by the General Conference

of Unesco at its eleventh session. The General Conference decided

> . . . to convene a conference of African States in 1961
> with a view to establishing an inventory of educational
> needs and a programme to meet those needs in the
> coming years, and to invite the United Nations, the
> other Specialized Agencies, and the International
> Atomic Agency to cooperate with Unesco in the pre-
> paration and organization of the Conference.[2]

Invitations were sent to the Specialized Agencies of the United

Nations and the International Atomic Energy Agency and to the follow-

ing countries: Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Belgium, Cameroun, Central

African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville),

Dahomey, Ethiopia, France, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast,

Kenya, Liberia, Libya, Malagasy Republic, Mali, Mauritania, Mauri-

tius, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Portugal, Rhodesia and Nyasaland,

Ruanda-Urundi, Senegal, Sierra Leona, Somalia, Southern Cameroon,

Spain, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanganyika, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Union

of South Africa, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, Upper Volta, and

Zanzibar. Invitations to send observers were also sent to non-African

States and Associate members of UNESCO as well as the Holy See, in-

ternational or regional intergovernmental organizations having Member

States in Africa or programs covering Africa, international non-govern-

mental organizations having consultative arrangements with UNESCO and

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[2]Ibid. 1, P.V.

private foundations working in Africa.

The Conference brought together 39 governments as participants, 24 governments as observers, 10 United Nations agencies, and 24 international non-governmental organizations under the chairmanship of the Hon. A. J. Dowuona Hammond, Minister of Education and Welfare, Ghana.

The purpose of the Conference was to provide a forum for African states to decide on priority educational needs to promote economic and social development in Africa. The Conference established for Africa for the period 1960-1980 an inventory of needs and priorities and a set of short and long-term targets in education as follows:

a. Needs. The needs indicated covered all levels and types of education:

1. Finances for salaries
2. School buildings and salaries, supply and equipment of classrooms
3. Production and distribution of suitable textbooks
4. Provision of trained teachers at the various levels
5. New orientation of curriculum to provide for technical and vocational education and technological training
6. Development and popularization of girls' education
7. Expansion and improvement of facilities in higher education
8. Promotion of adult education to enable the adults to understand the social and technical changes taking place in Africa
9. Realistic and effective planning of education as part of the overall national planning for economic and social development

b. Priorities. Using costs as a consideration, the African coun-
tries found it necessary to give priority to secondary education, curri-
culum reform, and teacher training as basic requirements for a balanced
educational program. The participants accepted the above to be closely
related to improvement in the rate of social and economic growth.

c. Educational Targets. The Addis Ababa Conference set the
targets for a short-term plan (1960-1965) and a long-term plan (1960-
1980) with the main features as follows:

Primary education

a. Duration of primary schooling remains unchanged
b. An annual increase of an additional 5 per cent of
   age group entering primary school.
c. Wastage at 10 per cent each year during the
   primary cycle.
d. Average pupil-teacher ratio between 40 and
   45.
e. Ten per cent of the teachers should have received
   second level education followed by three years of
   general and professional training; 45 per cent
   should have received primary schooling followed
   by four years of professional training; the remainder
   should have gone through the primary school fol-
   lowed by two years of professional training.
f. Provision of primary school inspectors reaching
   one for every 5,000 pupils.

Second-level education

a. Ratio of enrolment at the second level of
   education to that at the first level to rise

to 12 per cent. (This target was revised in
the light of the new base-year data to pro-
vide for a rise from 5.7 per cent to 10.4 per
cent by 1965).

b. Second-level enrolment of the age group to
increase from 3 per cent in 1960 to 9 per cent
in 1965.

c. Emphasis to be placed on the expansion of
enrolment in vocational, technical, and
teacher training institutions.

Third-level education

a. Enrolment to increase from 0.2 per cent in
1960 to 3.5 per cent in 1965 in Middle Africa
and from 3.37 per cent in 1960 to 4.10 per
cent in Northern Africa.

b. Decrease of students abroad from 51 per cent in
1960 to 49 per cent by 1965 in respect of Middle
Africa and from 6.2 per cent in 1960 to 5.2 per
cent by 1965 in respect of Northern Africa.

c. Shift in favour of scientific and technological
studies from 41.6 per cent in 1960 to 43.3 per
cent by 1965 in Middle Africa and from 38.4
per cent to 43.4 per cent by 1965 in Northern
Africa.

2. Long-term plan, 1960-1980

a. Primary education to be universal, compulsory
and free.

b. Education at the second level to be provided for
30 per cent of the children completing the primary
education course.

d. Higher education to be provided mostly in Africa
itself to 20 per cent of those completing secondary
education.[3]

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[3]Ibid., P.V.

The Addis Ababa Conference held the idea that education can be
a gainful economic investment in that human development for which it
provides makes for the effective use of the resources, both human and
natural of the community for its social and economic progress. This
philosophy, at the time of the Conference, was already recognized by
many international financing organizations, specially the Special
Fund Component of the United Nations Development Program.

The Conference was the first occasion dealing with the educa-
tional progress, needs, and problems of middle Africa as a whole.
A regional plan of educational development for the attainment of the
objective was agreed upon by the Conference. It was the first effort
to locate and examine the problems of African education on a continental
basis, to identify those problems which could be regarded as basic and
of wide currency, and to devise ways and means of dealing with them.
The Conference also provide the following situations of intrinsic value
to the African countries in their joint effort to achieve overall social
and economic development:

1. Through the Conference, all the English and French-
    speaking countries of Africa were provided a common
    forum for discussing their educational problems

2.. The Conference offered opportunities for the develop-
    ment of mutual respect and understanding among
    these people who, though living on the same con-
    tinent, had been separated by different educational
    systems, political institutions, and cultural traditions
    as a result of colonialism.

3. The Conference drew the attention of the developed
countries to the educational needs of Africa and led
to a desire on the part of these countries to assist
Africa in dealing with these needs.

Several conferences were held in different countries in later

years examining the achievements of the Conference in quantitative

terms. Although there are certainly obvious and possible advantages

which could be derived from inter-African cooperation in educational

thought and practice, the benefits of the whole concept should be

viewed with some caution. The usefulness of the Conference should

be viewed from the perspective of the respective success or failure of

each member African state as it develops and uses its human and

natural resources with some assistance from external sources as they

attempt to meet the objectives and targets of the Conference.

This investigation undertakes to answer the following questions:

First, what were the motivations or reasons of the African states

in organizing the Conference?

Second, what is the basic philosophy of the Conference as it

relates to education?

Third, how did the Conference translate that philosophy into tar-

gets and objectives of the Conference, which were in turn converted

into into public policy by the member African states for implementation

by their respective governmental agencies?

Fourth, what did the African states of the Conference achieve

since 1961 to 1980?

Fifth, what are the prospects of the Conference for the coming years considering its basic philosophy and the performance of the member African states in meeting the targets of the Conference?

The investigation will principally cover the period between 1961 and 1979. There will be some discussion, however, of the historical background of educational development in Africa in order to properly c reate a perspective of the problems facing the African nations.

Primary documents consisting of official documents of the Conference itself, of the various conferences devoted to evaluating the performance of the respective member African states, government publications dealing with the Conference and the efforts of the member African states in meeting the targets of the Conference, and publications of Unesco and other UN agencies directly participating with the Conference form the core of this study. Resort will also be made to newspapers, books, pamphlets, books, and journals.

The study is historical, descriptive, and analytical in nature.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN AFRICA

Africa, like other parts of the world, is a continent where most

people traditionally acquired their skills, knowledge, and attitudes

from institutions other than formal schools. Education for life was

part of the community life of the tribe in which the young generation

was prepared for its roles in society through organized patterns and

systematic instruction.[1]

Before the arrival of the European missionaries as evangels

of the Christian faith and pioneers of modern civilization, African

children were dependent upon their elders to pass on to them the tribal

mores, laws and customs. The task of imparting the ideals of the

past to their posterity was held as a sacred duty by the parents, for

in this way they prevented tribal misfits and kept alive the traditions

of the past.

The origins of most of the tribes in Africa is involved in obscurity.

Since the people have been unlettered and the languages unwritten until

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[1]Rose T. Watson, "African Educational System: A Comparative
Approach," U.S. National Institute of Education, 1976, p. 10.

recent years, all that is known of their past history is from traditions

which have been carefully handed down from generation to generation.

As A. Victor Murray points out in his book, The School in the Bush:

> A fact of primary importance in African education is
> that outside Egypt there is nowhere any indigenous
> history. There is tribal memory, of course; there
> are the elders who stand on the old ways and who "know
> the law; there is that deposit of tradition and religion
> which is handed on to the young in the initiation cere-
> monies; but there is no history in our sense. There
> has been no written language, no records. The his-
> tory of African people with which they have been asso-
> ciated in African history has always been "foreign his-
> tory."[2]

The whole of primitive social life revolves around the unity of the

tribe, and the chief, who incarnates in himself the authority of the

tribe, is regarded as a semi-sacred character in some groups. He is

assisted by a council of old men who remember the past and in whose

living memories the dead live again.[3]

Not only past tribal history, but also highly desirable morals and

truths are early passed on to the young by this method. The reciter of

tales, however, is not to be confused with the king's narrator of the

national traditions, for he is not attached to the king or paramount chief

but wanders from place to place reciting his tales to both old and youg.

Very often the professional storyteller uses a drum, the rhythm of which

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[2]A. Victor Murray, The School in the Bush (London: Frank Cass & Company, Limited, 1967), p. 19.

[3]Ibid., p. 39.

fills up the pauses in the narrative.[4]

The significance of the folk tales in African life cannot be exaggerated.

> Their folks tales give the only authentic picture
> of their past. Symbols and personified objects
> and animals speak to each new generation the
> ideas which the groups have found significant;
> ideas about health, home, agriculture, crafts,
> and social and individual life. To primitive
> people folk tale is the "prompter's book" in
> the vital drama staged by each social group
> and by each individual.[5]

Albert D. Helser, who has spent a number of years working among the primitive tribes of the North, speaks of how he had difficulty at first in gaining entrance to the fireside circle where the Bura folk tales were recited during the long, quiet hours, but later, when the natives had become accustomed to his personality, he was a welcome guest and had the privilege of listening to the tales told by Africans who are natural orators in their native setting. He was surprised to learn that though the tribe had no written language they had an unusually rich system of culture embodied in their folk tales.[6]

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[4]A. B. Ellis, The Yoruba-Speaking Peoples of the Slave Coast of Africa, Their Religion, Manners, Customs, Laws, Language, Etc. (London: Chapman and Hall, 1894), p. 11.

[5]Albert D. Helser, Education of Primitive People (New York: Revell Co., 1934), p. 29.

[6]Ibid., p. 9.

It was a surprise to learn quite small boys and girls
had a rather clear idea of the socially desirable ends
which had been taught and emphasized through the
folk tales which had been passed on by word of mouth.
The most respected women of each community had as-
sumed the responsibility of passing on the culture of
the tribe by telling stories to the younger children in
the evening time. The older children carried on by
reciting the stories to one another.[7]

An "evening school" is described by Helser as follows:

We find ourselves by the fireside where the flickering
light draws more and more people as the evening falls
and the conversation brightens.

At the first lull in the conversation someone
is asked to tell a story. School is on, and it usually
lasts two or three hours. Every lesson taught will
have some bearing on what we did today or what we
anticipate tomorrow.[8]

Education in Pre-Colonial Africa

Despite the great ethic diversity of the populations of Sub-Sahara

Africa and the variety in forms of social organization, reflecting dif-

ferences in the level of economic, political and social development

attained before the colonial conquest, one finds in the educational do-

main a certain number of common traits which clearly demonstrate the

cultural unity of the African peoples. Abour Moumouni points out the

essential characteristics of the traditional African education as follows:

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[7]Helser, op. cit.

[8]Ibid., p. 33.

1. The great importance which is attached to it, and
   its collective and social nature.

2. Its intimate tie with social life, both in a material
   and spiritual sense.

3. Its multivalent character, both in terms of its goals
   and the means employed.[9]

Indigenous African Education

Indigenous African education is essentially "education for living".

It is largely informal. Its main purpose is to train the youth for adult-

hood within the society. Thus, education has no fixed venues such

as the classroom or the laboratory.[10] It can be found anywhere in the

village or town--in the home, the farm, the sacred shrines or the mar-

ketplace. Furthermore, there is no separate class of persons to whom

such education is exclusively entrusted. In a sense, every adult is

a teacher, although the more specialized forms of training are tradi-

tionally entrusted to older members of the family circle, the village

elders, the senior ranks of the secret societies, the craftsmen and the

diviners. Since part of this education is also received within the home,

the span of training encompasses all the years from birth to post-adoles-

cense.[11]

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[9]Abour Moumouni, Education in Africa (New York: Frederick A.
Praeger, 1968), p. 15.

[10]Ibid.

[11]Ibid., p. 65.

The true essense of indigenous education is captured in the following passage:

> The fact that pre-colonial Africa did not have "schools"
> --except for short period of initiation in some tribes--
> did not mean that the children were not educated. They
> learned by living and doing. In the homes and on the
> farms they were taught the skills of the society, and the
> behavior expected of its members. They learned which
> kinds of grasses were suitable for which purposes, the
> work which had to be done on the crops, or the care
> which had to be given to animals, by joining with their
> elders in this work. They learned tribal history, and
> the tribe's relationship with other tribes and with the
> spirits, by listening to the stories of the elders.
> Through these means, and by the custom of sharing
> to which young people were taught to conform, the
> values of the society were transmitted. Education
> was thus "informal"; every adult was a teacher to a
> greater or lesser degree. But this lack of formality
> did not mean that there was no education, nor did
> it affect is importance to the society. Indeed, it
> has made the education more directly relevant to
> the society in which the child was growing up.[12]

Regardless of the enormous diversity of the various ethnic groups in Africa, one finds in the educational spectrum certain common traits which clearly demonstrate the unity in diversity of the cultures of the African peoples.

Anthropological and ethnographic studies provide some evidence about the social organization structured around educational tasks in several African countries.[13] Traditional institution of schooling was

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[12]Knut Erik Svendsen and Mercke Tisen (eds.), <u>Self-Reliant Tanzania</u> (Dar-es Salaam, 1969), p. 219.

[13]E. Colson, <u>Marriage and Family Among the Plateau Congo</u> (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1958), p. 11.

ritualistic and was organized in connection with the physical changes

which accompany child development and their implications for adult

roles. The transition from childhood to adulthood was marked by

initiation rites which took place in "bush schools" and were secluded

from normal social life. The "students" comprised homogeneous

groups (by age and sex) who were brought together for the last time

before they were separated for marital roles.[14]   A comparison of the

studies of indigenous education showed that the bush school did not

initiate any radical break in the pattern of experience of African chil-

dren. Rather it intensified and deepened all aspects of the group life.[15]

The strength of traditional education lay in facilitating the child's

adjustment to life. A wide circle of relatives surrounded him to give

him sense of security. Teaching techniques in traditional school en-

couraged initiation and retention. The close fit between education and

the social structure constricted opportunities for geographical, occupa-

tional and social mobility.[16] Rather than stimulate rapid changes, tra-

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[14]M. Read, Children of Their Fathers: Growing Up Among the Negoni of Nyasaland (London: Methuen and Company, 1959), p. 167.

[15]M. M. Watkins, "The West African Bush School," American Journal of Sociology, 1943, p. 48.

[16]George Schwab, Tribes of the Liberian Hinderland (Cambridge: Massachusetts, 1947), p. 16.

ditional education preserved the status quo by limiting the degree of

freedom within which rapid innovation and technological changes

could be facilitated.[17]

In West Africa, the bush school reached to its highest peak of

development. Basically, the bush school introduced the young men

to all aspects of social, religious, economic and political forces of

the tribe. Scanlon wrote that:

> The religious aspect was stressed continually through-
> out the experience. It was a means of introducing the
> boy to the power of the spirit world, so that he could
> make maximum use of the spirit world. The importance
> of the ceremony is reflected in the very names given to
> young men at various stages in their development. Be-
> fore entering the bush school they were called "gbolo"
> or image; while undergoing the initiation rite they were
> "bogie" or little spirits in the bush. Upon completing
> the rite they became "kwea" or citizens.[18]

A gbolo boy was considered a child. Thus, he could enjoy no

legal rights so that by the same token was not held responsibile for

his actions. In theory, therefore, this meant that a young man who

failed to go through with initiation rites would be treated as a child.[19]

During the three years of training in the bush school, the boys

learn the best technique in farming and the trades necessary for survival

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[17]S. F. Nadel, _A Black Byzantium, The Kingdom of Nupe in Nigeria_
(London, 1947), p.19.

[18]David G. Scanlon, "The Bush School," _Phi Delta Kappan_
(January, 1960), pp. 143-47.

[19]_Ibid._, p. 144.

and well-being of the village. In helping to build their own huts, the boys were taught the rudimentary ideas of building.

When viewed in retrospect, it appears that the bush school as developed by Western Africans provided an integrated education. It is needless to say that the theoretical was combined with the practical. The bush school was an opportunity for apprentices to be trained in crafts and skills. It taught the history and laws of the people and medicines of the society.

Scanlon notes that the traditional education was dominated by the desire to preserve and to transmit what already existed.

> . . . It fulfilled the needs of a society whose main ambition was not so much to transform itself as to preserve its identity. Identity, such an ambition is obviously different from our own which is characterized essentially by an effort to achieve rapid progress and, consequently, equally rapid change. Thus, what was regarded as fundamental under the traditional system, namely, the transmission of personal knowledge and experience, is no longer sufficient to a considerable degree of prominence must of necessity be given to education defined as the transmission in abstract terms of knowledge and experience acquired not only by the restricted society but by the human race.[20]

Sub-Saharan African traditional education cannot be complete without referring to the East African educational growth. The indigenous traditional education of West Africa lends itself to the Eastern African educational setup. However, with the intent recognition of educational

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[20]Ibid., p. 146.

similarity of the "Bush School" taught especially to Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania and the Nomadic Somalia, the author recognizes and explores the unique educational literary thought of Ethiopia which is the oldest member of the Eastern African countries.

Ethiopia stands alone in the African continent as the only African state to retain its freedom and independence through thousands of years of history except for the brief Fascist Occupation of 1935-41. The social, political and economic development which has taken place since 1897, when Ethiopia reached its present boundaries, has been guided not by modernist but by "traditionalist" ideas.

Major Characteristics of Ethiopian Traditional Thought

Some of the major characteristics of the traditional thought of Ethiopia, perhaps the only African state that never suffered European domination except for a brief period of time in the twentieth century which occurred as a vicissitude of World War II, include religious, linguistic, and cultural influences.

In his book Islam in Ethiopia, Trimingham traces the diverse influences upon Ethiopian educational thought as follows:

> Christianity, Islam, Judaism, and Paganism, have co-
> existed in Ethiopia for centuries, and all have founded
> schools for their adherents' children. Christianity is
> predominant in the northern, northwestern, and central

regions, while Islam is dominant in the east, south, and west. Judaism is largely limited to Lake Tana and the region of the province of Begemder and Semien. Paganism is mainly confined to the southern, eastern and western regions, including parts of the central plateau. Any account of Ethiopian education must recognize the contributions made by these different religious, linguistic and cultural communities.[21]

The most important of these has been, and continues to be, the Ethiopian Orthodox Church. Wagaw in his book, Education in Ethiopia notes that the Ethiopian Orthodox Church had and has been an important factor in educational development.[22]

Ethiopian scholars have not been able to date the beginnings of church education, however, there is speculation that it might have originated in the Aksumibe kingdom when Christianity was introduced during the reign of King Ezana in the fourth century.[23]

Dagne notes that the expansion and reformation continued until the golden age of church education, from 1200 to 1500. From the seventeenth century on, the pattern of education underwent a minimal change. Nonetheless, Parkhurst tells us:

[21]John S. Trimingham, Islam in Ethiopia (London: Oxford University Press, 1952), p. 5.

[22]Teslome G. Wagaw, Education in Ethiopia (Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1979), p. 10.

[23]Haile Gabriel Dagne, "Language in Ethiopia", Unpublished paper, Addis Ababa, 1979, p. 1); Girma Amare, "Aims and Purposes of Church Education in Ethiopia," Journal of Ethiopian Education, No. 1 (June, 1967), p. 1.

In the course of their long history of Christianity,
the Ethiopians evolved their own peculiar system of
education. Like church education in other parts of
Christendom, it was designed primarily for the train-
ing of the priesthood, but served also to diffuse and
preserve all aspects of Christian culture.[24]

An Ethiopian poet and playwright, Mendhestu Lemma, has ob-

served that the education traditionally conveyed by the Ethiopian Ortho-

dox Church falls under the following categories of learning.

A. Reading, writing and learning by heart. This begins
with the alphabet and covers the psalms of David.
It takes the students two years of time.

B. Zema of religious music appears into the following
subheadings: (1) The study of the Tsome-Degua, the
Meiraf, and the Degua (fundamental books of religious
music composed of Yared, the legendary founder of
the Ethiopian Church Music), which usually takes
four years, (2) the study of Kedase (Mass Music)
and the Saatat (special religious music to be recited
only at night time) for six months, (3) the study of
more refined and complex kinds of religious music,
Zemare and Mewaseit, for one year, and (4) a three-
year study of Aquaquam, the department of religious
music which deals with the religious dance, in which
drums and sistra are used.

C. Kine (Illamical Poetry) and the language and grammar
of Geez, the "Latin" of the Ethiopian Church, are
studied for five years.

D. The Old Testament and the New Testament with full
commentaries, four years.

E. The writings of the Likewunt (church fathers) and
the "Book of Monks", the Metsehafe-Mentosat,

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[24]Richard Parkhurst, Introduction to Traditional Ethiopian Church
Education by (Alaka) Imbakon Kaleuold translated by Menghestu Lemma
(New York: Columbia University Teachers College, 1970), p. XIII.

which defines the rules and spiritual discipline
governing the life of monks, three years.

F. The Merha-Eusur, "Guide to the Blind", which
    deals with the computation of the Ethiopian
    church calendar and affords mathematical
    training, six months.

G. History, one year.

H. Arts and Crafts (writing, parchment making,
    preparing writing stones, bookbinding, draw-
    ing, four years.[25]

According to Menghestu Lemma, the rough approximation of the
years that one spends in Ethiopian school of thought according to the
above curricula desired will be 28 years training and learning, how-
ever, an additional two years for the final touch at the various stages
before graduation is highly recommended. Therefore, a diligent hard-
working student might take 30 years to master the traditional church
education.

The Teacher

The qualities requisite in the teacher according to Alaka Imbakon
Kalewold are that he must be a well-educated man of upright faith
and morally strong. Therefore, the teachers in the traditional schools
are themselves highly educated and capable of rendering many services
to the church and community.

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[25]Ibid., p. 10.

[26]Alaka Imbakon Kaleweold, p. 9.

Most teachers are celibate and hermits who demand no food or salary or any other recompense for their services. They insist on taking care of their material needs by making mats, parasols, writing manuscripts, binding books, carving the Tselat[27] and selling their handicrafts at a modest price. The traditional church education teacher managed to support themselves and also looked after poor students who have failed to fullfill their basic needs (food, clothing, and shelter).

Student Life in Traditional Education

The life of a student is a model of comradeship based on humility and deep concern for one another's welfare.[28] Their basic principle is one that leads to the utmost cooperation. Imbakon stated that:

> One of the group would put his sheepskin mantle on,
> sling his leather pouch on his shoulder, hold his
> long walking staff firmly in his hand, and go march-
> ing forth on a begging expedition; a second one
> would go to fetch water from the stream; a third
> would go to the woods to collect firewood; a fourth
> would stay behind to sweep the little hut and pre-
> pare red chili or linseen sauce for dinner. An
> elderly scholar may be a member of the group, but
> out of love and respect he is not allowed to engage
> in physical work. He is left alone to concentrate
> on the "word of God", yet he, in turn is not content
> to lead a completely idle life of learning, for that
> would show want of spiritual humility on his part.

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[27]The Holy Tablet, every Ethiopian Church is founded on a holy tablet carved of wood, bearing the image of the saint in whose name the church is dedicated. The tablet is the most sacred religious object in a church. p. 9.

[28]Ibid., p. 19.

He will therefore do light work in the hut, like patching
old clothing and looking after whoever may have fallen
sick.[29]

The traditional Ethiopian Church Education was distinguished by

a highly structured and organized system dating from as early as the sixth

century of the Christian era.[30] The church with the cooperation of the

country's rulers had assumed the responsibility of education for the

children as well as the adults. The education was oriented around

religious themes and principles.

Traditional Ethiopian education is characterized by its avail-

ability to anyone desiring education. There are no fixed fees so

that the poor can be accommodated, there is equality of access to

anyone who desires it. Teachers attract students by the quality of

their instruction, not through bureaucratic appointments or formal

qualifications.

At any rate, the church system of education persisted for more

than sixteen hundred years, meeting the manpower and intellectual

needs of the church and state alike.

Colonial Educational Policies

Modern education in Africa began historically with the first

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[29]Imbakon Kaleweold, Traditional Ethiopian Church Education
(Addis Ababa: Haile Sellassie I University, Institute of Ethiopian
Studies, 1965), p. 15.

[30]Ibid., p. 19.

European arrivals. There were many types of contacts between Europeans

and Africans, but the precolonial contacts were not as disruptive to

African social institutions as colonial ones.[31] The slave trade which

spanned more than three centuries, decimated African population and

was an important factor in the disintegration of the 19th century African

empires and kingdoms.[32] Atangana wrote that the encounters between

Africans and Europeans were ones that can be characterized as follows:

> These encounters, often marked by countless atrocious
> human dramas brought upheavals and disorders to the
> native societies. Everywhere the West imposed its
> law, its ideas, its aspirations. Everywhere it acted
> as though it wanted to lend Negroes a head, a heart;
> on the collective level, it strained its ingenuity to
> induce an entire society to renounce its own manner
> of thinking and feeling.[33]

. Those African societies that were not completely destroyed by

Western invasions, made some accommodations or adjustments in

their infrastructures in order to survive.   Traditional institutions,

notably African indigenous education with the exception of Ethiopia and

Liberia, were modified in the process of dealing with the exigencies

arising from European incursion. But these institutions retained their

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[31]This discussion of the Colonial System of Education does not
apply to Ethiopia and Liberia since the structural elements and colonial
relations analyzed here did not form part of the historical experience of
these two nations.

[32]Joseph S. Roucek, "Education in Africa South Sahara," The
Journal of Human Relations (1960), pp. 10-17.

[33]Nicholas Atangana, "African Cultures and Development," Abbia,
May, 1963, p. 26.

essential indigenous forms. During the period education showed that

the bush school did not initiate any radical break in the pattern of ex-

perience of African children. Rather, it intensified and deepened all

aspects of the group life.[34] However, with the advent of the missionaries,

the old pattern began to break down. The task of manifesting this new

education was forced upon the traders in order that they might have

a means of communication with the Africans. Soon thereafter, the

education of the Africans was handled primarily by the missionaries.

While the trading companies educated their clerks, the missionaries

were interested in training teachers, artisans, and evangelists. The

missionaries were mainly interested in converting the natives from paganism

to other religions but they also taught them agriculture and other skills.[35]

Educational development in tropical Africa South of the Sahara

excluding North Africa and the Republic of South Africa was the creation

and establishment of European missionaries.[36] Scanlon pointed out

that

> . . . in order to understand African education, it is
> necessary to comprehend its historical development
> and particularly the educational policies of the
> colonial powers, for the design for Africa's educa-
> tional structures was conceived in the educational

[34]A. I. Richards, Chisungu, A Girl's Initiation Ceremony Among the Bemba of Northern Rhodesia (London, 1956), p. 18.

[35]Assane Seck, Negritude et Education, a paper presented to the symposium on Negritude (Dakar, May 8, 1971), p. 32.

[36]David G. Scanlon, Tradition in African Education (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 64.

offices of Paris, London, Brussells and Rome, refined
by dozens of local governors, and executed by thousands
of educators working in the field.[37]

It was within these different frameworks of which the major

element is the control over important decision-making mechanisms,

that formal schooling was grafted to the African social structure.

Traditional African education was basically pragmatic. It was

designed to ensure the self-sufficiency of communities some of which

have been more or less isolated within autocratic economic systems

long cut off from the mainstream of society. The society which such

system produces, although conservative, is nevertheless, neither

static nor dynamic.[38] Manuwuike notes that:

> The education of Africa before the introduction of the
> European system was an education that prepared him f
> for his responsibilities social, economic and religious
> . . . as an adult in his house, his village and clan.
> It involved the inculcation in the young the cultural
> heritage of beliefs, behavior patterns, emotional dis-
> positions, and particularly the appropriate ritual be-
> havior for all occasions.[39]

African society has evolved slowly in harmony with the environment.

Its evolution was violently affected in the sixteenth century by the

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[37]Joseph S. Roucek, "Education in Africa South of the Sahara,"
Journal of Human Relations, Vol. 8, pp. 810-881.

[38]Bakari-Kamiar, "Education and Culture in Africa: A Contri-
bution to the Revision of the Addis Ababa Targets." UNESCO, 1974,
p. 32.

[39]Chukuenemeka Manuwuike, Alternatives in African Education:
The Need for a Synthesis Between the Old and the New System. Univer-
sity of Massachusetts unpublished dissertation, 1974, p. 99.

slave trade which lasted for four centuries, and by colonization,

"an act of force," as Albert Sarraut called it, the submersion of one civilization by another. The submission of the conquered people during the colonial collision was bound to be temporary, as the conflict was a conflict of civilization.

The period of enforced coexistence, during which there was a violent confrontation between the African and European civilizations, did not preclude concessions and sometimes fruitful cultural interchange, but the purpose of colonial education was to bring about a radical transformation of African society.

The salient feaures of this colonial education are a reflection of the African policies of the major colonial power: the United Kingdom, France, Portugal and Belgium. In this respect, it should be remembered that almost the whole of Africa was colonized by Europe during the second half of the nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century.[40] On this various components of the colonial system were related to one another and the consequences of colonial policy orientations for western model of institutionalized schooling. This attempt is intended only as a background for constructing a framework within which African educational development can be analyzed.

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[40]Bakari-Kamiar, "Education and Culture in Africa, A Contribution to the Revision of the Addis Ababa Target." (UNESCO, 1974), p.30.

The colonial administration, supported by religious missions, which made an important contribution to the creation of the colonial school systems, had to commit itself to a decision on two key problems.

> What firstly, should be the policy with regard to the native population, in what way were the colonies to be useful to the Metropolitan State; secondly, should recognition be given to the unique genius of the colonial peoples to their specific qualities and cultural values, and if so should anything be done to develop them or not?[41]

The British Colonial System

Each of these basic questions were answered by the occupying powers in accordance with their national temperament and their immediate interests.

The British colonial administrative approach in Africa referred to as indirect rule and was formulated from an evolutionary perspective. Indirect rule aimed at adapting indigenous institutions, by a gradual process, to perform modern political, economic and social functions. Robinson points out that the British Colonial Government had "a profound conviction that political development was not to be brought about by social engineering, by elaborate constitutional provision supported by social planning. Rather, it must be organic growth, fostered by habits of accommodation, which were taken to be the supreme art in politics."

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[41] Ibid., p. 4.

Though the British Indirect Rule was a distinctly British philosophy of Administration, it should be noted that the British approached colonialism cautiously and was first concerned to administer the colonies with minimal involvement.

The British set up the same colonial education policy--that of adaptation. It was not until 1899 that the first government school was established. This policy of adaptation "presupposed to build up African culture, folkways, art and civilization." In his book, _Indian Unrest_, Sir Valentine Chirol endeavors to show that this policy of educational adaptation is inevitably and eventually going to produce discontent and sedition--desire for self-determination and independence.[42] He further warns the British government that the introduction of a like system of education in Africa would produce similar results. Later, after World War I, a new policy--that of trusteeship was inaugurated; to which the Phelps-Stokes Commission gave its hearty support.

In discussing the British government's colonial educational policy in Africa, Arthur Mayhew writes:

> In practically all our dependencies the government at first
> ignored education, being concerned with the maintenance
> of law and order, defense from external attack and economic
> development. Education they left to the Christian missions to
> whom they gave usually a free hand. And they did not inter-
> fere with local and indigenous methods of education. Thus

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[42]Nuiakofi Nkrumah, _op. cit._, p. 90.

we see that from the start a fundamental feature
of our colonial policy established itself free of
scope for private enterprise, suspicion or mis-
trust of rigid official control, arising no doubt,
from the absence of clear educational ideas on
the government's part, as well as from lack of be-
lief on education, and a feeling that more impor-
tant matters demanded all their time and energy.
In course of time gusts of public opinion at home,
combined with demands from the missions for
financial help, and disputes between missions,
led to the establishment of educational depart-
ment.[43]

In Britain, the Phelps-Stokes reports in regard to African educa-

tional development were influential. In November, 1923, the Secretary

of State for the colonies appointed an avisory committee on Native Edu-

cation in the British Tropical African Dependencies to serve in advisory

capacity to the secretary. Thus, the Advisory Commission periodically

issued policy statements. The educational views of the Phelps-Stokes

reports represented the view of distinguished British educators and civil

servants. How they were interpreted within various colonies depended

upon the interests of the governors and the inclinations of local officers.

Nevertheless, they constituted a framework that gave form to the develop-

ment of education in those areas under British control. The first paper

published by the Committee, Memorandum of Educational Policy in British

Tropical Africa (Advisory Committee, 1925), set forth broad principles

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[43]Arthur Mayhew, Education in Colonial Africa (London: Longmans,
Green, 1938), pp. 39-40.

under which education was to be developed. They are interesting from

an historical point of view, for they parallel many of the recommendations

made at the Addis Ababa Conference of May 15, 1961:

1. Government controls educational policy and will cooperate with other educational agencies.

2. Religion and character training are of the greatest importance.

3. The educational service should attract the best men from Britain.

4. Voluntary schools which meet basic requirements should receive grants.

5. African languages as well as English should be used in education.

6. There should be an adequate teaching staff of Africans properly qualified and they should include women.

7. Village schools may be improved by the use of specially trained visiting teachers.

8. Inspection and supervision of schools is essential.

9. Industrial training of a technical nature is best given in government workshops.

10. Vocational training should be carried out in governmental departments.

11. The education of girls and women is of great importance.

12. An educational system should include primary education, secondary education of varying types, technical and vocational schools, and institutions of university rank for such sub-

jects as teacher education, medicine, and agriculture.
Adult education was also stressed, and the "education
of the whole community should advance pari passu."[44]

The Memorandum also included the following interesting principle

of education:

> Education should be adapted to the mentality, attitudes,
> occupations and traditions of the various peoples, con-
> serving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements
> in the fabric of their social life; adapting them where
> necessary to changed circumstances and progressive
> ideas as an agent of natural growth and evolution. This
> includes the fostering and educational use of African
> arts and culture, and will, it is hoped, narrow the hiatus
> between the educated class and the rest of the community
> whether chiefs or peasantry.[45]

The Phelps-Stokes Commission made a study tour of most African

countries and produced reports in which they criticized the inadequacy

and the inappropriateness of African education (Phelps-Stokes Fund,

1922 and 1923).[46]

These reports were widely read and discussed. Two significant

developments resulted from the Commissions efforts. First, the colonial

powers created separate agencies within their government departments to

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[44]Charles Baley, African Education: A Study of Educational Policy
and Practice in British Tropical Africa, p. 4.

[45]Ibid.

[46]McLead J. Campbell, African History in the Making (London:
Edinburgh House Press, 1956), p. 19.

deal with education in Africa; and second, educational policy formula-
tion and evaluation of implementation became regular features of official
involvement in education from 1925 to 1960. There was no evidence of
mutual consultation among the European powers for the formulation of
polcies, but the similarities of educational policies suggested the
strong influence of the Phelps-Stokes reports.

In 1935, the advisory committee produced a new memorandum on
the education of African communities. This memorandum, while based
on earlier recommendations, laid emphasis not on the formal education
of children in school, but on the cooperation between the schools and
other educational agencies in raising the whole level of community
life.

The subsequent story of British education in Africa is the story
of efforts that have been made to extend and apply the principles of
the memorandums of 1925 and 1935.

The aim of education was to raise the standard of living of the
inhabitants through the services of the Departments of Health, Agricul-
ture and Education. The following quotation from the "Government Re-
port on Nutrition in the Colonial Empire" (Cmd. 6050, 1939) reveals that
of the trinity, education is the most important:

> Much can be done by the Department of Education in con-
> tributing to an improvement in nutritional conditions--
> there are three principal directions in which the educa-
> tional authorities may bring their influences to bear.

> They will be responsible in the first place for raising the
> general level of intelligence of the people so that the
> work of the Health and Agricultural Departments may be
> understood, appreciated and intelligently applied. Se-
> condly, they should see that elementary instruction is
> given in the schools in the essentials of agriculture,
> food production and supply, domestic science, personal
> hygiene, and child welfare. Finally, they should take
> a direct part, working in cooperation with the Agricul-
> tural, the Veterinary and the Health Departments under
> the general supervision of the Administration, in an
> endeavor to educate the adult mass of the people in
> the principles of better education. [48]

Other important aspects of educational policy have come up under

careful review: The necessity of raising up the leaders from among

the people. The importance of incorporating religious teaching and

moral instruction as compulsory subjects in every curriculum.

Relating vocational, technical and agricultural education to the needs

of each territory, the need of using the vernacular in the first stage of

elementary education and English in all intermediate, secondary and

technical schools. The urgency of training local teachers who are

to become "active agents in assisting their schools to play the proper

part."[49]

In general, the British system had a different approach. Accord-

ing to their policy of separate development, the colonies were allowed

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[48]British Information Services, _loc. cit._

[49]_Ibid._, p. 5.

a certain degree of autonomy. No attempt was made to suppress African cultural value, and in the majority of their possessions, the British pursued the policy of promoting African languages. They.paid greater attention to African languages and used as languages as an instrument for the transmission of religious feeling and knowledge in the majority of their colonies.

The Educational Policies

The French approach was based on the assumption that the political institutions of preliterate societies could hardly be adapted to modern colonial government: "The French referred to their colonies as overseas France, expressing the explication that these colonies would eventually become an integral part of the metropolitan country." The French administrative approach of "assimilation" was formulated to secure socio-cultural integration of the colonies within France. Betts notes that the French had a notion of the superiority of French civilization and the Direct Rule emerged as the best administrative strategy that would help to achieve cultural assimilation.[50]

The Direct Rule required considerable involvement in the colonies which in practice proved difficult since the Frency found their supply resources inadequate to match the magnitude of administrative machinery

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[51]Raymond F. Betts, Assimilation and Association in French Colonial Theory, 1890-1914 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1946), p.13.

which was needed. Thus lacking the capability of direct rule, the French

colonial administration, in essence, came close in several instances to

the British theory of administration.[52] Meanwhile, a more flexible ap-

proach was worked out. This account of the diversity within French

colonial territories created confusion. However, the difference between

"assimilation" and "association" as theories of administration not very

clear either to the colonial administrator or the Africans. Betts notes

that this confusion was illustrated at the colonial congress of 1905,

when a speaker said:[53]

> The colonies request to be assimilated to the mother
> country, but this assimilation must be made in the
> sense that it carries with it the association of the
> natives with our activities.

Senghor also gave expression to the African confusion when he

that Africans should "assimilate without being assimilated."

In contrast to the British and the French administrative theories,

the German and Belgian approaches focused on the economic value of

the colonies to the respective metropolitan countries. The German

lacked the British colonial tradition (for example, the latter's experience

in India) and their colonial administration in Africa was terminated soon

after World War I.[54] Gifford notes that although the period of German

colonization of parts of Africa was brief, contemporary research shows

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[52]Ibid.

[53]Ibid.

[54]Ibid.

that the Germans had begun to address themselves to the use of indirect rule in colonial administration.[55]

The Belgian model of administration was influenced by the concept of cultural relativity which made the Belgians avoid any preconception about making "Africans Black Belgians" but gradually their approach turned out to be one of assimilation.[56] George observes that areas of social action between Africans and Europeans were demarcated; however, this was never achieved in practice and it turned out that African institutions were used to serve European ends: "The Belgian administration preempted traditional authority and by having a higher ratio of Europeans to Africans than was generally the case in other parts of Africa, it was possible for the administration to exclude Africans from exercising any political authority."[57]

Leopold de Saussure, the author of _Psychologie de la Colonisation Francaise_, considered that Spanish colonial policy was based on assimilation:

> . . . by religious beliefs in the name of a dogmatic and absolute ideal. Gold, the cross and glory were the three fundamental moving forces of Spanish colonialism. The colonial policy of France and Portugal was based on political and social assimilation, in the name of an ideal which was no less dogmatic and no less absolute. France

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[55]Ibid.

[56]Betty George, _Educational Development in the Congo_ (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, 1966), p. 12.

[57]Baeri Kamian, _Education in Africa: A Contribution to the Revision of the Addis Ababa Target._

was imbued with the belief, sanction by the Revolution,
that there exists an absolute formula independent of
time and place, for the welfare of the nations, and took
upon herself the mission of hastening its advent among
her subjects. France was convinced that her glory and
her interests were equally insaparable from the realiza-
tion of that ideal, and the moral assimilation of the most
heterogeneous races over which France held sway appeared
not only as the goal, but above all, as the means of extend-
ing French domination.[58]

The belief in the moral unity of mankind and in the predominance

of pure reason as a human motive were the principles underlying econo-

mic exploitation, as they emerge from the French colonial policy which

prohibited African languages in schools and promoted the use of the

French language.

In the Portuguese-dominated territories, the policy of assimila-

tion through the language and the religion of the colonizing power was

taken even further. In such conditions, no indigeneous literature was

able to develop except for translations of the Bible and works of reli-

gious instruction. The goal of education was to make European civiliza-

tion accessible to the native peoples. Leopold de Saussure denounced

the colonial line of reasoning in the following quotation:

We tell ourselves that, if the natives resist the benefits
of civilization which we bring them, it is because their
prejudices have so far prevented them from realizing the
advantages which are being offered to them. These pre-
judicies have so far prevented them from realizing the
advantages which are being offered to the. These pre-

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[58] George, op. cit., p. 40.

judices are kept alive by the vestiges of their former
condition, by their beliefs, by their institutions and
by their languages. Let us do away with these relics
of a past which is no more. If they are too deeply
rooted in the present generation, let us address our-
selves to future generations through education. Let
us teach the children our languages and instill our
ideas into them, and France will soon have, if not
new citizens, at least faithful and grateful subjects
by the million.[59]

Thus, in the French and Portuguese territories, education was

given in foreign languages of which the children were totally ignorant,

the aim being to separate the child from the habits and values of their

environment. Although the French policy subsequently became less

flexible to the extent of accepting that elementary education might be

given in the children's mother tongue in certain territories (Madagas-

car) the principle and the aim of education remained that of producing

Europeans in mind and spirit and of enlisting their cooperation in the

exploitation and administration of the colonies. In the final analysis,

the French and Portuguese system of education were thus alike in their

aim: to instruct the masses and to form elites.

Organization of the Colonial School System

The British established a school system that recognized the

differences in local conditions and was thus consciously adopted

subject to the prevalent conditions in each area. The goals of the

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[59]Ibid.

of a complete school system provided for elementary, secondary or

intermediate education.[60]

On the other hand, the French established a three-tiered elemen-

tary school which was designed to replace former models and distinc-

tions were made on the basis of village, regional, or urban schools.

One plan, the so-called Brazzaville plan made provisions for French

model "lycees," modern polyvalent colleges and higher education

institutions. The Belgian system provided for primary schools of the

first level for two years for rural or urban school age children and

primary schools of the second level, in Europeanized centers, for

a period of three years, the graduates of which latter school continued

their education in post-primary vocational schools for clerks, teachers

and craftsmen.

Major Emphasis of Colonial Educational Policies

The period of colonization was characterized by three main

phases of educational development in the Subharan Africa. The first

phase was a continuation of the missionary pioneering effort. The

second phase was marked by colonial administrative participation in

education. A significant aspect of this phase was the formulation of

educational policies which at first were shaped according to the in-

dividual perceptions of the colonial administrator as to the needs of

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[60]Ibid.

the colonies. The third phase was a continuation of the second. It was a transitional period to political independence. During this phase, a systematic questioniong of the moral basis of colonialism paved the way for general and unprecedented efforts to revamp African educational systems.

Conclusions

Each of the colonial powers developed a political, economic, social and educational philosophy which had the effect of abolishing, weakening or reinforcing traditional political cultures.[61] Paul Mus, former director of the Ecole Nationale de la France d'Outre declared:[62]

> When our policy of gallicanization and cultural uprooting leads to the disintegration of African society, it violates sacred values which, for every people, are an unalienable right. In destroying them French policy defies God as well as man.

Dumont wrote that ". . . on the whole its people have been degraded by western intervention, from slavery to colonialism and its aftermath, economic exploitation."[63] The colonial educational policy and its implementation became instrumental to the creation of a class policy, or of a colonial ruling power, or of a race, religion

[61]E. Anderson, The Harambee Schools: The Impact of Self-Education in African Research and Action. UNESCO, 1976, p. 26.

[62]Raymond Betts, Assimilation and Association in French Colonial Theory (New York: Columbia University Press, 1961), p. 26.

[63]Rene Dumont, False Start in Africa (New York: Praeger, 1966), p. 91.

that judges itself to be superior falls short of this standard and is to

be condemned. It becomes, in the memorable words of Immanuel Kant

a sin against the dignity of man, in fact, against humanity itself.

At independence, most African governments found the blueprints

for school development they had inherited becoming more rapidly ob-

solete to Africa's changing requirements and to educational and tech-

nological advance. Attempts to redesign educational systems in most

countries have been cautious, to let priorities become clearer, and

to explore new techniques and approaches.

Unlike the colonial period, the post colonial period showed

that the plans for African educational development were placed largely

in the hands of native Africans. The Africans recognized that Africa

cannot be made in the abstract, in the framework of ideologies bor-

rowed from Europe, Asia or America. Ideologies that were worked out

in completely different cultural frameworks and environments will

not work. African solutions for uniquely African problems and condi-

tions are now being sought, since the African point of departure is

different from that of the Soviet Union or the United States and demands

new structures.

CHAPTER III

THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE: BACKGROUND, ORGANIZATION,
AND PHILOSOPHY

Background: National Independence and Urgent National Problems

1960 has been called the "Year of Africa" because on that date

several African nations attained political independence. By 1963, forty

such nations had acquired their independence as shown in Table I. These

events launched what has been called the decade of Africa.[1]

At independence most African governments found that the blue-

prints for school development that they had inherited had become out-

dated in relation to Africa's changing requirements and to educational

technological advances.

An eminent Nigerian educator, P. U. Okeke, summarizes the

situation as follows:[2]

> There was not and is not any significant relation between
> our school education and our cultural traditions. Instead

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[1]Richard Tolley, Education in Africa: Research and Action, 1969, p.

[2]P. U. Okeke, "Education for Efficiency: Knowledge for Use," in
Ikejiani Okechukueru, ed., Education in Nigeria (New York: Frederick
Praeger, 1966), pp. 96-97.

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of growing from the roots, we started growing from the branches, and few of us indeed have been able to re-establish contact with the past after years of rote education.

Attempts to redesign the African education in a broader spectrum became a vital interest among African scholars and leaders. Brembeck and Keith examined education in Africa and have pointed out the need for reform, for relevance and selective adaptation to give it the impetus it needs to stand on its feet and be able to effectively produce the dreams and aspirations of the independent countries.[3]

Manuwuike observes that the inherited western education has inherent defects because of their blind adherence to western European classical traditions which have no relevance to Africans. In most cases, driven by necessity and desperation, a number of African governments are beginning to introduce some measure of adaptive reforms aimed at educational improvement. Manuwuike noted that these measures will not bear fruit until they are rooted in the identity and sentiment of African education.[4]

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[3]Cole Brembeck and John P. Keith, _Education in Emerging Africa_ (East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University, 1947), p. 6.

[4]Chukuemeka Manuwuike, _Alternative in African Education: The Need for Synthesis Between the Traditional and the New System_ (Unpublished dissertation, University of Massachussetts Press, 1971), p. 1.

In order for the schools to succeed in this task, they require what

Ricky Rosental termed "The intellectual decolonization of the conti-

nent which is in fact the freeing of students, teachers and Africans them-

selves from the once all-pervasive mentality of the colonizers."[5]

Realizing the unprecedented spread with which Africans were

resisting colonialism that had held them for so many years, the inter-

national community wanted to play an active role in the social and eco-

nomic development of Africa. In February, 1960, therefore, a preliminary

meeting was convenened by UNESCO in Addis Ababa, where it was de-

cided that a bigger conference be held in the near future. The Addis Ababa

Conference, held in 1961 under the auspices of UNESCO and the United

Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), outlined the magnitude

of the problem and proclaimed common goals. Masland observed that

the Conference which was the first of five major conferences from 1961 to

1968 assumed responsibility for African future educational develop-

ment.[6]

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[5]Ricky Rosenthal, The Splendor that was Africa (New York: Oceana Publications, 1967), p. 1.

[6]John W. Masland, Educational Development in Africa: The Role of United States Assistance (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press,1961), p. 62.

Conference identified the following major needs:

1. Establishing an educational system that would
be based on a firm knowledge of African cultural
heritage--education for the future citizen of
be one that is modern to African environment.

2. Re-orientation of the education patterns and
systems to the economic and social needs.

3. The third major aspect stated that modern
African education must be open to all without
discrimination. These universal approaches
of education adopted article 26 of the Universal
Declaration of Human Rights which states that:

> Everyone has the right to education.
> Education shall be directed to the
> full development of the human per-
> sonality and the strengthening of
> respect for human rights and the
> fundamental freedoms.

In the desire to develop and expand the system of formal education

from the youth of Africa that a qualitative advance in education must be

accompanied by a qualitative improvement and wish to meet the dream

and aspiration of African citizens.[8]

The inventory committee upon deciding the kind and the type of

educational system that Africa seeks, then pointed out that the following

corollaries of educational infrastructure which are in shortage in Africa

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[8]Unesco: Outline of a Plan for African Educational Development
(Paris: UNESCO, 1961), p. 3.

The Work of the Conference: Outline of a Plan for Education in the Future

With an awareness for the educational needs of African society,

the Addis Ababa Conference laid down the basic fundamentals of edu-

cational needs and priorities. The Conference set forth in its agenda

the following aspects of education that needed to be examined:

1. Development of education in relation to African
   cultural and socio-cultural factors.

2. Inventory of educational needs for economic and
   social development.

3. Education as a basic factor in economic and
   social development.

4. Patterns of international co-operation for the
   promotion and implementation of programmes of edu-
   cational development.

Inventory of Educational Needs

During its first plenary meeting, the Addis Ababa Conference re-

cognized that only 16 percent of primary and secondary school-age chil-

dren were enrolled in school, ranging from a low of 2 percent in some

countries to nearly 60 percent in others.[7] Statements critical of the short-

comings of education in African countries were specific in their recital

of handicaps of educational developments . From these statements, the

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[7] Ibid., p. 5.

be met: An expansion of school building of all types, equipment for teaching; production of textbooks to meet the urgent need for adaptation of textbooks which are more relevant to African life and culture. The committee highly recommended that the inadequacy of qualified teachers for the primary schools and secondary schools requires a special effort.

The committee also recognized that reforming and changing in educational programmes will meet the new economic and social needs of African nations. Therefore, it expresses the following necessity for development:

a. Rural Education. - The committee should review the interest in adapting educational curricula, particularly at the primary and lower secondary level, to rural and village life.

b. Vocational and Technical Education. - With the increasingly diversified development of the economy of African manpower with new skills and abilities has been in great shortage. Thus, the introduction of vocational and technical education to the primary and secondary school students was a necessity to train individuals with "polyvalent" abilities, able to adapt to changing conditions.

c. Higher Education. - Facilities for higher education at the present time are far from adequate for the training of the necessary cadres of specialists, researchers, administrators. In order to meet this need, the African university population must be increased from 1,000 to between 7,500 and 10,000 in the 1970's.

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[8]Ibid., p. 1.

d. Education for Girls. - Recognition of the great need of increasing the number of girls receiving education at all levels. The need for the increased use of educated "womenpower" in the working life of the community is phenomenal. The committee saw that there should be changes of attitude of men and women towards feminity. It suggested the need to develop a new conception of the role of women in the life of the community—to improve their condition as homemakers, to expand their opportunities of employment, to encourage a greater participation and leadership by women in community affairs and public life. Thus, to meet this goal an expansion and reform of education for girls is not only a requirement but an obligation to do justice to humanity.

Finally, the committee pointed out the need for the development of African culture. Against the description of urgent needs and plans for the expansion and modernization of education in Africa and the progressive Africanization of teaching personnel, there is major concern that curricula and teaching materials be adapted to African conditions and interest. The conference believed that it could only be possible through the growth of a wider consciousness and understanding of African cultural values. This would be effectively developed through a greater study and knowledge of the sources of African culture and by expanding programs of research on the African tradition.

Financial Needs.- The financing of necessary educational expansion in respect to both quality and quantity cannot be accomplished

by African states at their current levels of economic development. The
conference recommended that international financial assistance is needed
to supplement national funds until the result of the concept of "educational
investment" had lifted the economic development of these states to levels
of self-support.

Experience in International Cooperation: The Regional Approach

The international cooperation and its implication to the develop-
ing African countries operate on free and mutual consent that recognizes
and respects the dignity and independence of the states that are involved
in developing educational thought.[9]

Africa's major agents of international cooperation are the United
Nations and its specialized agencies, bilateral government programmes,
and private business and organizations. These agents help Africa in the
form of counseling, guiding and giving aid to the development of member
states at their request.[10] Member States in Europe, America, and Asia
assist Africa through bilateral arrangements. The A.A. Conference recog-
nizing the various organizations that provide assistance to African coun-
tries has pointed out the needs for co-ordination by each African country
of the many forms of cooperation to avoid confusion and duplication.

The conference stated that "Africa invites international cooperation

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[9]Ibid., p. 15

[10]Ibid.

in building the educational design which will assure its people higher living standards and social progress."[11] In return, it contributes to the world of international cooperation and cultural understanding which UNESCO and the United Nations family and organizations represent.[12]

The Addis Ababa Conference on discussing international cooperation assessed the importance of the serious shortage of teaching personnel, especially at the secondary level and in technical fields in the African states. In relation to this problem the conference proposed that "Africa be given aid in systematic educational planning; in setting up administrative machinery to carry out large-scale educational development plans; in men, money and materials to assist the operation of new educational systems, and in the development of scientific and technological studies and research in Africa's universities."[13]

Inter-African Cooperation

The conference urged an arrangement of bilateral cultural agreements between African States, negotiated on the basis of full equality.[14]

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[11]Ibid., p. 16.

[12]Ibid., p. 17.

[13]Ibid., p. 19.

[14]Ibid., p. 19.

It emphasized that the creation of regional co-operation in Africa as an essential precondition for effective use of international assistance. "In the educational field, the sharing of documentation centers, teacher-training facilities and higher educational facilities and the exchange of teachers when one country might have a surplus and another a shortage in particular subjects are highly desirable means of intra-African co-operation."[15]

The Conference recognized and appreciated inter-African cooperation in the light of the following countries engagement in inter-African cooperation:

> . . . by Americans an offer of 30 scholarships for
> students from the Congo (Leopoldville); by Ghana
> another 12 fellowships at the University College of
> Ghana through the UNESCO programme; and by the
> Central African Federation of an expanded programme
> of intra-African assistance which would probably
> include scholarships at the University College
> of Rhodesia and Nyasaland.[16]

The word "Africa" has been used throughout this plan as meaning the following Member States, Associate Members and Territories, as defined by the General Conference of UNESCO at its eleventh session (1960).

Basutoland
Bechuanaland

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[15]Ibid., p. 29.

[16]Ibid., p. 31.

Cameroun	Mali
South Cameroons	Mauritania
Central African Republic	Mauritius
Chad	Niger
Congo (capital Brazzaville)	Nigeria
Congo (capital Leopoldville)	Federation of Rhodesia and
Dahomey	Nyasaland
Ethiopia	Ruanda-Urundi
Gabon	Senegal
Gambia	Sierra Leone
Ghana	Somalia
Guinea	Sudan
Ivory Coast	Swaziland
Kenya	Tanganyika
Liberia	Togo
Malagasy Republic	Uganda
	Upper Volta
	Zanzibar

Recommendation of the Conference

The Conference upon the present state of African member states

and associate member states highly recommended that inter-African

cooperation be promoted with a view to making possible the educational

development and social economic progress of the countries in the Sub-

sahara Africa. It further suggested that "inter-African co-operation

through regional and sub-regional arrangements be urgently developed

with the aid of UNESCO and other co-operating bodies, notably in such

fields as teacher training, production of textbooks and reading material,

university and higher education institutions, educational research and

information programmes, educational planning, reform of the content of

education, and institutes for development and research in education."[17]

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[17]Ibid., p. 26.

Frederick H. Harbison in his article The Process of Educational

Planning observed that the African nations as they emerge to political

independence are also moving from traditional way of living towards

twentieth century industrialism.[18]

Dumont stated that new plans for Africans cannot be made in

the abstract any longer, in the framework of ideologies borrowed from

Europe, Asia, America, ideologies that were worked out in completely

different circumstances.[19] Frederick Harbison referring to the Addis

Ababa Conference suggests that educational planning should be under-

taken within the context of the emerging social, economic and political

problems of the African nations,[20] to build systems of education geared

to rapidly changing demands.

Joseph Ki-Zerbo observed that education in Africa must be

African; that it must rest on the foundation of African culture and be

based on the special requirements of African progress in all fields.[21]

Paul Mercier reflected upon the statements made by African leaders and

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[18] F. H. Harbison, "The Process of Educational Planning."

[19] Dumont, False Start in Africa, p. 97.

[20] Harbison, p. 47.

[21] Joseph Ki-Zerbo, The Content of Education in Africa, Back-
ground paper on A. A. Conference of May 15, 1961, p. 55.

summarizes the craving need of Aricans as follows:

> . . . that African leaders reveal two sets of aims in
> the field of education. On the one hand, Moderniza-
> tion and, on the other assertion of the African characters.
> . . . This is the twofold nature of Arica's growing
> awareness in the political sphere. It has a direct
> bearing on educational programmes.[22]

This dilemma was created by the educational impositions of the ex-

colonials to the African people. Thus, instead of seeking to develop his

culture and environmental wealth to the fullest extent African educators

find themselves in between what Kessler termed as an "ideological dilem-

ma versus cultural relativism." She observed that the African, though

earger to fill this void in his culture, and yet unwilling to accept wholly

western ideas and ideals imposed upon him, often desperately seeks non-

western ideologies such as Marxism, Maoism, Islamism, or any other

"ism" that is readily available to him at a cheaper price.[23] There is a

nightmare of constant fear of being dominated by western ideologies and

education models. The African schools also suffer from alien Eastern

ideologies which negate the African essence or lookout for educational

development.

Since educational development does not occur in a vacuum, one

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[22]Paul Mercier, "Socio-cultural Factors and Programmes for the Development of Education", The Addis Ababa Conference, May 15, 1961, p. 83.

[23]Kessler, p. 25.

has reason, therefore, to speculate that African education can best pro-

duce in its natural habitat—a factor which has been neglected by

·oth the exporters as well as the importers of foreign education in

Africa. If this hope is to be recognized Urch remarked that the curri-

culum must be carefully selected "to impart those traditions which not

only might give the student a sense of social and cultural identity, but

also help him to face the problems that arise in a rapidly changing so-

city.[24] However, African people desire to be in a position to eclectical-

ly select the best of both worlds (i.e., that of the developing traditional

system as well as the development of a society of educational system.)

According to Paul this phenomena can be observed from the reaction of

the African people to their educational efforts which swings from one ex-

treme of refusal, either total or partial, to a desire for synthesis.

after passing through a phase of complete acceptance of the imported

culture.[25] Nonetheless, according to L. F. Lewis, in a summary on

the effects of political and economic change in Africa observed that:

> This movement toward political independence by
> rapid expansion of primary education, relatively
> large expenditures on higher education, slower
> expansion of secondary education, and as yet
> inadequate improvement of training facilities for
> teachers. Politically, ther e is a gener al recog-
> nition of the importance of education for economic

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[24]Urch, op. cit., p. 246.

[25]George E. Urch, The Africanization of the Curriculum in Kenya,
(Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1968), p. 246.

and social development and the acceptance of the need
to plan for it. But nowhere has that planning been suf-
ficiently integrated with the rest of the economic and
social planning.[26]

What Is Educational Planning?

In the context of the Addis Ababa Conference and its implication

to African economic and social development, educational planning is

defined by a report of Commission II as follows:

> Planning of education is concerned with both govern-
> mental and private activities in order to have adequate
> education by stages and within defined goals, offering
> each individual a better chance to realize his potentiali-
> ties and to make his most effective contribution to the
> country's social and economic development. . . .
> . . . planning of education thus conceived should be
> overall: (a) to the extent that education is a fundamental
> and inseparable aspect of society and of its cultural and
> economic activities; (b) in view of the fact that the dif-
> ferent levels of education should constitute a well-integrated
> and harmonious system capable of effectively serving the
> unity of the educational process; and because of the n eed
> of co-ordinating administration and finance in order to
> insure the effectiveness and efficiency of the educational
> service. . . . In a world of limited financial resources
> with many competing ends, education takes its place
> in the general programme of social and economic develop-
> ment plans should be made to its socio-economic reali-
> ties and the goals it tries to attain.[27]

According to Russell G. Davis, the approach of educational develop-

ment is terms as "human resource development planning which covers all

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[26]L. J. Lewis, "Education and Political Independence in Africa,"
Comparative Education Review, (1961), p. 49.

[27]A. A. Conference, op. cit., p. 2.

the institutional and individual ways which a population acquires and improves knowledge and skill for social, political and economic development."[28]

Outline of a Plan for African Educational Development

In its final report the Addis Ababa Conference set an explicit and specific plans that were embedded with an effort to formulate national educational development goals to conform to internal political political programs of the associated members of the conference.

At the closing meeting, the conference unanimously adopted an "Outline of a Plan for African Educational Development" which was a synthesis of the educational demands, goals, targets and qualitative attainments during the next twenty years decided on by African states. The plan after approval by the conference, was assigned by the Ministers of Education and Heads of Delegations who were members of the conference as a form of transmittal both to their Gover. ments and to governmental and private agencies interested in Africa throughout the world. The conference's stated plans for education in Africa were as follows:

1. Short term plan targets (1961-66)

   a) An annual 5 percent increase of enrollment at

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[28]Russell G. Davis, Planning Human Resource Development: Educational Models and Schemata (Chicago: Rand McNally Co, 1966), p. 1.

primary level, which would mean an increase
in enrollment from the then existing mean of
40 percent to 51 percent by the end of the plan.

b) An increase in enrollment in second level edu-
cation from 3 percent to 9 percent. During
the short-term period, this was to receive
highest attention.

2. Long-term plan targets (1961-81)

a) Universal, free, and compulsory primary
education.

b) Education at the second level for 30 percent
of those who completed primary school.

c) Higher education, mostly in Africa, for 20
percent of those who completed secondary
school.

d) Constant improvement of the quality of
African schools and universities.[29]

Both plans called for the training of teachers in sufficient quantity

and quality at all levels and the expansion of adult education.

Enrollment targets expressed as a percentage of the appropriate

age groups were:

	1960-61	1965-66	1970-77	1980-81
Primary level	40%	51%	71%	100%
Secondary Level	3	9	15	23
Tertiary Level	0.2	0.2	0.4	2

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[29]The Addis Ababa Conference, op. cit., p.

Overall development of education:

    a) Primary education

        1. Reduction of student dropout during
           the six years of primary education
           from 60 percent to 20 percent or less.

        2.Class size in the primary schools to
           be reduced from 45 to 35.

        3. Regarding primary school teachers, 10
           percent were to have secondary school
           education plus three years of teacher
           training; 45 percent elementary school-
           ing followed by two years of teacher
           training.

    b) Secondary-level education

        1. Thirty percent of pupils who completed
           elementary studies were to be admitted
           to the secondary education and two-thirds
           were to enter vocational, technical, or
           teacher-training institutions.

        2. Student wastage during the six years
           of secondary education was not to
           exceed 15 percent of initial enrollment.

Twenty percent of the students completing secondary education were to go on to higher education. Sixty percent of these would be enrolled in scientific, vocational, and technical courses, while the rest would pursue literary, social, or behavioral science studies. The educational pyramid aimed at by 1980 was 100 (primary), 23 (secondary), and 2 (tertiary). Further, it was decided to allot 5 percent of the total expenditure to adult and other types of education not covered by scientific provisions.

At the second level of education, the conference recommended
that more places should be provided for an increased number of qualified
students, so that the critical shortage of second-level manpower would
be met to this immediate need more attention was to be given to curricula
reform, including emphasis on technical and agricultural education.

In order to finance the expansion, all African member states and
associated members were to raise the percentage of national income ear-
marked for education from 3 to 4 percent by 1965 and to 6 percent by 1980.
The conference at the same time noted that appropriate measures were to
be taken to reduce costs by improving organization and administration, by
avoiding wastage and duplication, and by speeding up Africanization of
personnel.[30]

According to the conference, UNESCO Member States and Associate
Members in Africa were to provide increased assistance required by African
countries to meet their educational targets, in short and long-term plan
periods.

	Million Dollars		Million Dollars
1961	140	1965	450
1962	150	1970	1,010
1963	260	1980	400
1964	310		

TABLE - EDUCATIONAL SITUATION IN AFRICA TODAY*

Country	Year	ENROLMENT BY LEVEL		RATIO OF ENROLMENT TO SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION BY LEVEL			
		First level (primary school)	Second level (secondary school)	First level		Second level	
		No. of students	No. of students	Estimated pop. 5-14 years (000)	Ratio of enrolment adjusted to pop. 5-14 for duration of school	Estimated pop. 15-19 years (000)	Ratio of enrolment adjusted to pop. 15-19 for duration of school
Basutoland	1958	119,478	3,042	165	90.5	67	4.5
Bechuanaland	1958	31,193	485	84	46.4	34	1.4
Cameroons (U.K)	1958	54,844	1,404	391	20.0	164	0.8
Cameroun	1959-60	371,421	13,808	795	77.8	332	3.0
Central African Republic	1957-58	45,774	1,480	280	27.2	117	0.9
Chad	1959-60	53,973	1,473	647	13.8	271	0.4
Congo (Brazzaville)	1957-58	78,962	3,259	187	70.3	78	3.0
Congo (Leopoldville)	1959-60	1,460,753	51,671	3,405	71.5	1,426	3.0
Dahomey	1959-60	81,107	3,618	431	31.3	180	1.4
Ethiopia	1958-59	158,005	8,144	5,338	3.8	2,235	0.5
Gabon	1957-58	39,763	1,156	101	65.7	41	2.0
Gambia	1958	4,595	794	72	10.7	30	2.2
Ghana	1959	483,425	178,581	1,208	66.7	506	29.4
Guinea	1959-60	79,373	4,563	671	19.7	281	1.1
Ivory Coast	1957-58	125,727	5,104	641	32.7	269	1.4
Kenya	1958	651,758	20,291	1,562	52.1	654	3.9
Liberia	1959-60	55,026	3,397	308	22.4	129	3.3
Malagasy Republic	1959-60	364,217	25,290	1,299	46.7	544	1.4
Mali	1957-58	42,053	2,749	918	7.7	384	0.5
Mauritania	1957-58	6,493	291	155	7.0	65	0.3
Mauritius	1958	109,370	16,243	153	100.0	64	18.1
Niger	1957-58	11,811	395	603	3.3	252	0.1
Nigeria	1958	2,545,336	117,414	8,129	42.9	3,403	2.9
Lagos	1958	56,688	6,376	83	85.4	35	15.2
N. Region	1958	230,000	8,098	4,439	7.4	1,858	0.3
W. Region	1958	1,037,377	73,282	1,657	100.0	694	8.8
E. Region	1958	1,221,271	29,658	1,950	78.3	816	3.0
Rhodesia & Nyasaland							
N. Rhodesia	1958-59	243,926	4,948	566	53.9	237	2.6
Nyasaland	1958	269,693	3,042	667	30.5	279	1.4
S. Rhodesia	1958	433,459	6,485	649	83.5	272	3.0
Ruanda-Urundi	1958	246,149	5,480	1,156	35.5	484	0.9
Senegal	1957-58	80,473	6,102	561	23.8	235	1.9
Sierra Leone	1959	74,481	8,277	590	21.0	247	2.8
Somalia	1958-59	16,485	1,828	325	10.2	136	0.8
Sudan	1959-60	288,395	60,941	2,819	12.8	1,180	6.5
Swaziland	1958	29,934	1,066	67	55.9	27	4.5
Tanganyika	1958	422,832	15,315	2,193	24.1	918	2.1
Togo	1959	78,689	2,373	411	31.8	172	1.0
Uganda	1959	501,699	41,633	1,603	52.2	671	4.4
Upper Volta	1959-60	40,543	2,447	991	6.8	415	0.4
Zanzibar	1958	14,982	1,232	75	25.0	31	5.0

Source: Statistics of population and pupils taken by the Unesco Statistics Division from official
publications and country replies to the questionnaires.

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Analysis of the school position in Africa during 1957-60, Table II

and Table III indicate the gap between what exists and what is desirable.

-- a gap which the African states are determined to close.

*Source: Statistics of Population and Pupils, UNESCO, 1961.

TABLE II - PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN HIGHER
EDUCATION IN AFRICA BY BRANCH OF STUDY *

Country	Academic year beginning	All branches	PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY BRANCH OF STUDY									
			Humanities	Education	Fine arts	Law	Social Sciences	Natural Sciences	Engineering	Medicine	Agriculture	Not specified
Basutoland	1958	103	58.3	3.9	-	-	3.9	34.0	-	-	-	-
Ghana	1958	1,410	15.2	15.7	5.3	6.6	22.9	8.2	16.0	4.0	6.0	-
Kenya	1958	797	3.8	55.5	5.4	-	8.2	4.6	9.8	5.0	7.8	-
Liberia	1957	476	-	19.5	-	6.3	-	5.3	1.9	3.8	4.0	59.2
Malagasy Republic	1958	424	7.1	-	-	66.5	-	26.4	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	1958	231	-	55.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	44.2	-
Nigeria	1958	1,984	26.7	5.9	4.6	-	13.7	31.8	7.4	8.9	1.1	-
Rhodesia & Nyasaland	1958	125	42.4	22.4	-	-	-	29.6	-	-	5.6	-
Ruanda-Urundi	1958	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	-
Senegal	1958	1,458	21.7	0.3	-	39.5	1.4	21.4	1.0	12.2	2.4	-
Sierra Leone	1958	371	29.1	24.5	-	-	28.3	15.4	2.7	-	-	-
Somalia	1958	245	-	-	-	-	100.0	-	-	-	-	-
Sudan	1958	1,389	17.4	7.2	2.0	8.6	4.3	19.2	25.3	9.2	4.5	2.2
Uganda	1958	837	33.7	9.3	2.6	-	0.8	29.4	1.7	12.1	10.4	-

* Source: World Survey of Education Vol. III (UNESCO, 1961).

TABLE IV - LONG-TERM PLAN (1961-1980)
ENROLMENTS AND COSTS

	1961-62	1965-66	1970-71	1980-81
	Enrolments (in thousands)			
Primary	11,586.0	15,279.0	20,378.0	32,808.0
Second level	903.7	1,833.5	3,390.0	5,905.4
Higher	25.5	30.3	55.0	328.0
	Percentage of age group enrolled			
Primary	40	51	71	100
Second level	3	9	15	23
Higher	0.2	0.2	0.4	2
	Costs(in millions of dollars) recurring and non-recurring			
Primary	283.4	398.7	537.0	730.3
Second level	235.7	652.0	949.0	1,177.2
Higher	37.5	48.7	306.0	562.4
Other	27.8	55.0	89.6	123.5
Total	584.4	1,154.4	1,881.6	2,593.4

Source: Outline of a Plan for African Educational Development (unesco Addis Ababa, 1961) p.13.

TABLE III - SHORT-TERM (1961-1966)
ENROLLMENTS AND COSTS

	Base-Year 1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66
	Enrolments (in thousands)					
Primary	11,187.0	11,586.0	12,203.0	13,028.0	14,050.0	15,279.0
Second level	816.0	903.7	1,025.0	1,224.7	1,475.2	1,833.5
Higher	25.0	25.5	26.2	27.2	28.5	30.3
	Costs (in millions of dollars)					
Primary		283.4	305.5	332.1	362.7	398.7
Second level		235.7	278.3	409.0	489.4	652.0
Higher		37.5	39.1	41.2	44.7	48.7
Other		27.8	31.1	39.1	44.8	55.0
Total		584.4	654.0	821.4	941.6	1,154.4

Long-Term Plan: 1961-1980

The Long-Term Plan for 1961-1980 was designed to enable the African States to achieve a desirable educational pyramid. By its nature it includes the short-term priority actions that will enable Africa to have the basic personnel to move on to universal primary education of high quality by 1980. The costs of the long-term plan is based on the same assumption like those of the short-term plan.

II.   Educational Philosophy of the Conference

The Conference, having made an inventory of the needs of educa-

tion in Africa, in the light of economic and social development, focused

its attention on shaping a program to meet these needs. Members

of the Conference, with explicit understanding of the inter-relationship

of economics and education founded a new "doctrine" which rested on

an economic basis for the meeting of the need for expansion of quantity

and improvement of quality of education in Africa!

The doctrine draws its significant strength from understanding that

"education as a basic factor in economic and social development."

According to Watson, the criticial problems of Africa's economic develop-

ment lies in the training of a sufficient number of people who possess the

specialized skills and competencies necessary for building and operating

a modern nation.

Since the evolutionary development of this doctrine, the education-

al philosophy of contemporary Africa determined that education must be

geared to manpower needs and nation building. To quote Busia, an African

educator from Ghana, in his book, Purposeful Education in Africa:

> It is apparent that what Africa is seeking is a philosophy
> of education that has a total view of man and society;
> one that is rooted in the past, but also attuned to the
> revolutions of our times, taking account of the transfor-
> mations now in process and the new perspectives sketching

of the past, cope with the present and prepare for the future.[30]

In examining the problem of African education, Bussia recognizes that African countries have increasingly come to regard education as a potent tool for economic and social development and the continent put great emphasis on the philosophy that "Education is a factor in the economic growth of a country and therefore a gainful economic invest- ment."[31]

This fundamental change of educational philosophy represents a new outlook, for education was previously regarded only an item of con- sumption. Bussia affirms that the new approach is reflected in increasing educational expenditures and an acceptance of the view that education may be properly financed even from loans.[32]

III. Organization of the Conference

In accordance with resolution 1.2322 adopted by the General Con- ference of UNESCO at its eleventh session, the Addis Ababa Conference on the Development of Education in Africa became a reality of the hopes and aspirations of African development.

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[30]K. A. Bussia, *Purposeful Education for Africa* (Netherlands: Mouton & Co., N.V. Publishers, The Hague, 1962), p. 105.

[31]K. A. Bussia, *The Challenge of Africa* (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1962), p.39.

[32]*Ibid.*, p. 90.

The Conference was jointly organized and convened by the Director-General of UNESCO and the Executive Secretary of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa in consultation with the other United Nations Specialized Agencies.[33]

The Conference was unique because of the wide representation—39 states and territories (all African but three) sent delegations, 23 headed by their ministers of education and also because the leadership of the conference was in the hands of Africans. Twenty-four non-African states sent observers and a number of expatriate (i.e., European) education officers were included in the African delegations; but it was the Africans who were in control.

Under the joint auspices of UNESCO and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, the following countries were invited to send delegates: Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Belgium, Cameroun, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville), Dahomey, Ethiopia, France, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Libya, Malagasy Republic, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Portugal, Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Ruanda-Urundi, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Southern Cameroon, Spain, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanganyika, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Union of South Africa, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, Upper Volta, Zanzibar. As indicated below,

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[33]John W. Masland, Educational Development in Africa: The Role of United States Assistance (Washington, 1967), p. 12.

other states and various organizations were represented in commission by observers.

Representatives of the United Nations and the following specialized agancies contributed to the deliberations of commissions as situation demanded: International Labor Organization, World Health Organization, International Civil Aviation Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization, International Telecommunications Union, United Nations, Children's Fund, World Meteorological Organization, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, United Nations Technical Assistance Board.

The consultants who attended the conference from the international spectrum included: Professor Gaston Leduc, Faculty of Law and Economics, University of Paris, France; Mr. Alan Pifer, Carnegie Corporation; Professor W. Brand, University of Leyden, Netherlands; Professor W. Arthur Lewis, Principal, University College of West Indies; Dr. J. P. Naik, Ministry of Education, India; Mr. Abgar Renault, University of Belo Horizonte, Brazil; Dr. F. W. Harbison, Princeton University, U.S.A.; Professor Joseph Ki-Zerbo, Lycee, Ouagadougore, Upper Volta; Mr. M. B. Mitchell, President, Encyclopedia Britannica Films, U.S.A.; Mr. F. Cambouline, International Labor Organization; Mr. A. Chaparro, Food and Agriculture Organization; Dr. E. Grzegorzewski, World Health Organization; Dr. A. Barkhuus, World Health Organization; Mr. G. A. Corbaz, World Meteorological Organization; Mr. H. J. Carrick, International Civil Aviation Organization; and others.

CHAPTER IV

<u>PROGRESS REPORT ON THE ACHIEVEMENTS</u>
<u>OF THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE</u>

Hunter pointed out in his book called <u>The Best of Both Worlds</u>,

that "Africa, seeking to catch up as was Russia and seeking to develop

a Continent, must clerly lean to the 'practical' definition of education."[1]

It is rightly so that the Addis Ababa Conference from its inception of May

1961 to its formulation of educational policy for twenty years hence re-

flected a development of educational philosophy that considers man as

the major source of development and education as an investment.

The Addis Ababa Conference of May 1961 established for Africa for

the period 1961-1980, an inventory of needs and priorities and a set of

short and long-term plans.

<u>Conferences and Meetings Following Addis</u>
<u>Ababa</u>

From 1961 to 1976, six other conferences and meetings followed

Addis Ababa which dealt with various subjects included in the Addis

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[1]Guy Hunter, <u>The Best of Both Worlds</u> (London: Oxford University
Press, 1967), p. 105.

Ababa inventory:

(1) The meeting of African Ministers of Education held in Paris in March 1962. The Meeting studied the problems of countries with low enrollments in relation to Addis Ababa targets. The Meeting agreed that the development of these countries in relation to the aims of Addis Ababa could only take place in the light of the particular countries' resources and external assistance as required.

(2) Tananarive Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, September, 1962. The Conference played a complementary role to the Addis Ababa Conference insofar as higher education was concerned. The Conference brought to the surface that higher education should play an important role in the development of African countries in the cultural, social and economic fields. It established targets in higher education and made extensive recommendations for the overall planning, financing, and staffing of higher institutions in Africa. It indicated the responsibility of higher educational institutions, apart from their teaching and research functions, for assisting towards the building up of African nations and the unification of Africa. It pointed out the need for African universities to be made part of the network of higher institutions in the world over, and, at the same time, to fulfill the task of creating inter-African cooperation through the best possible use of existing higher education facilities in sub-Saharan Africa.

(3) Abidjan Regional Conference on the Planning and Organization

of Literacy Programme in Africa. The Abidjan Conference reviewed

the question of regional targets set at the Addis Ababa Conference and

indicated the need of accepting them as a form of guidance for each

country within the region to work out and establish its own rate of ex-

pansion in the light of resources available to it.

The Conference re-examined the question of scientific research

and adult literacy and emphasized the need for their inclusion in all

educational planning.

With regard to literacy, the Conference accepted its essential

anv vital relationship with vocational training and its being a basic

requirement for adult education. Thus, the Conference recognized

literacy as a functional concept, contributing to the development and

use of resources.

(4) Lagos Conference on the Organization of Research and Train-

ing in Africa in relation to Study, Conservation and Utilization of

Natural Resources, July-August, 1964.

The Lagos Conference of 1964 was concerned with the organization

and financing of scientific research and technical training in Africa in

order to enable the African states to make the best use of their natural

resources and endeavor to improve their economy through industrialization.

(5) The Nairobi Conference on Education and Scientific and Technical

Training in Relation to Development in Africa. The conference gathered

facts and measured the expansion of education in Africa during the period

from 1960 to 1965. The conference also analyzed the level of implemen-

tation of the regional short-term education plan established at Addis

Ababa in May 1961 and modified the Tananarive Conference plan to a

more applied science educational view.

(6) Lagos Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member

States, 1976.

The purpose of the conference was to review the development of

education in Africa since the Conference of Ministers of Education held

in Nairobi in 1968. The conference studied trends in education in the

region and the problems raised by the renewal of educational systems,

giving due consideration to social, economic and cultural development

needs and in the contest of life-long education. The Lagos Conference

confirmed the validity made by the Nairobi Conference and the need for

coupling efforts towards quantitative expansion with vigorous attempt in

the direction of qualitative improvement.[1]

The conference recognized education as a powerful factor in the

establishment of democracy and defined it in relation to the type of man

which it is expected to shape:

> A man who will be deeply rooted in the cultural traditions
> of Africa, and in the African environment, aware of his

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[1]Bussia, p. 8.

political and civic responsibilities; of his duties to
his family, and prepared to play a useful role as a
producer and as a citizen in the economic and social
development of the community.[2]

Examination of Targets of Addis Ababa Conference

The African nations wholeheartedly recognized that the nation had

and has unutilized talents of massive populations which constitute the

chief present waste and the chief future hope of the developing countries.[3]

Joyce noted that behind these abstract phrases lies not only a phi-

losophy of education, but a methodology of action[4] which gave the equa-

tion of the problem to be solved.

At the Addis Ababa Conference educational needs were studied at

the national and regional levels, and a framework of decision regarding

the levels of educational development to be achieved were set to be fol-

lowed by the participating members of the conference. Grenough observed

that the outstanding achievement of the Addis Ababa Conference was

"the fact that it succeeded in producing two carefully worked-out plans,

one short term 1960-66, the other long term, 1961-80."[5]

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[2]Ibid., p. 14.

[3]U.N. Documentary Analysis, 1961.

[4]Ibid., p. 56.

[5]Richard Greenough, "Africa Calls," Paris UNESCO, 1961, p. 41.

The continental target setting of the Addis Ababa conference has

provided useful criteria for the planning and assessment of educational

development in the African countries within a specific period of time.

These two short-term and long-term plans which exhibit the step by

step development of education in Africa reflects the analysis of the

of the needs and problems undertaken by the Conference.

Educational Targets

Let us now examine the short-term targets set for the period 1960-

61 to 1965-66 and see what has been done.

At the outset there was a substantial increase in the overall enrol-

ment in Middle Africa for this period. While the Addis Ababa targets for

the first and second levels were not attained, the target at the third level

was attained. (See Table I below.)[6]

	1st Level	2nd Level	3rd Level
Proportion of Enrolment to Relevant Age Group for the Base Year 1960-61	36	3	0.2
Target Figures (brought up to date) set for 1965-66	47	6	0.4
Figure Observed	44	5	0.5

[6]"Educational Development in Africa: Trends and Projections Until 1985," A study presented at the Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos, Nigeria, 27 January-4 February 1976 (Unesco, 12 December 1975)..

Second-Level Enrolment

The Addis Ababa Conference set a target of secondary enrolment as a proportion of primary enrolment rising from 5.7 percent in 1960-61 to 10.4 percent by 1965-66. According to Mate, the actual rise at the end of the period was only 8.6 percent.[7] Furthermore, the conference had as an objective the placing of emphasis, within the second level enrolment, on vocational and technical and teacher training enrolment. The following table shows the distribution of second-level enrolment in 1965-66 as compared with the target set for that year, and with the base year 1960-61 figures. (See Table II below).[8]

	General	Vocational & Technical	Teacher Training
Second -level Enrolment, 1960-61	79%	9%	12%
Target Figures 1965-66	76%	12%	12%
Observed Distribution in 1965-66	83%	8%	9%

It is obvious from the above figures that the required shift from second-level enrolment in general education to vocational and technical education and teacher-training by no means materialized and that, in actual fact, the shift was in the reverse direction.

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[7]Mate, op. cit., p. 91.

[8]Educational Development in Africa: Trends and Projections Until 1985, op. cit.

Third-Level Enrolment

As indicated in Table I, the target established for third-level enrol-
ment was exceeded ramarkably. There was a decrease of 51 percent to
40 percent of third level students abroad between 1960-61 and 1965-66.
This was notable inasmuch as the target decrease had been set at 49
percent.

There was a growth in the enrolment of students for higher education
in Middle Africa within this period and there was an equally appreciable
increase in staff at this level, thus leaving an expensive student/staff
ratio at 7.2 in 1960-61 almost unchanged at 6.7 in 1965-66.

UNESCO's analysis of educational development in Africa from 1965-
1980 shows the growth of enrolment of Arican student population.

Mate points out that for the short-term period (1960-65) there were
short falls in meeting the targets for primary enrolment and qualified
teachers; this in the same manner applied to the inadequacy of meeting
the second level enrolment target and the sift from general to vocational
and technical education and teacher training. In general, the targets for
the third level were attained.[8]

The foregoing discussion gives an idea of how the conference short
term plan targets were met. Let us now turn to the long-term plan targets

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[8]Casely Momate, Addis Ababa in Retrospect: an Evaluation of Ex-
perience Since the 1961 Conference (Paris: Unesco, 1961), p. 2.

and see whether they were ever met.

In order to better understand the operation of the plan, an out-line of a typology for analytical interpretation was set up by the con-ference. The 44 countries of Africa which the Conference was estab-lished to serve were divided into four groups. The groups were deter-mined on the basis of statistical indices selected from the field of education using the following criteria: (a) total effort in enrolment, (b) group dynamics, and (c) capacity of the educational system. However, a great deal of the classification of the 44 countries derives its significance from an increasing overall enrolment ratio in 1972.[9]

The 44 countries were grouped as follows:

Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
*Upper Volta	*Burundi	Central African	Cameroon
*Niger	*Guinea	Republic	Zambia
*Somalia	Gambia	*Botswana	*Lesotho
Mauritania	Nigeria	Togo	Swaziland
*Ethiopia	*Sudan	Ivory Coast	Tunisia
*Chad	Guinea Bissau	Kenya	Zaire
*Mali	Mozambique	Ghana	Mauritius
	*Tanzania	Madagascar	Libya
	Sierra Leona	Equatorial	Gabon
	*Dahomey	Guinea	Congo
	Liberia	Egypt	
	Senegal	Algeria	
	Morocco		
	Angola		
	*Malawi	*Country belonging to the group of 25	
	*Rwanda	least developed countries.	
	*Uganda		

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[9]Confernce of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos. Unesco/ECA. Ed-76/CONF.206/Col. 4.

African education has made outstanding improvements in several

areas since 1960 with the targets of the Addis Ababa Conference as

measuring sticks. It is worthwhile, however, to look at the shortages

and weaknesses.

Findings: The African Demographic Situation

The rapid demographic growth in Africa gives rise to the acute

problem of demand for education. The continent represents 10.1% of

the world's population. In 1975, the continent was inhabited by a

population of 400 million persons with an average annual growth of

2.7%. It was thus observed that:

> . . . it seems clear that Africa, with the highest
> population growth in the world (2.9% or 3% per
> annum) and the youngest age-structure (41% of
> the population is below 15 years of age) must
> shoulder an unequalled enrolment burden. The
> under 15 year-old group in Africa is 70% higher
> than in the advanced countries. Perhaps one
> can see Africa is into adolescent age.[10]

Table III

Evolution of the School Age Population (African Continent)

	1965	Absolute Increase	1975	Absolute Increase	1985	Absolute Increase	2000
5-14 year old population (in millions)	78		103		143		
Absolute increase (in millions)		25		40		77	
Index 1975 = 100	76		100		139		214

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[10]Ibid., p. 4.

Enrolment by Level

During the 1960-72 period, the total school-going population of the 44 countries in the region increased from 17.8 to 37.6 million pupils at all levels, which means an increase of nearly 20 million or 112%.[11] Hence, during this period, an average of 1.7 million additional students were enrolled each year.

Table IV

Africa: Enrolment by Level (In Thousands)

Level	1960	1965	1970	1972	1960-1972 Multiplier
First	16,174	22,345	28,502	31,943	1.97
Second	1,447	2,671	4,264	5,106	3.53
Third	138	247	388	513	3.72
Total	17,759	25,263	33,154	37,562	9.22

Table III indicates that the enrolments in secondary and higher education were increased by 3.53 and 3.72, respectively, between 1960 and 1972, while primary school enrolment was increased by 1.98.

The distribution of enrolment by level changed considerably because of the relative increase in enrolment in second and third level education.

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[11]Ibid., p. 4.

Table V

Africa: Distribution of Enrolment by Level (By Percent)

Level	1960	1965	1970	1972
First	91.1	88.5	85.7	84.9
Second	8.1	10.5	13.1	13.8
Third	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.3
Total	100	100	100	100

Table VI showed the indices for the relationship between the total enrolment and the population by school age by country. In 1972, the situation for each group was as follows:

	6-29 Age Group %	Total Enrolment %
Group 1	14.6	4.7
Group 2	47.0	34.9
Group 3	26.6	38.9
Group 4	11.8	21.5

<u>Enrolment by Age Group</u>

Table VI shows an overall increase in enrolment in the age group of 18-29 years (which increased by 3.73% between 1960 and 1972). In the meantime, the enrolment of pupils aged 6-11 years doubled while the enrolment in the age group 12-17 years was multiplied by 2.41%.[12]

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[12]<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 6.

Table VII

Age Group	1960	1965	1970	1972	Multiplier 1960-1972
6-11	12,152	16,738	21,298	23,979	1.97
12-17	4,786	7,167	10,067	11,549	2.41
18-29	431	760	1,281	1,607	3.73
Total	17,369	24,665	32,646	37,135	2.14

The distribution by age group changed as a result of the faster increase in the second and third age groups as compared to the first. This caused the average age of the school population to go up by 1/2 year between 1960 and 1972. (See Table VII.) [13]

Table VIII

Distribution of School Enrolment by Age Group
(In Percent)

Age Group	1960	1965	1970	1972
6-11	70.0	67.9	65.2	64.6
12-17	27.6	29.1	30.8	31.1
18-19	2.4	3.0	4.0	4.3

Table IX

Table VIII summarizes the net enrolment (that is, the enrolment in a given age-group as related to the total population in that group) for each country by examining ratio enrolment of girls and boys.

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[13]Ibid., p. 7.

Table IX

- Net enrolment ratios by age-group, 1960 to 1972
(net enrolment ratios for girls between brackets) *

		AGE GROUPS							
		6 - 11		12 - 17		18 - 29		6 - 29	
Africa	1960	30.9	(22.2)	14.6	(8.6)	0.9	(0.3)	14.2	(9.6)
	1965	37.6	(28.9)	19.4	(12.0)	1.3	(0.6)	17.9	(12.8)
	1970	41.7	(33.3)	24.0	(15.7)	2.0	(1.0)	20.9	(15.4)
	1972	44.2	(35.7)	26.1	(17.7)	2.4	(1.1)	22.5	(16.9)
Group 1	1960	5.5	(2.8)	4.1	(1.5)	0.2	(0.0)	2.9	(1.3)
	1965	8.9	(5.4)	6.8	(2.9)	0.4	(0.1)	4.8	(2.5)
	1970	11.4	(7.9)	10.0	(5.2)	0.8	(0.3)	6.7	(4.0)
	1972	12.5	(8.7)	11.0	(5.8)	0.9	(0.3)	7.3	(4.5)
Group 2	1960	24.9	(17.1)	13.0	(7.8)	0.5	(0.2)	11.7	(7.7)
	1965	27.5	(20.4)	15.0	(9.3)	0.7	(0.2)	13.1	(9.2)
	1970	30.8	(23.8)	17.0	(10.6)	1.0	(0.4)	15.0	(10.8)
	1972	34.0	(26.7)	19.0	(12.0)	1.1	(0.4)	16.7	(12.2)
Group 3	1960	45.4	(34.9)	20.8	(12.9)	1.9	(0.7)	21.0	(15.0)
	1965	58.2	(47.3)	29.3	(19.3)	3.2	(1.4)	28.2	(21.2)
	1970	60.3	(48.8)	33.7	(23.4)	4.4	(2.4)	30.8	(23.4)
	1972	63.4	(51.9)	36.1	(26.0)	5.2	(2.8)	32.9	(25.4)
Group 4	1960	54.9	(39.4)	21.0	(11.8)	0.8	(0.3)	23.6	(15.9)
	1965	67.6	(51.3)	31.2	(18.6)	1.4	(0.5)	30.7	(21.6)
	1970	79.9	(66.6)	47.5	(31.4)	2.6	(0.9)	39.6	(30.3)
	1972	79.9	(67.5)	50.2	(36.0)	3.2	(1.3)	40.7	(32.0)

*Source : Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member
States, Lagos, Unesco/ECA. Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p.

Africa has made an impressive accommodation to meet the demands of population growth. According to Table VIII, the rate of growth was somewhat slower after 1965 although they seem to have picked up between 1970-1972.

Enrolment of Girls

The enrolment ratio for girls has increased more rapidly than that of boys. This situation has diminished the gap between boys and girls. However, the enrolment ratio for girls in Africa remains below the average enrolment ratio for girls recorded in all the less developed regions as a whole, for which the net enrolment ratio for girls, in the age-group 6-11 years was 51.6 in 1970, compared to 49.4% for Asia, 73.0% for Latin America, and 33.3% for Africa.[14]

Table X

Africa: Percentage of Girls Enrolled by Level and by
Age Groups, 1960-1972

Year	First Level	Second Level	Third Level	Total	Age Groups 6-11	12-17	18-29	Total
1960	34.8	25.8	16.9	39.9	36.0	29.4	18.1	33.7
1965	37.1	26.9	18.6	35.9	38.4	30.9	20.6	35.7
1970	38.5	29.4	22.5	37.1	39.8	32.6	23.5	37.0
1972	39.1	30.4	23.8	37.7	40.3	33.8	23.5	37.6

[14]Ibid., p. 10.

The level of the participation of girls shown in Table X by level

and age group depicts close correspondence between the two dimensions.

In the beginning there was much less participation in the second and

third levels of education and in the two age groups 12-17 and 18-29

years. Remarkable progress appears to be seen since 1965 especially

in reference to higher education.

TABLE 11 - Distribution of total enrolment between the three levels of education*

	First Level						Second Level						Third Level					
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
Africa	91.1	88.5	85.7	83.0	80.2	77.2	8.1	10.5	13.1	15.7	18.3	21.0	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.8
Group 1	92.6	88.7	84.8	83.5	82.4	81.2	7.2	11.1	14.9	16.1	17.2	18.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Group 2	93.6	90.6	88.5	86.2	83.6	81.2	6.2	9.0	10.9	13.1	15.4	17.6	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.2
Group 3	86.6	84.5	81.0	77.5	74.2	70.8	11.6	13.6	16.9	20.1	23.2	26.3	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.9
Group 4	94.8	92.6	89.8	87.1	84.5	81.8	5.0	7.1	9.7	12.3	14.7	17.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0
Africa	89.9	86.8	83.9	80.8	77.6	74.4	9.1	12.0	14.7	17.6	20.5	23.4	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.2
Group 1	91.9	87.6	83.1	81.6	80.4	79.1	7.9	12.1	16.4	17.8	19.0	20.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7
Group 2	92.6	89.3	87.2	84.7	82.1	79.5	7.2	10.2	12.0	14.3	16.6	18.9	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6
Group 3	84.7	82.0	78.6	74.9	71.3	67.7	13.0	15.6	18.8	22.3	25.7	29.1	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.2
Group 4	94.0	91.1	87.8	84.3	81.0	77.7	5.8	8.5	11.6	14.8	17.8	20.8	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5
Africa	93.5	91.6	88.9	86.5	84.0	81.5	6.1	7.9	10.4	12.7	15.0	17.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.2
Group 1	95.2	91.4	88.6	87.4	86.4	85.4	4.8	8.5	11.3	12.5	13.5	14.5	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Group 2	95.6	93.1	90.7	88.6	86.3	84.0	4.3	6.8	9.0	11.1	13.3	15.5	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Group 3	89.8	88.5	84.8	81.7	78.6	75.4	9.2	10.4	13.7	16.5	19.3	22.1	0.9	1.0	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.5
Group 4	96.3	95.3	93.2	91.2	89.4	87.5	3.6	4.6	6.6	8.6	10.4	12.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3

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TABLE 12 - Gross enrolment ratios by level of education[*]

	First Level						Second Level						Third Level					
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
Africa	41.5	50.5	56.1	59.1	59.5	57.4	4.4	7.3	10.5	13.7	16.9	19.5	0.6	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.6
Group 1	8.5	13.5	17.7	20.1	21.5	21.4	0.8	2.0	3.7	4.7	5.5	5.9	---	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Group 2	35.8	38.7	42.3	45.0	44.7	42.1	2.9	4.6	6.4	8.4	10.3	11.5	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2
Group 3	57.3	74.2	76.2	78.4	78.4	75.4	9.3	14.7	19.6	24.8	30.4	35.0	2.2	3.1	3.9	4.7	5.4	6.1
Group 4	70.8	90.4	111.6	119.1	120.7	119.2	4.5	8.3	14.5	20.2	26.1	31.3	0.2	0.5	1.1	1.5	2.1	2.8
Africa	54.1	63.4	69.0	71.0	70.2	66.8	6.5	10.5	14.8	19.0	23.1	26.2	1.1	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.3	3.8
Group 1	13.1	19.6	24.3	26.9	28.3	27.8	1.3	3.2	5.7	7.1	8.2	8.8	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Group 2	47.5	49.5	53.4	55.7	54.7	50.9	4.4	6.7	9.0	11.6	13.9	15.2	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.2	1.7	2.0
Group 3	71.8	89.3	91.3	92.3	90.5	85.7	13.3	20.8	26.9	33.5	40.5	46.1	3.5	4.9	5.7	6.6	7.4	7.9
Group 4	93.2	115.0	134.6	136.5	134.7	131.5	6.9	12.8	21.4	29.2	37.0	44.0	0.4	0.9	1.9	2.7	3.8	5.0
Africa	28.8	37.5	43.1	47.3	48.7	47.9	2.3	3.9	6.2	8.5	10.7	12.7	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.4
Group 1	3.9	7.4	11.2	13.5	14.8	14.9	0.2	0.8	1.7	2.3	2.8	3.1	---	---	---	---	---	---
Group 2	24.2	27.9	31.3	34.3	34.5	33.3	1.3	2.4	3.8	5.3	6.6	7.7	---	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4
Group 3	42.6	58.7	60.9	64.3	66.0	64.8	5.3	8.5	12.2	15.9	20.0	23.7	0.8	1.3	2.0	2.7	3.4	4.2
Group 4	48.8	66.2	88.8	101.6	106.6	106.9	2.2	3.6	7.6	11.5	15.3	18.6	0.04	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.7

*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos,
Unesco/ECA.Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p. 31

TABLE 13 - Percentage of girls in each level of education *

		1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985
AFRICA	First Level	34.8	37.1	38.5	39.9	40.8	41.5
	Second Level	25.8	26.9	29.4	30.7	31.7	32.4
	Third Level	16.9	18.5	22.4	24.2	25.2	27.1
GROUP 1	First Level	23.0	27.4	31.6	33.5	34.4	34.9
	Second Level	14.8	20.3	23.0	24.8	25.8	26.3
	Third Level	5.3	7.3	9.2	7.3	7.5	6.6
GROUP 2	First Level	33.8	36.1	37.1	38.2	38.6	39.4
	Second Level	23.0	26.5	29.9	31.4	32.4	33.5
	Third Level	11.9	12.1	16.3	15.0	15.5	16.1
. GROUP 3	First Level	36.9	39.2	39.6	40.6	41.6	42.4
	Second Level	28.3	28.6	30.7	31.7	32.7	33.5
	Third Level	17.8	20.3	25.5	28.7	31.2	34.1
GROUP 4	First Level	34.7	36.9	40.1	42.7	44.0	44.6
	Second Level	24.5	23.4	26.6	28.6	29.4	29.6
	Third Level	10.7	11.2	12.1	13.3	10.6	12.5

*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member
States, Lagos, Unesco/ECA.Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p. ? -

TABLE 11 - In-school and out-of-school populations (1960-1972) - in millions*

GROUP	Population in the age-group		Increase 1960-1972		Out-of-school population		Increase in out-of-school population		Percentage of out-of-school population		Change in points
	1960	1972		%	1960	1972		%	1960	1972	
6-11 years											
AFRICA	39.3	54.2	14.9	(37.9)	27.2	30.2	3.0	(10.3)	69.1	55.8	- 13.3
Group 1	5.9	7.7	1.8	(30.5)	5.6	6.8	1.2	(21.4)	94.5	87.5	- 7.0
Group 2	18.5	25.5	7.0	(37.8)	13.9	16.8	2.9	(20.9)	75.1	66.0	- 9.1
Group 3	10.2	14.6	4.4	(43.1)	5.6	5.3	-0.3	(-5.6)	54.6	36.6	- 18.0
Group 4	4.7	6.4	1.7	(36.2)	2.1	1.3	-0.8	(-38.1)	45.1	20.1	- 25.0
12-17 years											
AFRICA	32.8	44.2	11.4	(34.8)	28.0	32.6	4.6	(16.4)	85.4	73.9	- 11.5
Group 1	5.0	6.4	1.4	(28.0)	4.8	5.7	0.9	(18.7)	95.9	89.0	- 6.9
Group 2	15.4	20.7	5.3	(34.4)	13.4	16.7	3.3	(24.6)	87.0	81.0	- 6.0
Group 3	8.4	11.8	3.4	(40.5)	6.7	7.6	0.9	(13.4)	79.2	63.9	- 15.3
Group 4	3.9	5.2	1.3	(33.3)	3.1	2.6	-0.5	(-16.1)	79.0	49.8	- 29.2

*Ibid.

29. The following are comments concerning Table 11:

a) Age-group 6-11 years

i) The absolute number of children out-of-school grew by more than 20% in the countries of Groups 1 and 2, i.e., by more than four million children. On the other hand, in Groups 3 and 4 the number dropped by 5.6% and 38%, respectively, that is, taken together, by more than one million children.

ii) The percentage of out-of-school population dropped by 13.3 points for the Region but the dispersion is very great. In Groups 1 and 2 the percentage dropped by 7 and 9 points whilst in Groups 3 and 4 it was reduced by 18 and 25 points, respectively.

b) Age-group 12-17 years

i) The population in this group grew by 11.4 million between 1960 and 1972, out of which 6.8 were enrolled at school. The remaining 4.6 million swelled the out-of-school population which rose from 28 to 32.6 million.

ii) Group 4 was the only one to cut down its out-of-school population by 1/6 for this age-group, which caused the percentage of out-of-school children to drop by 29 percentage points.

TABLE 14*

THIRD-LEVEL ENROLMENT BY GENERAL FIELD OF STUDY (ARTS OR SCIENCES)
MIDDLE AND NORTH AFRICA, 1960, 1965, 1970, 1971, 1972

			(1) Middle Africa					(5) North Africa (ex. Tunisia)				
		(2)	(3)	(4)	Change							Change
	1960	1965	1970	1971	1965-1971	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1965-1972
Percentage of students in arts											
(a) observed	58.4	68.1	65.3	65.3	-2.8	61.6	55.9	55.4	56.9	59.3	+3.4
(b) target	58.4	56.0	50.0	49.0	-7.0	61.6	56.0	50.0	49.0	48.0	-8.0
Percentage of Students in scientific and technological studies											
(c) observed	41.6	31.9	34.7	34.7	+2.8	38.4	44.1	44.6	43.1	40.7	-3.4
(d) target	41.6	44.0	50.0	51.0	+7.0	38.4	44.0	50.0	51.0	52.0	+8.0

(1) Students attending institutions in Middle Africa only. Data for 1972 insufficient.
(2) Figures refer to 83% of the total third-level enrolment in Middle Africa. The remaining 17% are first- or preparatory-year students who have not yet planned their course of study, or students from institutions for which a breakdown of enrolment into arts and sciences is not available.
(3) Figures refer to 77% of total third-level enrolment.
(4) Figures refer to 74% of total third-level enrolment.
(5) For 1965 and 1970 figures refer to 97% of students attending institutions in North Africa; for 1971 and 1972 about 92%.

Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States,
Lagos, Unesco/ECA.Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF .2+., p.33.

Table 15.

Annual (Compounded) Increase in Enrolment, All Levels of Education, for
Periods 1960-1965, 1965-1970, 1970-1972, 1960-1972, Observed & Target, Middle Africa

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* Target based on observed
  enrolment for 1965

** Target based on observed
   enrolment for 1970

Observed

Additional percentage to
equal target

In the case where obser-
ved exceeds target:

Target

Additional percentage to
equal obser-
ved

1st Grade

1st Level

2nd Level

3rd Level

60-65 65-70 70-72 60-72   60-65 65-70 70-72 60-72   60-65 65-70 70-72 60-72   60-65 65-70 70-72 60-72

Y E A R S

*
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*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States,
Lagos, Unesco/ECA.Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p.

Table 16.*
Percentage Distribution, Observed and Target, of Secondary
Level Enrolment with respect to Stream, Middle Africa,
1960, 1965, 1970, 1972, and Target, 1980
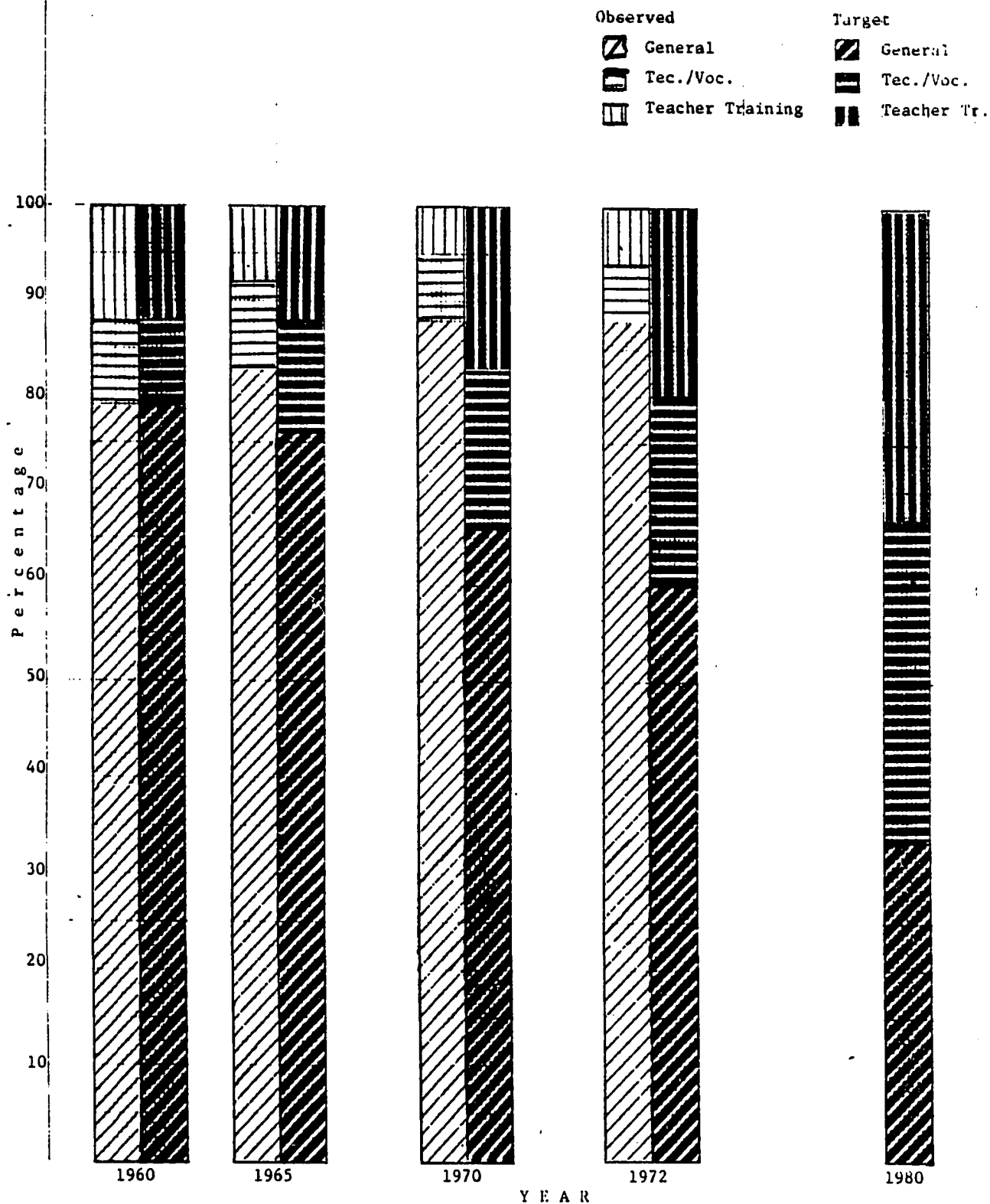
Observed

◪ General

▤ Tec./Voc.

▥ Teacher Training

Target

▨ General

▬ Tec./Voc.

▮▮ Teacher Tr.

Y E A R

*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States,
Lagos, Unesco/ECA.Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p.

Table 17.*
Total Enrolment at All Levels of Education, Middle Africa,
1960, 1965-1972,   Observed and Target
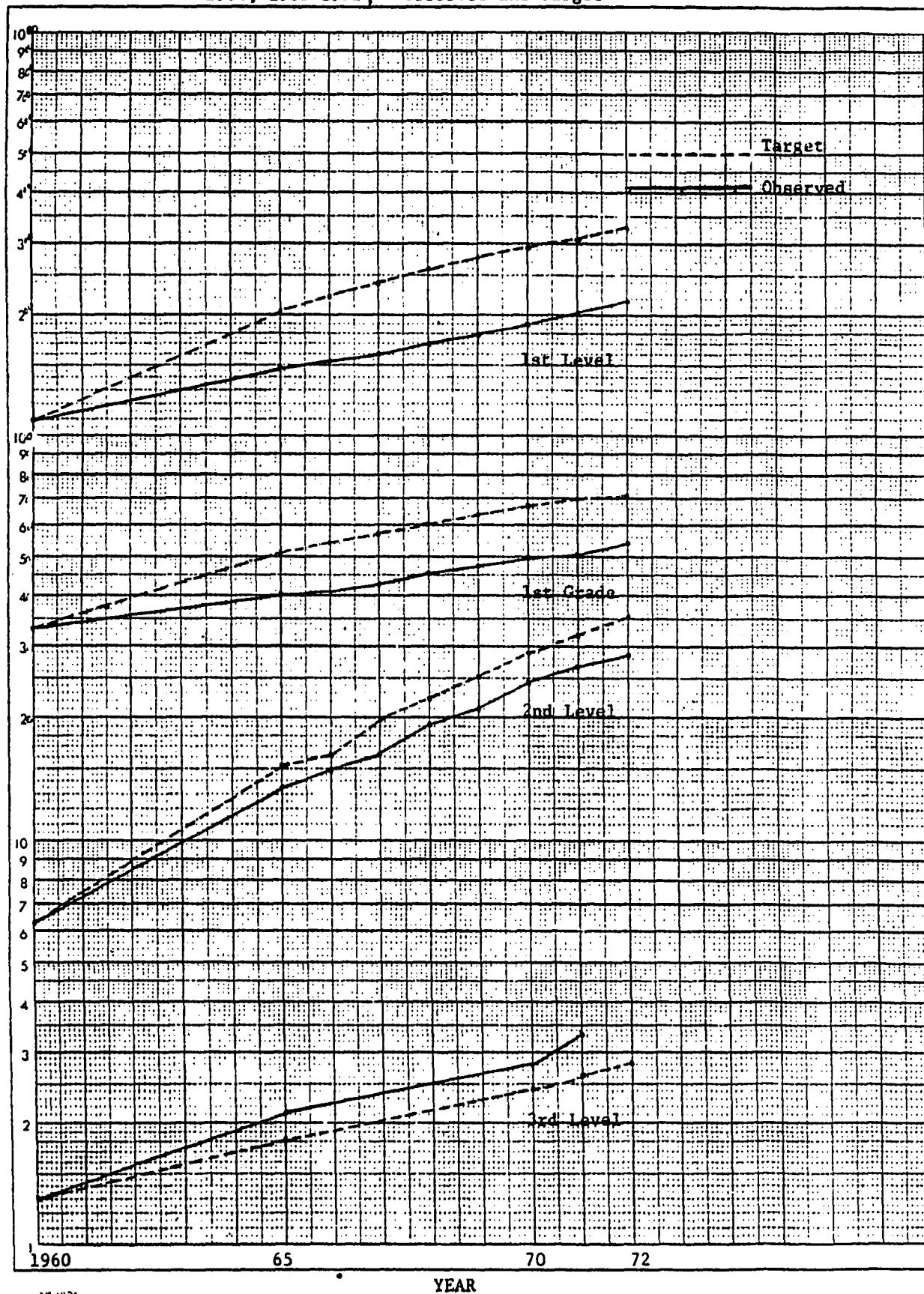
YEAR

N° 1026

Table 18.*

GRAPH 1 - AFRICA: Population and enrolment pyramid, 1960, 1972 and projections for 1985 (in millions)

☐ Non-enrolled population

▨ Enrolled population
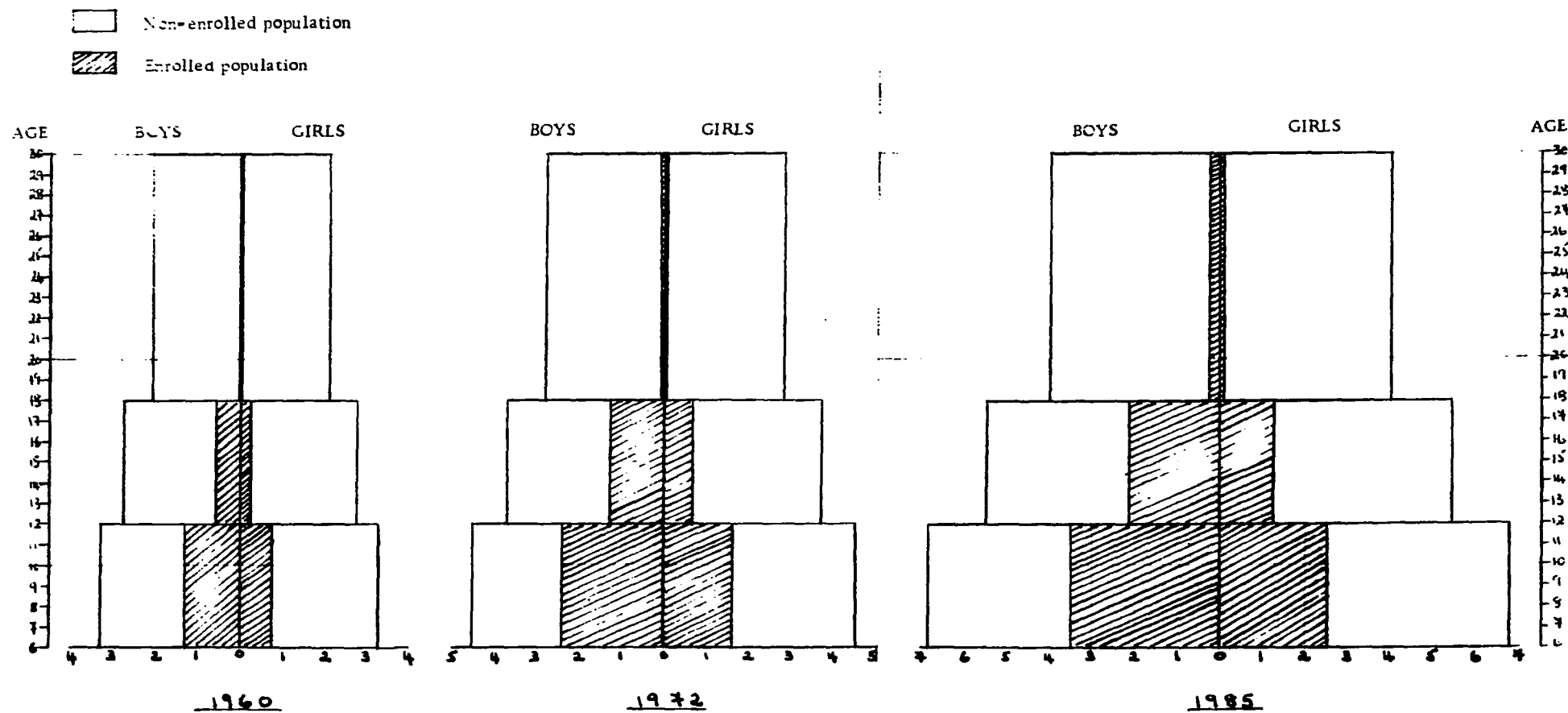
*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States,
Lagos, Unesco/ECA.Ed076/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p. i

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

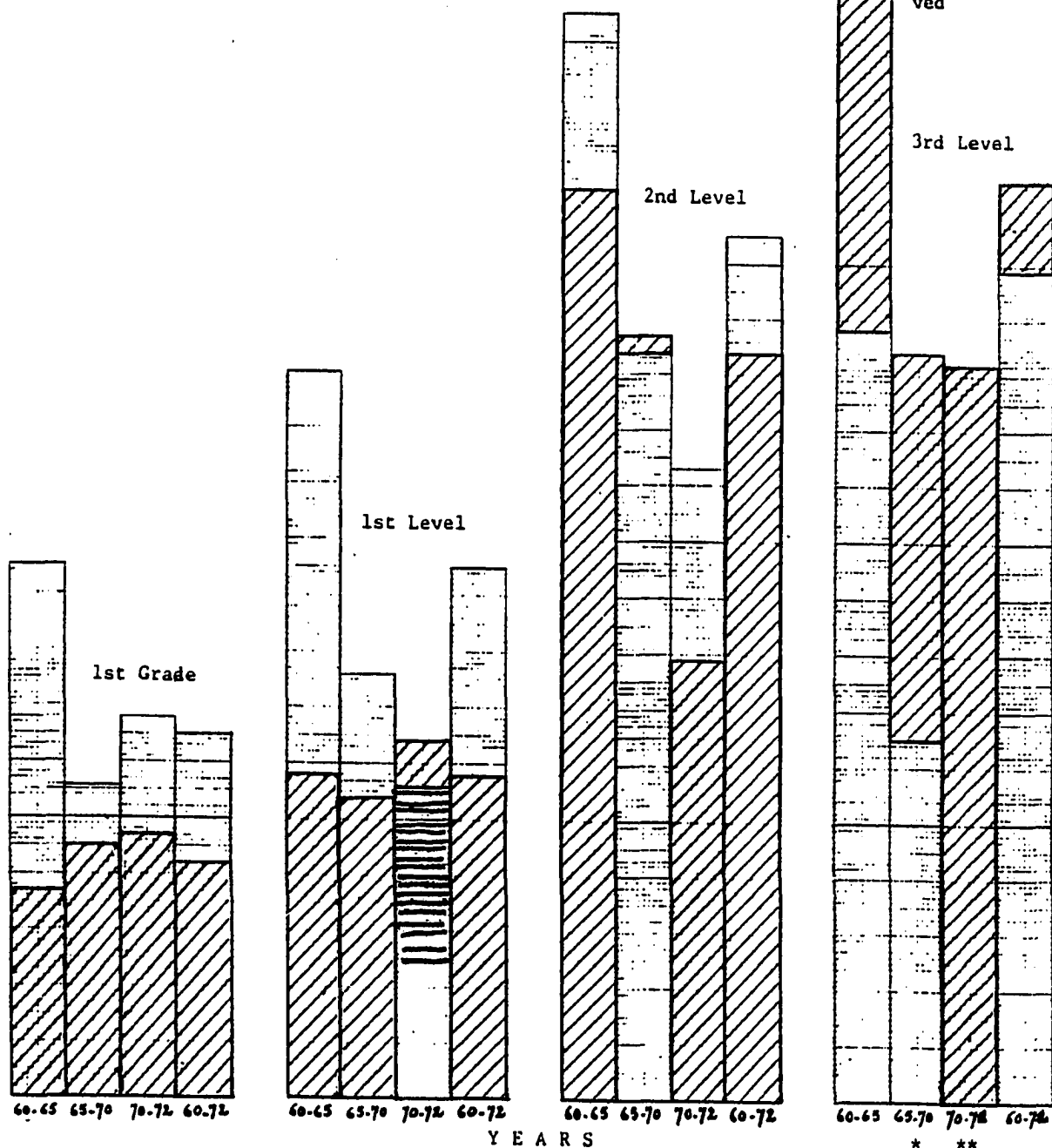In 1960, seventeen African States attained their independence.

At the same time they joined and became member states of Unesco.

These new states found that they were not well informed about African

realities as did Unesco. The appearance on the international scene by

this large group of new states precipitated a kind of international crisis

that needed resolution through concerted action. A decision was then

made at that time to organize a conference of African states on the

development of educational planning principally with a view toward

the establishment of an inventory of educational needs and a program

to meet those needs in the coming years.

The decision became a reality with the convening of the conference

through the joint efforts of the United Nations Economic Commission

for Africa and UNESCO in Addis Ababa in May, 1961.

At the conference it became clear at the very start that the con-

ference offered an opportunity for a collective as well as regional effort

toward not merely the establishment of an inventory or program:

> The Addis Ababa conference became a challenge and a
> commitment: the participants wished to impress world
> opinion with figures intended to convey the magnitude

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of the effort which African governments and non-African donors of aid would have to make in order to provide Africa, in twenty years, with the educational resources so sorely needed on the continent at that time.[1]

The conference established continent-wide targets for the three levels of education in a program divided into three phases: 1965-66 (short-term targets); 1970-71 (medium-term targets); 1980-81 (long-term targets). Specifically, the targets were quantitative rather than qualitative. The growth targets as well as the cost estimates which were worked out and often provided at very short notice and on the basis of rudimentary data, could at the most be only approximate or even speculative. However, the figures arrived at made it possible to give a reasonably accurate idea of the progress which had to be made and of the means required.

This was the very purpose and significance of the quantitative targets contained in the "Outline of a Plan for African Educational Development." Subsequently, the outline plan included a number of recommendations on educational planning and reform, the adaptation of general education to the demands of vocational and technical training, and adult education. The focus of the activities of the member African states was on the quantitative targets so much so that observers tended

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[1]Rene Ochs, "Twelve Years Later: The Revision of the Addis Ababa Plan," Prospectus, Vol. 3, No. 2, 1973.

to confuse discussions about the Addis Ababa plan as synonymous with
the plan itself.

In 1961, there was no question that quantitative expansion was
an urgent necessity. This was recognized in the Addis Ababa plan.
The statistical reports down through the years suggest that so much
still needs to be done in order to attain the original targets set out
by the conference. After twelve years, one observer suggested that
there are three things to be learned from the first phase in the implemen-
tation of the Addis Ababa plan:

> First, quantitative expansion does not by itself,
> unaccompanied by corresponding efforts to achieve
> quality, solve all problems; among those which remain
> are all the problems of adapting education, more satis-
> factorily to the physical , cultural, socio-economic,
> and political environment in which it operates and,
> more fundamentally, the problems of the ultimate ends.[2]

The second thing that came out of the conference was the feel-
ing that

> . . . the quantitative expansion of school enrolment,
> far from sufficing to solve all problems, in fact, creates
> new ones: not only the obvious ones of unemployment
> among young people who have neither a job to go to nor
> any prospect of continuing their studies once they leave
> school . . .[3]

The third and most important lession learned from quantitative ex-

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[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

pansion is that

> . . . qualitative improvement is a stage in, and a pre-
> requisite for, the quantitative expansion of educational
> systems. . . .[4]

The foregoing observations and criticisms were made twelve

years after the conference had set up its targets. The same critic

then suggested that the Addis Ababa targets be revised, not in a sense

of condemnation of the plan because the plan itself made possible the

remarkable expansion of school enrolments.

One enduring significance of the conference was stressed by one

observer as follows:

> It would . . . be unjust to regard the revision of the
> Addis Ababa targets as a passive recording of the in-
> adequacies of an outmoded point of view. It is, per-
> haps, one of the merits of the Addis Ababa plan that,
> as the almost unprecedented growth in African systems
> of education proceeded, it brought to light, or set,
> problems, which educational planners and research
> workers now have to study in depth to prepare the
> way for further progress. . . . The revision of the
> Addis Ababa targets will thus be seen not only as a
> proceeding necessitated by the natural tendency to
> evolve of any human undertaking but also as a contri-
> bution to the study of educational development and
> to a fresh approach to problems, which is seen to
> be necessary both in A rica and in the other regions
> of the world.[5]

In 1976, the Conference of Ministers of Education of African member

States organized by UNESCO with the co-operation of the Organization

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[4]Ibid.

[5]Ibid.

of African Unity and the United Nations Economic Commission for

Africa met in Lagos, Nigeria from January 27 to February 4. The pur-

pose of the conference was to review the development of education in

Africa since the Conference of Ministers of Education held in Nairobi

in 1968. The conference was organized to study the present trends in

education in the region and the problems raised by the renewal of

educational systems, giving due consideration to social, economic

and cultural development needs and in the contest of life-long educa-

tion. The conference also met to define the problems calling for priority

treatment and to establish guidelines for activities in the field of educa-

tional development and renewal, both at the level of the member states

and in the framework of regional and international cooperation.

Thirty-nine African member states of UNESCO and one associate

member were invited to participate in the conference. Thirty-eight sent

delegations. The conference was also attended by 33 observers from

other African states, non-African states, and the Holy See; 16 represen-

tatives of UN organizations, and 48 observers from intergovernmental

and non-governmental organizations and foundations. The conference

was the fourth in a series. The official report of the conference cre-

dited the Addis Ababa Conference as having initiated the regular ex-

change of view on educational policies and strategies as well as on

broadening regional cooperation.

The Lagos conference observed that since the Nairobi conference,

the African states had made considerable efforts to further extend and

improve education. The conference observed that:

> Education in Africa had in the main developed along
> two converging lines: an increase in educational
> opportunities and improvement in the quality of edu-
> cation provided. African States continued to work
> towards the Addis Ababa targets and particularly the
> target of universal primary education which is a pre-
> condition for any effective application of the right to
> education.[6]

The discussion and debates during the conference on trends and

developments from Nairobi to Lagos was productive especially in the

attempt towards identifying certain issues which African governments

may concentrate upon in the coming years with the cooperation of

UNESCO and other agencies concerned with African educational develop-

ments. These issues were identified to be as follows:

1. There may be a need to further define the aims of education

in relation to national policies, and to the political, economic, cul-

tural, and social conditions and requirements of African countries.

2. There is a need to develop new educational strategies which,

in the light of specific conditions and resources, will be aimed at

achieving, the democratization of education through generalized access

to education; equal chances of success; economic development; cul-

tural identity.

3. There is need for reform of educational organization. Such

reform should be more complete and more flexible. It should ensure

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[6]Ibid.

the redistribution of resources between, and the articulation of, school and out-of-school education, reconcile the terminal function and the preparatory role of each type of education in the perspective of life-long education and establish closer links between education and the community as well as the world of work.

4. There is a need for reform in educational content to ensure greater relevance to the natural and cultural environment, closer relations with the world of work, better preparation for citizenship, and active participation in change, cultural identity, the understanding of major world problems and international cooperation.

5. There is a need for teacher training, not only for overcoming shortages and for upgrading, but also for the training of various categories of educational personnel and of new types of educators, as well as the retraining of teachers in view of their new roles.

6. There is need for increased expenditure on, and attention to, the development of research on the above range of issues as well as in the sciences of education in the widest acceptance of the term would be required.

7. There is a need for a wide and systematic exchange of information on experiences and educational innovations, and more generally sub-regional, regional and international cooperation in all aspects of educational development.

During the closing ceremonies, the speeches that were delivered touched on a number of important issues: the educational reforms and innovations that had been introduced in Africa; that these reforms were designed to translate into educational terms the overall objectives assigned to education by the political, economic, social and cultural options adopted by African governments. These reforms converged on three main objectives--democratization, cultural identity, and development. It was emphasized that the search for cultural identity was an essential prerequisite if education was to be made compatible with the aspirations and situation of African peoples and would thus seem also to be the precondition for true democratization. It was hoped that the education of young Africans would be on a dual course of affirmation of national identity together with the recognition of the need for international cooperation.

Paul Bertelsen had once said that a people should have a share in transforming their society and not be merely helpless objects of change. The Addis Ababa Conference provided the initiative for African nations to act in concern in attempting to meet problems of common concern in the field of education. It provided a common forum for the discussion of educational problems as well as providing opportunities for the development of mutual respect and understanding among peoples who though living on the same continent had been separated by different educational systems, political institutions and cultural traditions as a

result of colonialism. It provided a common ground for collective think-ing on the new trends and factors which were affecting the African coun-tries as a group. It also drew the attention of the developed countries to the educational needs of Africa. Although, in the last resort, the benefits of the whole concept has to be viewed in the last resort as the individual effort of each country in the development and use of its own natural and human resources and the utilization of any assistance that might be received from external resources that can make for pro-gress for each country.

1961 was a turning point in African history because on that date the African nations assumed responsibility for their own national des-tinies. Through the concept of regional cooperation, the countries of Africa made a decision to shape such national destinies affirmatively and positively through the technique of regional cooperation and con-sultation.

The conference was a triumph of educational philosophy in that it reaffirmed the belief in education as the key to economic progress, as the instrument toward the attainment of cultural identity, and that the common goals of educational development can be achieved by international cooperation and consultation. The conference and the conferences that followed have merely scratched the surface of massive problems that confronted and still confront the African nations. But the African peoples have confronted their problems with singular unity and

the world at large must now learn from the lessons of the conference

that the problems of mankind are universal and if they have to be

solved, they must be solved through the solidarity of all nations.

Conclusions and Recommendations

One important result of the Addis Ababa Plan on the Development

of Education was the encouragement given to research on African edu-

cational problems, especially in the area of national educational

planning and development. The research studies that have resulted

from the conference are actually better known outside Africa than in

the African nations which could benefit from them. It is quite paradoxi-

cal to note that the African people do not take these research studies

seriously. Some of the reasons for this may be:

1. An excessive number of projects causes disinterest among

those Africans expected to implement the research.

2. In most cases, the finding become obsolete even before they

are published. A change in government, or an economic or social ca-

tastrophe could change things overnight.

3. Many researchers advance recommendations that are out of

touch with the reality of native conditions in Africa.

4. An apparent lack of a reading audience causes a setback in

social, political and economic plans and projects.

5. Follow-up studies tend to be manipulated by a select few.

Africa needs a philosophy of education, especially a philosophy of education that encourages independent critical thinking. If education in Africa must fulfill its mission, the following recommendations are in order:

1. There must be increased efforts to reshape school curriculum which blends with African conditions and interests and reflects the fabric of African life and aspirations and must contribute to the development of national pride and unity.

2. It must utilize all possible educational experiences and must consider human endeavors in the process of establishing a person's potential for full and purposeful participation in life.

3. African scholars must create an educational system which should be an expression of freedom in a mode of creativity exemplifying values involving a wide range of personal expression that leads to a development of social responsibility.

4. Education in Africa must combine literary, technical and moral subjects in the curriculum of the school. A balance must be maintained among these subjects. The need for technicians and their productive skills must not be permitted to destroy African educational thought which puts an emphasis on moral behavior as defined by that society which thus insures its own survival and continuity.

5. Educational systems imported from other countries are seldom adequate in solving African problems and often tend to denationalize

the African. Therefore, it is wise for Africans to develop and promote the evolution of educational systems that are truly African by origin.

6. In order to reach the educational targets set by the Addis Ababa Conference, educational growth must be the primary goal of each nation. Education must be an activity in which all citizens, teachers, and students participate. Lifelong learning must be a complimentary goal.

7. It is the desire of all the African nations to attain some degree of progress in social, political and economic spheres. Indoctrination for and by revolution is costly, dangerous, and unpredictable. This desire can best be achieved through education. The goals have been set. It is now up to the African peoples to attain those goals.

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APPENDIX "A"

African countries which were independent before 1950,
and their former colonial names.

Source: Africa and the United States (Boston: 1961)

African States Independent Before 1950

Name		Date of Independence	Former Name
Short Form	Long Form		
1. Liberia	The Republic of Liberia	July 26, 1847	The Free and Independent Republic of Liberia
2. Ethiopia	Kingdom of Ethiopia		
3. Egypt	United Arab Republic (Egyptian Region)	1936	Egypt
4. South Africa	Republic of South Africa	May 31, 1910	The Union of South Africa

The New States (1950-October 1961)

Short Form	Long Form	Date of Independence	Former Name
5. Libya	United Kingdom of Libya	December 24, 1951	Libya
6. Sudan	Republic of Sudan	January 1, 1956	Anglo-Egyptian Sudan
7. Morocco	Kingdom of Morocco	March 2, 1956	French Morocco, Spanish Morocco, and Tangier International Zone
8. Tunisia	Republic of Tunisia	March 20, 1956	Tunisia
9. Ghana	Republic of Ghana	March 6, 1957	Gold Coast Colony and British Togoland
10. Cameroun	Cameroun Federation	January 1, 1960 Federation: October 1, 1961	French Cameroun (or French Cameroons) and former British Southern Cameroons

| Name | | Date of | Former Name |
Short Form	Long Form	Independence	

<p style="text-align:center">The New States (1950-October 1961)
(Continued)</p>

| Name | | Date of | Former Name |
Short Form	Long Form	Independence	
11. Togo	Republic of Togo	April 27, 1960	French Togo
12. Malagasy	Malagasy Republic	June 26, 1960	Magadascar and dependencies
13. Congo	Republic of the Congo	June 30, 1960	Belgian Congo
14. Somalia	Somali Republic	July 1, 1960	Somalia and British Somaliland
15. Dahomey	Republic of Dahomey	August 1, 1960	Dahomey)
16. Guinea	Republic of Guinea	October 2, 1958	French Guinea)
17. Niger	Republic of Niger	August 3, 1960	Niger) former
18. Upper Volta	Republic of Upper Volta	August 5, 1960	Upper Volta (Volta)) French
19. Ivory Coast	Republic of Ivory Coast	August 7, 1960	Ivory Coast) West
20. Senegal	Republic of Senegal	September 24, 1960	Senegal) Africa
21. Mali	Republic of Mali	September 24, 1960	Soudan)
22. Mauritania	Islamic Republic of Mauritania	November 28, 1960	Mauritania)
23. Chad	Republic of Chad	August 11, 1960	Chad)
24. Central African Republic	Central African Republic	August 13, 1960	Ubangi Shari) former) French
25. Congo	Republic of Congo	August 15, 1960	Middle Congo) Equatorial
26. Gabon	Gabon Republic	August 17, 1960	Gabon) Africa
27. Nigeria	Federation of Nigeria	October 1, 1960	Nigeria (colony and protectorate), and former British Northern Cameroons
28. Sierra Leone	Sierra Leone	April 27, 1961	Sierra Leone (colony and protectorate)

Name		Date of	Former Name
Short Form	Long Form	Independence	

<p style="text-align:center">Territories Scheduled for Independence Later in 1961</p>

29. Tanganyika	Tanganyika	December 9, 1961	U.S. Trust Territory administered by the United Kingdom

<p style="text-align:center">Areas Still Dependent</p>

Name	Status
Algeria	Administered as a department of France
Angola	Administered as an overseas province of Portugal
Basutoland	British High Commission Territory
Bechuanaland	British Protectorate
Cabinda	Administered as a part of Angola by Portugal
French Somaliland	French Overseas Territory
Fernando Poo	Administered as a province of Spain
Gambia	British Colony and Protectorate
Ifni	Administered as a province of Spain
Kenya	British Colony and Protectorate
Mozambique	Administered as an overseas province of Portugal

Name	Status
Portuguese Guinea	Administered as an overseas province of Portugal
Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland	
Nyasaland	British Protectorate
Northern Rhodesia	British Protectorate
Southern Rhodesia	Self-governing British Colony
Ruanda-Urundi	U.N. Trust Territories administered by Belgium
Rio Muni	Administered as a province of Spain
Sao Tome and Principe	Administered as a province of Spain
South-West Africa	Administered by South Africa, originally under a 1920 League of Nations Mandate
Swaziland	British High Commission Territory
Uganda	British Protectorate
Zanzibar	British Protectorate

TABLE 1
Basic Data

Country	Population 1975 (millions)	GNP 1975 ($billions)	Per Capita GNP				Military 1976 ($ thousands)	Education		Independence
			1975 ($)	1965-1975 growth rate,%	1980 ($)	1990 ($)		1970 (%of age group)*	1980	
Nigeria	80.0	28.8"	330	5.3	425	720	270'	34- 4-0.3	60- 8-1	1960
Egypt	37.3	11.3	310	1.0	325	360	400.0	68-32-7.8	70-40-12	1922
Ethiopia	28.0	2.9	100	1.3	105	125	65'	18- 4-0.2	25- 8-0.5	+
Zaire	24.9	5.5	220	2.0	245	300	55'	u-11-0.8	u-15-1	1960
South Africa	24.5	29.2	1,200	2.0	1,920	3,000	109	u=27-4.8	u-15.1	1910
Sudan	17.8	2.8	150	0	150	150	50	33- 6.1.0	50-10-2	1956
Morocco	17.3	8.4	520	3.1	605	825	90	55-12-1.2	65-20-3	1956
Algeria	16.8	11.1"	680	3.8	790	1,100	85	75-11-1.7	u-20-3	1962
Tanzania	15.2	3.1	170	1.9	185	230	25	36- 3-0-2	55- 5-0.5	1961
Kenya	13.4	3.1	220	3.1	255	350	9	64- 9-1.0	85-15-2	1963
Uganda	11.6	3.4	250	0	250	260	25'	50- 4-0.6	55-4-0.7	1962
Ghana	9.9	5.3	460	0.8	480	520	20'	58- 9-0.7	60-12-1	1957
Mozambique	8.7	3.6	400	3.8	480	700	21	70- 9-0.5	75-10-0.5	1975
Madagascar	8.7	1.7	190	0.6	195	210'	17'	85-11-1.0	u-12-1.5	1960
Cameroon	6.4	2.4	330	3.7	395	600	10	u-9-0.6	u-15-1.5	1960
Zimbabwe	6.3	3.2	510	2.9	565	750	17	u- 5-1.0	u- 9-2	1978?
Ivory Coast	6.2	3.6	500	3.9	605	890	8	75- 5-1.2	u-20-2	1960
Angola	5.9	3.4"	580	3.5	690	970	35	75- 9-0.5	85-12-0.5	1960
Upper Volta	5.9	0.6	100	0	100	100	10'	13- 1-0.0	20- 1-0.3	1960
Mali	5.7	0.6	100	2.4	115	145	6'	20- 3-0.1	30- 4-0.3	1960
Tunisia	5.7	4.4"	760	5.8	1,000	1,770	21'	u-21-2.3	u-30-4	1956
Guinea	5.5	0.7	130	1.1	135	140	10	33-13-0.6	35-10-1	1958
Malawi	5.0	0.8	150	3.5	175	250	4	50- 2-1.0	60- 5-1.5	1964
Zambia	4.9	2.7	340	-0.5	330	350	17	80-12-1.0	u-15-2	1964
Niger	4.6	0.6	130	-3.0	130	130	4'	14- 1-0.0	20- 2-0.3	1960
Sengegal	4.2	2.0	370	-0.4	370	370	11	43-10-0.5	60-15-1	1960
Rwanda	4.2	0.4	90	1.5	100	115	4'	75- 2-0.2	70- 2-0.5	1962
Chad	4.0	0.5	120	1.4	130	150	11'	30- 2-0.0	30- 2-0.1	1960
Burundi	3.8	0.4	100	1.3	105	115	7'	28- 2-0.2	30- 2-0.1	1962
Somalia	3.2	0.3	100	1.0	105	115	31'	10- 4-0.4	30-10-0.5	1960
Benin	3.1	0.4	140	0.5	145	165	3'	40- 5-0.1	50- 5-1	1960

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TABLE 1 (Continued)

Sierra Leone	2.8	0.6	200	0.8	210	235	3	35- 9-0.5	40-10-1		1961
Libya	2.4	11.5"	4,270	5.8	5,400	8,800	25'	u-22-3.4	u-50-10		1951
Togo	2.2	0.6	270	1.5	290	335	4'	75- 8-1.5	u-12-1		1960
Cent Afr. Emp.	1.8	0.5	230	0.6	235	250	4'	73- 5-0.1	85- 9-1		1960
Liberia	1.7	0.7	410	2.1	450	540	6'	43-12-1.1	70-20-2		+
Congo Rep.	1.4	0.7"	500	2.6	570	735	10'	u-25-2.2	u-60-5		1960
Mauritania	1.3	0.4	310	2.7	345	450	15'	16- 3-?	20- 5-0.5		1960
Lesotho	1.2	0.2	180	3.5	215	300	1	95- 7-0.5	u-15-1		1966
Namibia	0.8	0.9	980	3.0	1,135	1,525	0	na	na		1978?
Botswana	0.7	0.2	290	9.0	300	670	1	66- 8-0.3	80-15-1		1966
Guinea-Bissau	0.5	0.2	330	5.0	420	590	5	38- 6-0.0	75- 9-0.5		1973
Gabon	0.5	1.0"	1,760	8.0	2,400	3,500	3	u-16-0.4	u=30-3		1960
Swaziland	0.5	0.2	420	6.0	560	1,000	2	84-17-0.4	u-35-1		1968
Gambia	0.5	0.1	180	3.0	210	280	1	32- 9-0.0	40-15.0.5		1965
Equat. Guinea	0.3	0.1	260	-1.0	250	250	5	u-17-0.0	u-20-0.0		1968
Djibouti	0.2	0.2	1,580	2.0	1,750	2,200	0	na	na		1977

Sources: UN International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, UNESCO. U.S. Arms Control and Disarmament Agency, OECD.

*Figures refer to percentage of 6 to 12, 13 to 18, and 20- to 24 year-old groups in primary, secondary, and higher education.
' Indicates military regime.
" Indicates petroleum exporter.
u Indicates universal primary education.
= Indicates not applicable.
Richest countries are solid underlined: poorer countries are dotted underlined.
na = not available.

APPENDIX "B"

Declaration, Resolution and Recommendations
of the 1976 Lagos Conference

Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African
States, Lagos, 1976. Paris: UNESCO, 1976.

DECLARATION

The Regional Conference of Ministers of Education
of African Member States, meeting in Lagos from 27 January
to 4 February 1976, organized by the United Nations
Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizaticn with
the co-operation of the Organization of African Unity and
the Economic Commission for Africa,

After examining the development of the educational
situation in Africa since the Addis Ababa Conference of
1961 and the Nairobi Conference of 1968,

(i)   Noting that the educational situation has
developed in two complementary directions:
there has been, on the one hand, an
increase in educational facilities with
a view to making education generally
available and, on the other, an improvement
in content, structures and methods,

(ii)   Taking note of the considerable efforts
which have been devoted to making education
generally available and the noteworthy
progress which has been achieved, without,
however, making it possible to forsee for

many years yet the realization of universal

education in a great number of African

States,

(iii)   Noting that many and varied reforms of

the educational process have been intro-

duced, mainly since the Nairobi Conference,

with a view to adapting education systems

to development objectives, but that in

most cases these reforms still do not

proceed from an overall conception of

change,

(iv)   Conscious of the distance yet to be covered

before education systems are fully adapted

to aspirations, options and realities

and also to the overall objectives of

development,

(v)   Bearing in mind the need to continue

and intensity the efforts to promote

education,

Adopts, this fourth day of February 1976, this

declaration with a view to guiding the efforts of the

African Member States and of the competent regional and

international organizations.

1. BASIC PRINCIPLES

1.1   Since education is an inalienable right which
all should be able to exercise, and since the resources
available are of necessity limited in relation to the
scale of the needs to be met, systems of education and
training should be designed on a properly planned basis,
intended for and equally well adapted to all individuals,
whatever their age, sex, social and occupational status
and wherever they live.

1.2   Since education is a determining factor in
economic, social and cultural development, the systems and
structures whereby it is provided should express the national
political will, should be the subject of careful thought
and should be closely linked with the other systems upon
which development depends and with the local communities
on which the full development of educational activity
depends.

1.3   In the search for relevant solutions to the
problems of the renovation of education in Africa, the
similarity in nature or in intensity of the foreseeable
difficulties and the similarity of the obstacles caused
by the initial conditions and by the after-effects of
colonialism should prompt the African peoples to concert
their efforts in order to give each other mutual support
at both sub-regional and regional levels. Intergovernmental
and multilateral co-operation for basic thinking and

research in education, for the planning and organization
of education systems and for the definition of the most
effective methods and contents is a strategic necessity
upon which the exploitation by the countries of Africa
of the experience acquired throughout the world is in
great part contingent.

2. THE ULTIMATE AIMS, ROLE AND PURPOSE OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

2.1   The far-reachinig changes, not to say radical
transformations, which must be introduced into existing
educational systems are becominig an urgent necessity.
They stems from the new mission which those responsible
for education in Africa intend to assign to education
in order to strengthen their independence, to make good
the deficiencies caused by colonialsim and to promote
an authentic, modern African society. In this innovative
context which, in many cases, is revolutionary in character,
education should not only be made responsible for passing
on values and knowledge to the younger generations, but
should also produce fully conscious citizens and future
productive workers in a dynamic context; it should alter
ways of thinking and attitudes among individuals and among
groups in order to initiate the necessary social changes
and to provide an impetus to change in the direction of
progress, justice and liberty.

The tasks

2.2   In this context, the main tasks of education
are:

(i)   to educate the young while at the same
         time awakening in them a critical aware-
         ness of the status of their peoples and
         developing in each individual the values
         of work, progress, and the cultural values
         of their civilization;

(ii)   to inculcate and strengthen patriotism
         and dedication to all causes which are
         in the national interest;

(iii)   to promote the spirit of mutual understand-
         ing and readiness to fight for the ideals
         peace and universal solidarity;

(iv)   to dispense general scientific and technical
         knowledge so as to secure the advancement
         of the nation and to underpin the all-
         round development of society;

(v)   to provide a new form of education so
         as to establish close ties between the
         school and work; such an education, based
         on work and with work in mind, should
         break down the barriers of prejudice
         which exist between manual and intellectual
         work, between theory and practice, and
         between town and countryside.

Practical objectives
=====================

2.3   In terms of practical objectives, all these
tasks make it incumbent on African schools:

    (i)   to share in the work of raising the intel-
            lectual level of the whole of society
            and, to this end, to penetrate society
            wherever needed so as to be accessible
            to every individual regardless of sex,
            age, social or economic status or of
            the milieu from which the individual
            comes. This objective makes it necessary
            for education to use national languages
            as the vehicle of thought and of science
            and technology;

    (ii)   to contribute to the economic development
            of the country by producing the necessary
            quantity of cadres of appropriate quality
            needed by the nation;

    (iii)   to motivate young people and to enlist
            their energies to carry out major tasks
            of national importance;

    (iv)   to avoid creating dead-end situations
            which might be regarded by pupils and
            their families as constituting a source
            of injustice or as an impediment to the
            intellectual advancement of the masses;

(v)   to democratize the structures as well
        as the content of education and to enable
        every individual who so requires and
        possesses the necessary potential to
        continue his vocational and cultural
        education in appropriate institutions
        and in appropriate forms;

(vi)   to establish suitable links between educa-
        tion, training and employment activities,
        maintaining very close liaison with the
        environment or the local community as
        all-round development demands;

(vii)   to devise effective methods for evaluating
        the results obtained and for pupil guidance.

The urgent needs

2.4   To achieve this end, education should be national
and democratic, authentic and modern.

(i)   The concept of democracy in education
involves more than merely the idea of generalizing all
or part of basic education, the ultimate aim of which
is considered as being to provide children of a given
age with elementary practice in using the instruments
of conceptual thought.

(ii)   The assertion of the national character
of education does not conflict with a concern for suitabil-
ity and flexibility arising from the variety, within one

and the same country of the intellectual resources and
challenges of the environment.

(iii) Authenticity and modernity in education are
an effective combination for rejecting, at the level of
institutions and at the level of content, imported patterns
and ready-made formulae. The receptivity of educational
systems and individual experience towards the universal
heritage of knowledge as well as the harmonizing of educa-
tional institutions with the other national institutions
on which development and progress depend are contingent
thereon. They ensure intellectual and scientific independ-
ence, protect against alienation and subjugation, and
facilitate dialogue on a universal scale in the spirit
of the new international order.

2.5   These pressing requirements must be satisfied
by the full and complete restoration of the national lan-
guages as languages of instruction. Whilst they correspond
to the profound aspirations of the general public, and
ensure for the present and the future the reconciliation
that the African needs with his environment and his inte-
gration into society at large, they place the educational
effort in a new dialectical relationship which ensures
the dissemination of culture and knowledge in society
and the intellectual emancipation of the community by
the elimination of any elite status.

An approach of this kind should lead to the
revival of the national languages as vehicles of scientific
and technical progress; it will enable our societies,
freed from all the effects of foreign domination, to contri-
bute in their own unique way to the fruitful dialogue
upon which the full development of the various civilizations
depends.

This promotion of African national languages
does not preclude, but on the contrary lends itself to
a pragmatic and functional use of foreign languages for
the purpose of fruitful exchanges on a basis of equality.

3. BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATION

3.1   Modern, authentic African education should be
designed and practised in a context of permanence and
continuity in which basic education can only be seen as
the initial phase of a life-long education, common to
all and aimed at developing in each individual those apti-
tudes and behaviour patterns which will make him the active
agent of his own future training and his constant
intellectual advancement.

3.2   In order to achieve this, education should lead
on to a vocational training in conformity with the needs
of production. An introduction to the problems of manage-
ment, administration and the organization of public activi-
ties should have its place in curricula, and educational

activity should proceed in such a way as to enable the bene-
ficiaries as a general rule to participate in the various
phases of the educational process. The linking of the
school with the environment provides safeguards for the
improved functioning and efficiency of the educational
apparatus. The establishment of this linkage calls for:

(i)   a declaration that priority should be
given to educational activities;

(iii)   the working out of new standards of admini-
stration and management, even to the extent of making
each educational institution a production unit.

3.3   The adoption of such a policy presupposes the
complete restructuring of the content of education and
an adaptation of teaching methods as well as rates of
activity. It presupposes, as early as the stage of funda-
mental or basic education, the use of curricula whose
scientific and polytechnical nature should be evident
from the interaction of education with its physical and
social environment. It also implies the definition of
a new role for higher education and scientific research
at the three levels of training, research and production
so that they may be based upon economic and social realities
in order better to respond to the problems of development.
This authentic, endogenous development should be capable
of assimilating and adapting the most successful; foreign
experiments, while at the same time subjecting the premises

for implementation and the results of the innovations
undertaken to analysis and critical reflection.

4. CO-OPERATION IN EDUCATION

4.1   Bilateral and multilateral co-operation on three
levels - sub-regional, regional and international - should
be based on the achievements and readiness for change
of the countries themselves, with a view to:

    (i)   facilitating communication and exchanges
between educational authorities and special-
ists, so as to gain a better knowledge
of experiments undertaken and so as to
compare the action envisaged and the
methods applied;

    (ii)   getting the maximum economic value from
work being carried out in the field of
training, further training and specializa-
tion by the African countries in their
national training, study and research
institutions;

    (iii)   co-ordinating and harmonizing programmes
for the testing, manufacture and distribu-
tion of teaching aids and, more generally,
a wide range of material for formal and
non-formal education, in order to economize
financial resources and make intensive
use of available facilities.

4.2   For this purpose, an appropriate type of liaison
network should be promoted and developed, linking the
departments and individuals involved, at the conceptual,
study and experimentation stages, with innovations in
education. The contribution which multilateral technical
assistance can make to the achievement of Member States'
objectives also needs to be reconsidered in terms of its
philosophy, conception and implementation.

4.3   There should be a permanent body to provide
liaison between the African Ministers of Education in
 the intervals between their conferences. This body should
take the lead in following up the recommendations adopted
and in the periodic evaluation of the results obtained.

4.4   International solidarity makes it incumbent
on the richer countries to contribute to the endogenous
development of the poorest; the form which this contribution
takes and its nature and substance should undergo a reform
so that it is guided by the considerations of principle
and the practical measures resulting from the new inter-
national order.

RESOLUTION No. 1

The Conference,

Bearing in mind the obligations and rights of all Member

States of the United Nations in general and of Unesco

in particular,

Convinced that education, science and culture constitute

essential factors for economic and social development,

Conscious of the invaluable contribution of Unesco in

its field of competence, to the promotion of the develop-

ment of African countries and to the cause of peace,

Emphasizing that the peace towards which Unesco should

contribute, according to its Constitution, cannot be founded

upon the status quo of inequality and injustice, but must

be based on a constant effort to promote the progress

of all peoples, particularly the poorest and those subject

to oppression, racial domination or discrimination,

Concerned at the financial difficulties being experienced

by Unesco as a result of the refusal by certain countries

to pay all or part of their contributions to the Organiza-

tion's budget, in violation of the decisions of the eighteenth

session of the General Conference,

Noting with indignation the campaign of calumny and denigra-

tion systematically waged against Unesco since the

eighteenth session of its General Conference and also

the acts of violence perpetrated against its Headquarters,

1.   Draws the attention of governments, intellectuals,

scientists and artists throughout the world

to the special responsibilities devolving on

them in the present situation to foster truth,

justice and right;

2.   Denounces the pressure brought against the Organi-

zation and the acts of intimidation and aggression

against its staff and its Headquarters;

3.   Expresses its gratitude to all Member States

which hastened to pay their contributions or

to offer loans in order to ensure the continuity

of the work of the Organization;

4.   Invites all Member States of the Organization

to pay their contributions as soon as possible

in accordance with the scale laid down by the

General Conference at its eighteenth session;

5.   Urgently appeals to Member States to respond

without delay to the Director-General's request

for interest-free loans;

6.   Encourages the Director-General in his efforts

to improve the financial situation of the Organi-

zation;

7.   Takes note with great satisfaction of the steps

already taken by the Director-General to provide

the Secretariat with a structure which will
enable it better to deal with the tasks which
devolve upon it in respect of the programming,
supervision and execution of operational projects;

8.   Reaffirms its full confidence in the Director-
        General in the execution of his responsibilities
        particularly during this difficult period;

9.   Requests the Director-General to bring the text
        of this resolution to the attention of each
        member of the Executive Board and every Member
        States of the Organization.

RESOLUTION No. 2

Meeting in Lagos (Nigeria) from 27 January to 4 February
1976, under the auspices of Unesco,

The Ministers of Education of African Member States,

Considering that their meeting is taking place at a time
when Unesco is going through serious difficulties,

Regarding as alarming the obstacles which tend to slow
down or hamper the activities of the Organization,

Considering that such manoeuvres are, in point of fact,
directed against the movement to emancipate the Third
World,

Express their satisfaction at seeing an African as the
executive head of Unesco;

Appreciate the determination with which Mr. Amadou-Mahtar
M'Bow in his capacity as Director-General, is ensuring

that the Constitution of Unesco is respected and that

all the resolutions of its General Conference are applied,

especially those which condemn all forms of injustice,

discrimination and racism and which contribute to the

strengthening of an international co-operation founded

on the general progress of the peoples and the mutual

appreciation and sovereign equality of all Member States;

Encourage him strongly in the efforts which he is making

to involve Unesco in the establishment of a new international

economic, social and cultural order;

Assure him of their resolute support and their aid in

all his efforts to overcome the obstacles to which his

action may give rise.

I. Development of education - general principles and orientation

RECOMMENDATION 1

The Conference,

Taking note of the analysis of the general educational situation in Africa since the Nairobi Conference in 1968, as set out in document ED-76/MINEDAF/3, Chapter I, the general conclusions of which it approves as regards the reasons for, and the need for, a complete reappraisal of the educational systems inherited from the colonial period,

Considering that the majority of existing educational systems are selective systems inherited from the colonial era which are no longer in keeping with the aspirations and fundamental needs of African populations,

Considering that the enrolment in schools of all children of school age remains one of the basic objectives of the African Member States of Unesco,

Considering the financial of education to be a major obstacle to its development in African States,

Considering the importance of statistics on population and distribution by age-group, for the purposes of planning,

Considering that the Member States attending the Conference are all greatly interested in the question of basic

education for all, and particularly for young people from

14 to 16 years of age, with a view to making more rational

use of their human resources,

Considering that there is no para-primary or post-primary

structure available for young people leaving or dropping

out of primary school and that they have received no train-

ing which could make them productive members of society,

Considering that the absence of training structures at

para-primary and post-primary level or of a primary school

training slanted in the direction of production is one

of the obstacles to quantitative and qualitative progress

in education in Africa,

Recommends to African Member States:

    (1)   that the objectives and goals of educational

           systems be reconsidered in the light

           of the changing economic, social and

           cultural needs of independent Africa,

           and especially in view of the declared

           policy of the new international order;

    (2)   that greater priority be given to research

           in education for economic development,

           and more money be allocated for research

           purposes;

    (3)   that a start be made, in all African

           States, on an all-round and complete

           reform of educational systems, with the

effective participation of the masses,

in order to adapt those systems to the

real problems and preoccupations of the

community, establishing precise educational

objectives in keeping with available

capacity;

(4) that the preparation of projections based

on these statistics be encouraged;

(5) that statistical studies be promoted in

order to keep track of trends in the

various types of non-formal education,

such as adult education, education through

mass media and self-education;

(6) that courses of education be adapted

to the realities of the countries and

to their present and future needs;

(7) that studies of educational strategies

suitable for inculcating the spirit of

initiative and production in the masses

be initiated;

(8) that productive practical work be generally

introduced in schools offering general,

technical and vocational courses, whether

at primary, secondary or higher level;

(9) that the use of locally available resources

for the manufacture and production of

teaching equipment on a massive scale

be encouraged and made general practice;

(10)   that innovations in education aimed at

making students employable be continued

and intensified so that education is

indeed viewed as an economic investment;

Recommends to Unesco:

(11)   that it undertake studies:

(i)   on expenditure on education in

African Member States and propose

ways and means to reduce educational

costs;

(ii)   with a view to placing greater

emphasis in primary education

on the spirit of production and

initiative;

(iii)   with a view to the introduction

of para-primary and post-primary

training structures.

RECOMMENDATION 2

The Conference,

Considering that every education system is geared to the

political and socio-economic objectives of the State,

Considering that the colonial system provided an education

in the African States which was deliberately slanted towards

the justification and maintenance of its domination over

our peoples,

<u>Recognizing</u> that at the present time African education is suffering from serious shortcomings inherited from the colonial period, shortcomings both at the level of educational institutions and at that of programme content and the direction in which it is oriented,

<u>Considering</u> that African schools are consequently still to a large extent cut off from the social milieu,

<u>Convinced</u> that the new Africa should rethink its educational system in order to readapt it fundamentally to the new demands of its economic and social development,

<u>Recommends</u>:

A.   to the Member States:

      1.   that they undertake the decolonization and nationalization of all their educational systems and curricula in order to gear them essentially to the political, economic, social, scientific and cultural preoccupations of our peoples;

      2.   that they effectively integrate the school with life by such means as:

            (a)   the introduction of productive work as one of the elements in the education of the child;

            (b)   the suitable qualification of pupils in accordance with the main development sectors of the nation;

> (c) the organization of schools in such
> a way that they may eventually become
> self-managed and self-financed units;
>
> (d) the democratization of education
> so that schooling may cease to be
> the privilege of a few children;
> in this connection, free education
> should be one of the objectives
> to be attained;
>
> (e) the introduction and development
> of the use of national languages
> as languages of instruction in the
> schools and universities;

B. to Unesco:

> 1. that it study the possibility of helping
> to establish publishing houses in each
> area in order to solve the textbook problems
> that will necessarily arise from mass
> education in the national languages;
>
> 2. that it study the possibilities of helping
> African Member States to equip schools
> for technical and craft education.

RECOMMENDATION 3

The Conference,

Aware of the alarming and growing problem of unemployed
school leavers in the African Member States,

Conscious of the adverse social, economic and political

repercussions of this problem,

Desirous of a better adaptation of the content of education

to the needs and aspirations of the recipients,

Appeals to the African Member States, in an effort to

solve this problem:

(i)   to make their education creative, productive,

resourceful and relevant to the social,

economic, political and cultural setting

of each country, both in theory and in

practice;

(ii)   to ensure the acceptability of changes

in the educational systems to the community

it serves by preparing the latter for

such changes;

(iii)   to ensure that the educational plan and

its implementation are seen to be not

only an integral part of a nation's overall

economic and social objectives but also

a tool for their implementation;

(iv)   to ensure that universities and research

bodies undertake systematic studies of

the economic, sociological, and psycholo-

gical aspects of the life of the population

with a view to defining realistic education-

al objectives; international or bilateral

assistance could be provided for these
studies;

(v)   to strengthen their educational planning
and administrative machinery, which should
provide a solid framework for internal
improvements in educational activities;

(vi)   to stimulate and contribute to the systema-
tic exchange of regional and international
experience on educational innovations,
with special emphasis on analyses of
problems of planning, implementation
and evaluation of educational reforms
in the context of various social, economic
and cultural development.

RECOMMENDATION 4

The Conference,

Considering that the African languages constitute the
most appropriate instruments to express the genius of
our peoples,

Considering that an education given in these languages
offers invaluable pedagogical and cultural advantages,

Recommends:

1.   that African Member States, Unesco, OAU
and other competent organizations give
effect to Recommendation No. 20 adopted
by the Intergovernmental Conference on

Cultural Policies in Africa, held in
Accra in November 1975, concerning the
use of African languages as languages
of instruction;

2. that Unesco, Unicef, OAU and other competent
international organizations assist in
the development of the literature in
national languages which will be needed
to support full implementation of the
decision on the use of national languages
in education.

RECOMMENDATION 5

The Conference,

Moving with satisfaction the contribution made by Unesco
to the development of science and technological education
in Africa,

Realizing that the present heavy dependence of African
countries on imported technologies and foreign technical
personnel is largely due to the lack of adequate facilities
in local secondary and post-secondary institutions enabling
students to acquire a scientific mind and technical skills
for practical application,

Regretting the vast opportunities offered by public works
and industrial activities for the acquisition of practical
technological skills and know-how that are generally unused
in African countries,

Recalling the special plea of the sixth and seventh special sessions of the United Nations General Assembly for the transfer of science and technology to developing countries and the need to assist them in developing indigenous technologies,

1. Calls upon African governments to accord high priority to the development of appropriate policies, programmes and institutional arrangements for promoting technology research; and to the provision of opportunities for practical participation in public works and private industrial projects that will enable students of secondary and post-secondary educational institutions, especially technical students, to acquire practical experience and skills as essential requirements in their training;

2. Requests Unesco, in collaboration with ECA to assist African Member States to undertake studies of ways and means of:

    (1) introducing middle-level skill-related technological subjects into secondary school curricula; and

    (ii) correcting the prevailing imbalance in the subject structure and course offerings of post-secondary educational institutions in relation to high-level manpower

requirements, especially science and tech-
nological skills;

3.   Further requests Unesco, acting in collaboration
with ECA, OAU, UNIDO and other appropriate inter-
national organizations, to undertake a study
of the feasibility of establishing an African
regional research centre for the study, adaptation,
development and promotion of technology specifically
appropriate to the development needs of African
countries; and if sufficiently justified, to
take the necessary action for the establishment
and development of such a centre, which should
operate in collaboration with national and regional
curriculum development centres;

4.   Invites the Director-General of Unesco to intensify
his efforts to assist African Member States
to strengthen national structures and programmes
for the promotion and development of science
and technological education in African countries.

RECOMMENDATION 6

The Conference,

Considering the acute shortage of reading material and
the unprecendented need to maintain and enhance reading
habits and skills gained, for the life-long education
of newly literate adults,

Recommends that the African Member States do everything

in their power to make available to the newly literate
the materials which can prevent them relapsing into
illiteracy;

Recommends further that all possible assistance be afforded
by Unesco to meet the needs to Member States so that they
can produce and test locally relevant and suitable reading
materials to help new literates to improve and develop
their newly acquired skills and knowledge.

RECOMMENDATION 7

The Conference,

Considering that each individual has the right to a minimum
of education which will enable him to realize his potential
and contribute to the economic, social and cultural develop-
ment of the nation to which he belongs,

Recommends:

1. that efforts be made by African Member
States to identify handicapped youths
in the society,; and to set up suitable
educational facilities for these handicapped
children;

2. that training facilities be established
on African soil for teachers of handicapped
children.

II. Innovations and educational reforms

RECOMMENDATION 8

In Conference,

Bearing in mind the great strides that African Member

States have made in their educational development since

independence,

Considering that educational systems need to be overhauled

to bring them into line with the cultural, social and

economic realities of the African environment,

Aware of the heavy financial burden that educational

programmes impose on the African Member States,

Conscious also of the great efforts of the African Member

States to undertake planned reforms of their education

in order to adapt it to their environments so that it

serves the set policies of their respective countries,

Considering that there exist throughout Africa similar

educational situations which lead each of the states to

introduce numerous innovations,

Aware of the fact that a number of African States have

embarked upon various useful innovations in their educational

systems,

Recognizing the originality and quality of the innovations

introduced in certain countries,

Considering that exchanges between African countries are

more fruitful because of the common historical and cultural

background of our peoples,

Considering that, in the field of educational innovation
as well as in thei political and economic fields, the
African States should join forces and co-operate closely,

Considering that one of the most important means for such
co-operation is the exchange of information, which is
a way of getting to know each other,

Considering that the majority of Member States deplore
the fact that no such inter-African information network
exists,

Convinced that only co-operation and planning in their
field will enable our States to develop a system of education
in conformity with the objectives of progress for our
peoples,

Considering that infrequent meetings of ministers and
experts at present offer the only opportunity for exchanging
information on educational reforms and innovations undertaken
in Africa,

Considering that all those who intend to modify and renew
their educational systems could and should draw inspiration
from such information,

Considering that Unesco Regional Office for Education
in Africa is already playing a useful clearing-house role
in these fields and is providing expert services,

Appeals to theh African Member States:

> to recognize their educational planning as an
> instrument of innovation and change, particularly
> in their basic and mass education;

to continue with experimentation in respect

of these innovations and, where their resources

allow, to apply those innovations that have

proved useful, in particular by initiating and

continuing a search for solutions: to the problem

of high unit costs through cost-saving innovations

in the implementation of educational programmes;

to take the necessary steps both to implement

and to evaluate their educational plans;

to share among themselves their experiences

of applied innovations and establish their

machinery to make this possible;

Recommends to the African Member States:

that they carry out exchanges of specialists

in the field of education in order to enable

the different States to benefit from each other's

experience;

that they set up educational documentation and

exchange sections in their National Commissions

for Unesco or Departments of Education;

that they intensity their co-operation with

the Unesco Regional Office for Education in

Africa as a clearing house of information and

a source of expert services on educational develop-

ment and innovation. This centre should be

provided with facilities for storage and

distribution of vital information on educational reform.

From such a centre, it should be possible to send out African experts to advise Member States on matters relating to education. In this way, Africa will create her own experts and minimize dependence on foreign expertise from outside the continent;

<u>Invites</u> the Director-General:

to provide assistance to African Member States, when requested to do so, in innovating and developing their educational systems within the context of a broadened concept of educational planning, for example:

(a) by training educational planning and administrative personnel in as broad a range of skills and competences as necessary, including the implementationa and evaluation of plans;

(b) by helping African Member States to establish and develop their own research and training capacities at national, sub-regional or regional level in educational planning and administration;

to strengthen the International Institute of Educational Planning, the Unesco African Regional Offices and sub-regional institutes which will assist in performing the above tasks;

to assist in establishing and maintaining, at

the request of the African Member States themselves

and where these may be desirable, a network of

innovation institutes;

Recommends:

that Unesco study procedures for establishing

an inter-African educational information network,

concerned particularly with innovations, with

a view to encouraging and facilitating systematic

exchanges, at regional and international level,

concerning in particular the analysis of problems

of planning, implementing and evaluating educational

reforms in different social, economic and cultural

contexts;

that Unesco through its Regional Office for Education

in African compile a list of the institutions

and ministerial departments in African countries

which are entrusted with research in educational

innovation and regularly update and circulate

this list to all African Member States in order

to facilitate contacts and exchange of expertise;

that it establish within BREDA a specialized section

for exchanges in the field of educational innova-

tion and that it provide this section with all

the human and financial resources needed for its

proper functioning;

that it give Member States assistance with a view

to enabling them to prepare films and documents

on innovations;

that it bring about the conditions necessary

for the organization and holding of seminars and

meetings at the regional level or between countries

that have undertaken the same types of innovation;

that Unesco through its Regional Office arrange

an annual meeting of experts from African countries

in order to follow up the implementation of

educational innovations;

that the BREDA journal "EDUCAFRICA" be given wide

circulation and that an important place be set

aside in it for the results of educational research;

that African Member States collaborate closely

with this journal and encourage their cadres

to make known their innovations;

that OAU participate in this exercise;

that the Member States assist Unesco to this end

making available an approved summary of reforms and

any documents and information which could be used

in drafting a publication describing planned or

ongoing reforms in Africa that could be of use

to all Member States, all research workers and

all the authorities in Africa and other regions;

that Unesco take the financial and technical mea-
sures necessary for the compilation and publica-
tion of such a list of planned or ongoing reforms
in Africa.

RECOMMENDATION 9

The Conference,

Realizing the significant role that non-institutional education
can plan in democratizing education for all segments of the
population,

Conscious of the need to provide a broader conceptualization
of the formal school system,

Noting the many innovations now being made in the area of
non-formal education,

Bearing in mind the significant effort already undertaken
in the field of non-formal education by such sectors as agri-
culture and health, and

Considering that non-formal education complements formal
education and that it is a valuable short-term investment,

Recommends that Unesco organize as early as convenient a
seminar involving other sectors, to find appropriate ways
of collaborating in conveying non-formal education to all
segments of the population;

Further recommends that governments should urgently consider
allocating adequate funds for the organization and functioning
of this type of education.

RECOMMENDATION 10

The Conference,

<u>Considering</u> the important role that a qualified and numerically adequate teaching profession should play in the planning and execution of any national educational policy,

<u>Considering</u> the acute shortage of teachers and the obvious need for more teachers to meet the rising demand for mass education with a view to providing education for all children, and the financial constraints facing developing countries,

<u>Considering</u> that the aim of providing schooling for all chilren of school age can only be effectively realized by the establishment of schools that are able to provide a quality education because they have suitable facilities,

<u>Recommends</u>:

(a)   that the Member States consider, as measures for the immediate future where this seems necessary, raising the conventionally accepted pupil-teacher ratio of 10 or less to one, through appropriate mechanisms such as team teaching, the shift system, auxiliary teachers and the use of educational mass media;

(b)   that the Member States consider training of a new type of teacher and also introduce innovations to maximize the utilization of educational facilities;

Further recommends to Member States:

(a)   that teachers should undergo intensive
         training, emphasis being placed not only
         on their teaching qualifications and their
         professional awareness, but also on develop-
         ing their critical faculties;

(b)   that suitable steps be taken to encourage
         teachers to remain in the teaching profes-
         sion;

Recommends to African Member States and aid-donors that sub-
stantial financial assistance be provided to finance the
building of architecturally more suitable and less costly .
schools for the increasing school population.

N. B. This Recommendation combines Recommendations 2 and
5 of the draft final report.

RECOMMENDATION 11

The Conference,

Recognizing that the successful implementation of programmes
of educational reform cannot be achieved without the availa-
bility of competent personnel and proper orientation of those
responsible for reform,

Recommends that African Member States give top priority to
the training of such personnel and that training be given
locally at grass-roots level and at a higher level both
locally and in regional training centres;

Recommends that such personnel, including inspectors of
schools, educational planners and headmasters, should continu-
ally undergo intensive training so as to strengthen their
capacities for implementing education reforms effectively
and successfully;

Recommends that African Member States should establish educa-
tional research centres whose function it will be to under-
take educational reform and innovation as an ongoing concern.

RECOMMENDATION 12

The Conference,

Considering that education affects the masses of the people
in Africa and that successful reform and innovation are
meaningful and possible only when people at the grass-roots
level are involved in decision-making,

Recommends that African Member States wishing to undertake
reform make provision for involving the masses in discussing,
scrutinizing and making decisions at all levels of the edu-
cational reform exercise;

Considering that education is an expensive item in the budgets
of African Member States, that school equipment and materials
are very expensive as most of them are imported from outside
the continent and that the costs involved in the purchase
of these materials from outside Africa should be minimized,

Recommends that African Member States should work jointly
and co-operatively with the Unesco Regional Office for Educa-
tion in Africa for the exchange of information and experts,

and undertake research on the production of school equipment and materials using local raw materials and expertise.

RECOMMENDATION 13

The Conference,

<u>Taking into consideration</u> the need for a new outlook on educational technology to include the relevant and possible applications of the results of research in the different domains of education, psychology, humanities and related fields, in addition to distance teaching and mass media,

<u>Noting the importance</u> of educational technology in speeding up the process of innovation,

<u>Requests</u> Unesco to plan for a field study on the feasibility of developing activities in educational technology to facilitate study of the different possibilities of identifying a new reform of educational technology suitable for African States as they are now, and as they plan to develop in the near future, making the most efficient use of existing resources.

III. <u>Basic education and mass education in support of development</u>

RECOMMENDATION 14

The Conference,

<u>Considering</u>

(i)   that each individual has the right to a minimum of education which will enable him to realize his potential and contribute

> to the economic, social and cultural develop-
>
> ment of the nation to which he belongs,

(ii)   that this development should result from

the advancement of all and not only of

a minority,

Considering that many African countries may not be able to

introduce universal primary education in the next decade,

Noting the high precertage of drop-outs in the course of

primary education and the large number of primary school

leavers who do not find places in post-primary schools,

Recommendations

Considering that adult education in its widest sense can

competently cater for these groups of people,

Considering further that a literate population promotes

rapid national economic development and that any harmonious

overall development needs to enlist all the productive forces

of the nation,

Conscious that this can only be achieved by opting for a

mass, democratic education with a view, in the first place,

to rescuing the broad masses of the people from the state

of illiteracy, and, in the second place, to undertaking the

initial and further training of fully conscious, committed

and skilled producers,

Convinced that basic education should be the first stage

of life-long education with further possibility of access

to other forms of education, and that the concept of basic

education may contribute towards solving the problems of
offering education for all adults and children in school
and out of school,

Convinced that there can be no true development without
an awareness of the cultural and scientific dimensions of
such development and without the active mobilization of
all the people,

Considering further that basic education is the best means
of providing mass education,

Urges the African Member States:

(1)   clearly to define their basic education
policies;

(2)   to consider school education and non-formal
education activities as complementary ele-
ments in an overall national effort to
ensure each member of the society equal
educational opportunities;

(3)   to structure basic educational programmes
in such a way as to allow for mobility
between the school systems and non-formal
educational activities;

(4)   to consider the establishment of national
councils or boards for non-formal education
and to establish structures within their
Ministries of Education for the purpose
of promoting non-formal education as an

integral part of national education as
a whole;

(5)   to set up governmental machinery to co-
ordinate all forms of education and instruc-
tion which contribute to the development
of basic education for all;

(6)   to mobilize all available resources for
development of non-formal educational
activities;

(7)   to make a determined effort to promote
studies leading to the preparation and
formulation of diversified strategies and
policies thereby rendering it possible
to optimize the efficiency and economic
viability of the educational system in
its quantitative and qualitative aspects;

(8)   to commit themselves resolutely to the
eradication of illiteracy among the masses
of the people so as to make it easier for
them to receive training and further train-
ing in their national languages in order
that they may be able to participate more
effectively in development and in raising
their own standard of living, taking for
this purpose the necessary measures to
mobilize all available resources in specific

training institutions, local communities, development agencies, etc.;

(9)   to provide those adults who have received a basic formal education with facilities for continuing education in all the fields of activity which will enable them to play a more effective part in national development programmes;

(10)   to mobilize the mass media so as to make them play a greater part in the raising of the cultural level of the nation;

Recommends Unesco and other competent organizations:

(11)   to assist the African Member States in implementing their basic education programmes, e. g. by helping to meet their needs as regards training of personnel, preparation of methodology and teaching techniques, the planning and financing of basic education and the preparation of teaching materials;

(12)   to organize at sub-regional and regional level workshops for those specializing in or responsible for basic education.

IV. Regional and international co-operation

(a) Regional co-operation

RECOMMENDATION 15

The Conference,

Considering the similarity of the historical, geographical, economic, sociological and political experience of most Member State of the African continent,

Considering that African educational problems are similar and that exchange of experience related to the ways in which such problems are being tackled and solved will be of benefit to all,

Realizing our common educational needs and problems and the financial constraints that face our nations in search of solutions to those problems,

Conscious of the spirit of co-operation prevailing among the African Member States nurtured especially through the Organization of African Unity,

Bearing in mind the recommendations of the recent Meeting of the Senior Officials of the Ministries of Education of the Twenty-Five Least Developed Countries on international co-operation in education,

Recognizing the benefits derived from the exchange of ideas and experience between Member States,

Noting the need to establish development goals in concert with each other in specific fields of education,

Realizing the great desire of our people for early achievement of our target in the development of education,

Appreciating the need to review on a continuing basis such progress as is made in achieving these goals,

<u>Recommends</u> to African Member States that there should be greater co-operation among African countries in the form of exchange of university lecturers, provision of training opportunities to nationals of fellow African countries in areas of crucial importance to development, and in the exchange of results of researches;

<u>Recommends</u> to African Member States:

that they consider the early establishment of an African curriculum organization for greater regional co-operation in curriculum reform and renovation of school curricula;

that they set up a committee of Member States which should meet from time to time to review their programmes;

<u>Appeals</u> to the African Member States to use all possible means at their disposal to co-operate between and among themselves in education, particularly in the following areas recommended by the Meeting of Senior Officials of the Education Ministries:

(i)   training of educational personnel;

(ii)   mass and basic education;

(iii)   equipment and materials; and

(iv)   research;

<u>Recommends</u> that Unesco undertake to assist in the formation, promotion and financing of the proposed African curriculum organization;

Appeals to:

(a)   Unesco and the rest of the international

community to implement effectively the

resolutions of the sixth and seventh special

sessions of the United Nations General

Assembly and the resolution of the

eighteenth session of the Unesco General

Conference on the new international economic

order;

(b)   international agencies, within the United

Nations system in particular, seriously

to consider reorienting their aid policies,

modalities and mechanisms along the specific

lines of action suggested in paragraph

43 of the report of Senior Officials of

Ministries of Education of the Twenty-Five

Least Developed Countries in document

ED/MD/39.

RECOMMENDATION 16

The Conference,

Considering the wish expressed by several delegations for

the establishment and development of institutions for sub-

regional, regional and international co-operation on educa-

tion,

Considering that African countries, which are contending

with similar problems, are undertaking reforms and

innovations with limited information and facilities even
though Africa has an increasing number of creative and
original thinkers,

Considering that the tendency in certain forms of aid is,
if not towards a cut-back, at least towards a restriction
which obliges the recipient to limit his programmes,

Considering that research is essential for development in
Africa and a task to which education should address itself,

Noting that there are already in existence a sufficient
number of governmental or non-governmental associations
and agencies capable of providing a framework for sub-
regional, regional and international co-operation, and that
the proliferation of such agencies entails a dispersion
of effort,

Recommends to Unesco that it:

> draw up an inventory of the technological and human
> resources of African universities, institutes and
> schools of advanced studies;
>
> contribute, through the appropriate distribution of
> assistance, to the balanced growth of the various
> institutions of higher education and research;
>
> assist in drawing up a development plan for specialized
> higher education and research departments on a sub-
> regional or regional basis using suitable infrastruc-
> tures and in a suitable environment;

Urgently recommends that Member States:

>   regard the promotion and organization of research
>
>   by their own nationals as a matter of vital necessity
>
>   and make available the funds necessary for this purpose.

RECOMMENDATION 17

The conference,

Considering the Member States' need to adapt their systems

of education to national requirements and the need for co-

operation between the African countries with a view to the

introduction of a genuinely African type of education, in

accordance with the resolutions adopted by the Nairobi

Conference in 1968 concerning, in particular, national

priorities and objectives and inter-African co-operation

in higher education,

Considering the co-operative relations between Unesco and

regional and sub-regional organizations in Africa,

Considering that there exist in Africa a number of high-

level specialized establishments set up by some of these

organizations,

Recommends

>   (i)   that Member States co-operate closely with
>
>   these establishments with a view to making
>
>   the best possible use of the training
>
>   facilities provided;
>
>   (ii)   that Unesco offer all possible technical
>
>   support to these establishments in order
>
>   to assist them better to serve Africa.

RECOMMENDATION 18

The Conference,

<u>Bearing in mind</u> that the creation of the Association of
African Universities is predicated on the philosophy of
assisting the various African universities to pool ideas
and resources in the areas of education and research geared
to the intellectual, social, political and economic develop-
ment of Africa,

<u>Noting with satisfaction</u> the progress that the Association
of African Universities has made in promoting higher educa-
tion among Member States through the exchange of students
and professors, organization of inter-university seminars
and workshops, study tours and documentation,

<u>Conscious</u> of the co-operation which already exists between
Unesco and the Association of African Universities in the
field of higher education, and the need to strengthen this
co-operation,

<u>Considering</u> that hitherto the greater source of funding
for the Association has been derived from sources outside
Africa,

<u>Aware</u> of the fact that the interest of the African countries
would best be served by the Association, if it derived the
bulk of its funding from African governments,

<u>Recommends</u>

     (a)   that the Association of African Universities
              widen and intensify its relations with
              all Member States;

(b)   that African governments and the OAU consider
        as a matter of urgency the provision of
        adequate and regular financial support
        to the Association of African Universities;

(c)   that Unesco take steps to strengthen the
        existing working relationship between it
        and the Association of African Universities,
        and find ways and means of providing finan-
        cial support to the Association.

RECOMMENDATION 19

The Conference,

Having taken note of the new educational requirements of
African countries since the Conference of Ministers of Edu-
cation of African Member States held in Nairobi in 1968,

Noting that some of these requirements can only be met by
research in the education sector,

Having taken cognizance of the timely establishment of the
Bureau africain des sciences de l'education (BASE) following
the 6th Congress of the International Association for the
Advancement of Educational Research in 1973,

Recognizing that this Bureau can give invaluable assistance
to African countries by helping them to intensity and har-
monize their activities in this sphere, and more particularly
recognizing the need to concentrate research work in education
at the regional level while at the same time acknowledging
the importance of educational research in our national

institutions as a means of further enriching the content
of education.

Recommends that the Member States encourage and support
the programme of BASE, the purpose of which is to broaden
scientific co-operation in educational research;

Recommends that the Director-General of Unesco take the
measures necessary to:

(a)   intensity co-operaton between BREDA and BASE;

(b)   assist and support the programme undertaken
        by BASE on the quality of the educational
        process.

RECOMMENDATION 20

The Conference,

Considering the great need expressed by Member States for
exchange of information both of a general nature and of
specific relevance to the process of education,

Considering the attempts being made by regional agencies
and individual Member States to establish book development
programmes,

Noting the interest and support that the member countries
of OAU have expressed jointly and severally in the develop-
ment of the joint programme related to the Encyclopaedia
Africana,

Recommends to Member States that they back up this interest
with material and financial support to help in hastening
the completion of the project, and to Unesco to aid in all

possible ways in publishing that part ofthe Encyclopaedia
Africana so far completed.

RECOMMENDATION 21

The Conference,

Recognizing the need for African countries to relate the
objectives of their educational development to overall
socio-economic development objectives,

Recognizing further the urgency of transferring to Africa,
and of developing, appropriate technology to facilitate
Africa's socio-economic transformation,

Realizing the immense challenge that faces developing African
countries in terms of ensuring that the structures, content
and orientation of their educational and training systems
respond effectively to the opportunities and imperatives
of the new international economic order,

Recalling the resolution of the Conference of Ministers
of the Economic Commission for Africa, adopted in Accra
in February 1973, which urged ECA and Unesco to explore
the feasibility of establishing a joint division for concerted
action in areas of common interest,

Recalling the recommendation of CASTAFRICA (Dakar, 1974)
that urged OAU and Unesco to work closely on science and
technology,

Convinced that only concerted action by Unesco, OAU and
ECA can best foster meaningful intra-African co-operation
in the fields of education, science and technology,

especially with regard to multinational institutional
infrastructures for training and research,

Noting with satisfaction the fruitful co-operation existing
between Unesco, OAU and ECA and the advantages that could
result from further strengthening of that co-operation,

Calls upon the Director-General of Unesco, the Administrative
Secretary-General of the OAU and the Executive Secretary
of ECA to:

   (i)   consult together and explore the feasibility
          of establishing a team of experts for joint
          activities in the field of (a) science and
          technology; and (b) education for development;

   (ii)   determine periodically the socio-economic per-
          spectives for the further advancement of African
          education, as well as the urgent educational,
          scientific and technological problems facing
          Africa, and to initiate concerted action pro-
          grammes to alleviate such problems.

          (b) International co-operation
                RECOMMENDATION 22

The Conference,

Bearing in mind that the greatest aid to development is
self-reliance, and that foreign aid is often a broken reed
which in the long run retards progress in developing coun-
tries,

Recommends that African Member States, when tackling their educational problems, should first explore all local avenues before considering offers of foreign aid from abroad;

Considering that where foreign aid is concerned, it is the recipient, not the donor, who should determine what form it should take, its magnitude and duration, and ensure that it fits into a programme planned by the recipient country for its own progress, and not as part of a preconceived package by; the external donor,

Recommends that if foreign aid to education is to be of maximum benefit to the recipient, it should be for the execution of educational projects of critical importance in the overall economic and social plan drawn up by the recipient country itself, to foster its economic, social and political aspirations.

RECOMMENDATION 23

The Conference,

Considering the need for flexibility and the streamlining of administration to suit local needs,

Mindful that UNDP/Unesco assistance has created a pool of national expertise,

Aware that the standard text of the project documents of UNDP-assisted projects is the same for all countries,

Appeals to the United Nations Development Programme not to reduce its aid to the developing countries of Africa, particularly those on the list of the "least developed" countries.

Recommends that nationals be recruited to serve in the capacity of experts and chief technical advesers of projects in their own countries whenever possible;

Requests the Director-General to explore cash assistance in addition to the aforementioned technical assistance;

Further requests the Director-General to examine with UNDP appropriate measures to improve the conditions for executing operational projects.

RECOMMENDATION 24

The Conference,

Recalling the spirit of United Nations General Assembly resolution 2768 (XXVI) by which the General Assembly requested, in particular, the international organizations within the United Nations system to take fully into account the special needs of the least developed countries when formulating their programmes of activities or selecting the projects they finance,

Noting the relevant recommendations of the Meeting of Senior Officials of Ministries of Education of the Twenty-Five Least Developed Countries held in Paris (8-16 September 1975) and contained in their report which has been submitted to the Conference of Ministers of African Member States held in Lagos, 27 January-4 February 1976 in ED-76/MINEDAF/ REF/10,

Considering the need for regional and international co-operation in ways and means which yield tangible educational

results and socio-economic benefits for the advancement
of all,

Recommends:

1.   to the Director-General of Unesco to take the
necessary steps to increase the assistance
given to the 25 least developed countries in
the field of education;

2.   to the Unesco General Conference to explore
the possibility of establishing a special fund
to assist the 25 least developed countries
to resolve the particular problems which they
encounter in the field of education.

RECOMMENDATION 25

The Conference,

Considering the particular situation of the land-locked
countries which have to shoulder heavy burdens because of
the extremely high cost of transport, especially for educa-
tional materials and equipment,

Noting that these countries are among the most economically
disadvantaged, especially those among the 25 least developed
countries, and that they are suffering hardship from the
effects of the deterioration in the terms of trade,

Considering that funds granted to these countries are usually
subject to payment of a counterpart contribution and high
rates of interest,

<u>Deeming it necessary</u> that the international bodies show
greater understanding by providing suitable solutions to
the problems specific to the land-locked countries,
<u>Recommends</u> that Unesco and the other competent international
agencies concerned with the problems of education:

> take suitable measures to create special funds to
>
> help these countries to cover the costs of transporting
>
> educational materials, equipment, etc.;
>
> help the countries concerned, when granting loans
>
> for education projects, by eliminating counterpart
>
> costs and giving lower interest rates (special rates).

RECOMMENDATION 26

The Conference,

<u>Noting</u> the efforts and achievements made in all areas of
international co-operation by Unesco, and especially in
the field of education, since the Nairobi Conference,
<u>Appreciative</u> of the crucial role which the Organization has
continued to play in the development of education in all
Member States,

<u>Considering</u> the gravity of the educational problems facing
certain African countries,

<u>Concerned</u> at the fact that present procedures for mobilizing
international assistance do not always take account of
certain particular situation,

<u>Places on record</u> its appreciation of the work being carried
out by the Organization and reaffirms its confidence in
Unesco,

Recommends to Unesco and other competent agencies to address themselves to assisting African Member States in implementing programmes and projects formulated by the Member States, whether collectively or individually.

N. B. This Recommendation combines Recommendations 16 and 17 of the draft final report.

RECOMMENDATION 27

The Conference,

Recommends to the Director-General, that in preparing Unesco's programme and budget, he should give priority to, among others, the programmes in the following areas:

    (i)   regional conferences and meetings;

    (ii)   information on aid to education;

    (iii)   International Literacy Foundation;

    (iv)   promotion of nutrition and home economics;

    (v)   international exchange of world literature related to science and technology policies;

    (vi)   encouragement of public understanding of science and technology;

   (vii)   studies on the human implications of science and technology;

  (viii) contribution to basic thinking in the social sciences;

    (ix)   interdisciplinary research, cross-cultural studies and international co-operation;

    (x)   studies and research on youth today;

(xi)   youth activities in pursuance of peace and
        international understanding;

(xii)   managing man's interacton with the marine
        environment.

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