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LAKE, GASHAW WEYNESHET

# THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE: IMPLICATIONS FOR INTER-AFRICAN COOPERATION IN EDUCATION, 1961-1979

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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

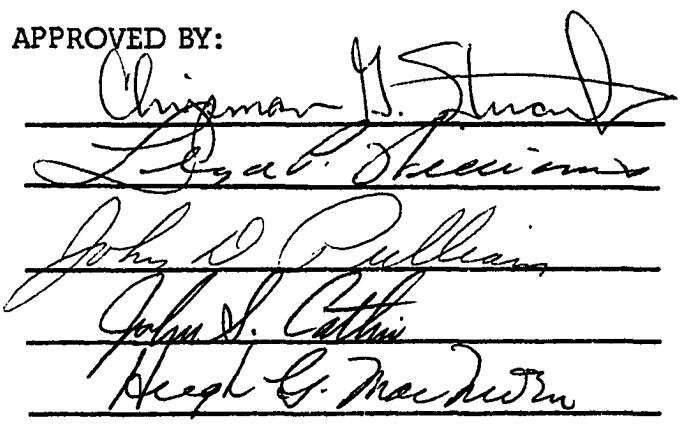
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1981

# THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE: IMPLICATIONS FOR INTER-AFRICAN COOPERATION IN EDUCATION, 1961-1979

A DISSERTATION

APPROVED BY:



DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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 transforme d 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

The completion of this study was made possible only with the help of several people, some of whom may not be named in this acknowledgement. Special thanks are due my mother Weizero Weyneshet Yemer who profoundly shaped my philosophy of life and encouraged me to be a relentless searcher of the truth; my brother and sisters Ato Markos, Hailemariam, Samson, Abraham, Haileeayssus and Weizerit Tark and Lemelem who undertook responsibilities created by my absence at home; to my father Ato Lake Tesfa for his advice and financial help which made possible my studies in the United States; my host family, Mr. and Mrs. Daniel G. Bourdow of Kochivile, Saginaw, Michigan.

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My thanks also go to Dr. Orlando M. Hernando, a Filipino lawyer and scholar who gave valuable guidance during the research and drafting stages of the manuscript and to Ato Alemayehu Maknonnen, Ethiopian Delegate to the United Nations for his advice and assistance in procuring U.N. documents needed for the study.

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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# THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE: IMPLICATIONS OF INTER-AFRICAN COOPERATION IN EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT AND PRACTICE, 1961-1979

## 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 struggle 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 laying 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 philosophy 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 quantitative 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 preparation 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 following 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, Mauritius, 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, international or regional intergovernmental organizations having Member States in Africa or programs covering Africa, international non-governmental 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 andpriorities 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. Financies 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 countries found it necessary to give priority to secondary education, curriculum 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 followed 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 provide 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 educational 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 development of mutual respect and understanding among these people who, though living on the same continent, 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 targets 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 ceremonies; but there is no history in our sense. There has been no written language, no records. The history of African people with which they have been associated in African history has always been "foreign history."[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 assumed 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 differences in the level of economic, political and social development attained before the colonial conquest, one finds in the educational domain 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 adulthood 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 marketplace. 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 traditionally 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-adolescense.[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.), Self-Reliant Tanzania (Dar-es Salaam, 1969), p. 219.

[13]E. Colson, Marriage and Family Among the Plateau Congo (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 children. 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 encouraged initiation and retention. The close fit between education and the social structure constricted opportunities for geographical, occupational 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 throughout 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. Before 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 coexisted 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:

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[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 training of the priesthood, but served also to diffuse and preserve all aspects of Christian culture.[24]

An Ethiopian poet and playwright, Mendhestu Lemma, has observed that the education traditionally conveyed by the Ethiopian Orthodox 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, drawing, 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, however, 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 marching 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 prepare 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 availability 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 experience 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 educational structures was conceived in the educational

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[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 dispositions, and particularly the appropriate ritual behavior 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 Contribution 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. University 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 interfere 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 mistrust 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 belief on education, and a feeling that more important 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 department.[43]

In Britain, the Phelps-Stokes reports in regard to African educational development were influential. In November, 1923, the Secretary of State for the colonies appointed an avisory committee on Native Education 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 development 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, conserving 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 formulation 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, Agriculture and Education. The following quotation from the "Government Report 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 contributing to an improvement in nutritional conditions--there are three principal directions in which the educational 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. Secondly, 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 Agricultural, 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. According 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 approach 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 realization 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 extending 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 economic 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 assimilation 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 religious instruction. The goal of education was to make European civilization 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 prejudicies 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 ourselves 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 (Madagascar) 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 elementary school which was designed to replace former models and distinctions 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 individual 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, s ocial 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

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[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 obsolete to Africa's changing requirements and to educational and technological 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 borrowed 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 conditions 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 blueprints for school development that they had inherited had become outdated 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.

> 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 continent which is in fact the freeing of students, teachers and Africans themselves 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 international community wanted to play an active role in the social and economic development of Africa. In February, 1960, therefore, a preliminary meeting was convenened by UNESCO in Addis Ababa, where it was decided 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 development.[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 personality 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 educational 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 educational development.

### Inventory of Educational Needs

During its first plenary meeting, the Addis Ababa Conference recognized that only 16 percent of primary and secondary school-age children 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 shortcomings 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 developing 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 recognizing the various organizations that provide assistance to African countries 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 Nyasaland |
| Dahomey | Ruanda-Urundi |
| Ethiopia | Senegal |
| Gabon | Sierra Leone |
| Gambia | Somalia |
| Ghana | Sudan |
| Guinea | Swaziland |
| Ivory Coast | Tanganyika |
| Kenya | Togo |
| Liberia | Uganda |
| Malagasy Republic | 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 undertaken 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, Background 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, Modernization 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 dilemma 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 produce 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 curriculum 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 facethe problems that arise in a rapidly changing socity.[24] However, African people desire to be in a position to eclectically 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 extreme 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 recognition 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 sufficiently 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 governmental and private activities in order to have adequate education by stages and within defined goals, offering each individual a better chance to realize his potentialities 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 different 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 need 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 development plans should be made to its socio-economic realities and the goals it tries to attain.[27]

According to Russell G. Davis, the approach of educational development 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 education 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 |

[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 schooling 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 earmarked 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 | 178,381 | 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 | 269,603 | 3,042 | 667 | 50.5 | 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 | 707 | 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 education 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 development 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 educational 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 transformations 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 investment."[31]

This fundamental change of educational philosophy represents a new outlook, for education was previously regarded only an item of consumption. 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 Conference 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

## PROGRESS REPORT ON THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ADDIS ABABA CONFERENCE

Hunter pointed out in his book called The Best of Both Worlds, 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 reflected 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.

### Conferences and Meetings Following Addis Ababa

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, The Best of Both Worlds (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 expansion 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 Training 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 implementation 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 philosophy of education, but a methodology of action[4] which gave the equation 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 followed 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 enrolment 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 enrolment 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 Experience 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 outline of a typology for analytical interpretation was set up by the conference. The 44 countries of Africa which the Conference was established to serve were divided into four groups. The groups were determined 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 | | |

[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 |

[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 |

Enrolment by Age Group

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] Ibid., 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 | 1.3 |
| Group 3 | 86.6 | 84.3 | 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 |

*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos, Unesco/ECA. Ed-76/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p. 30.

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. 34

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

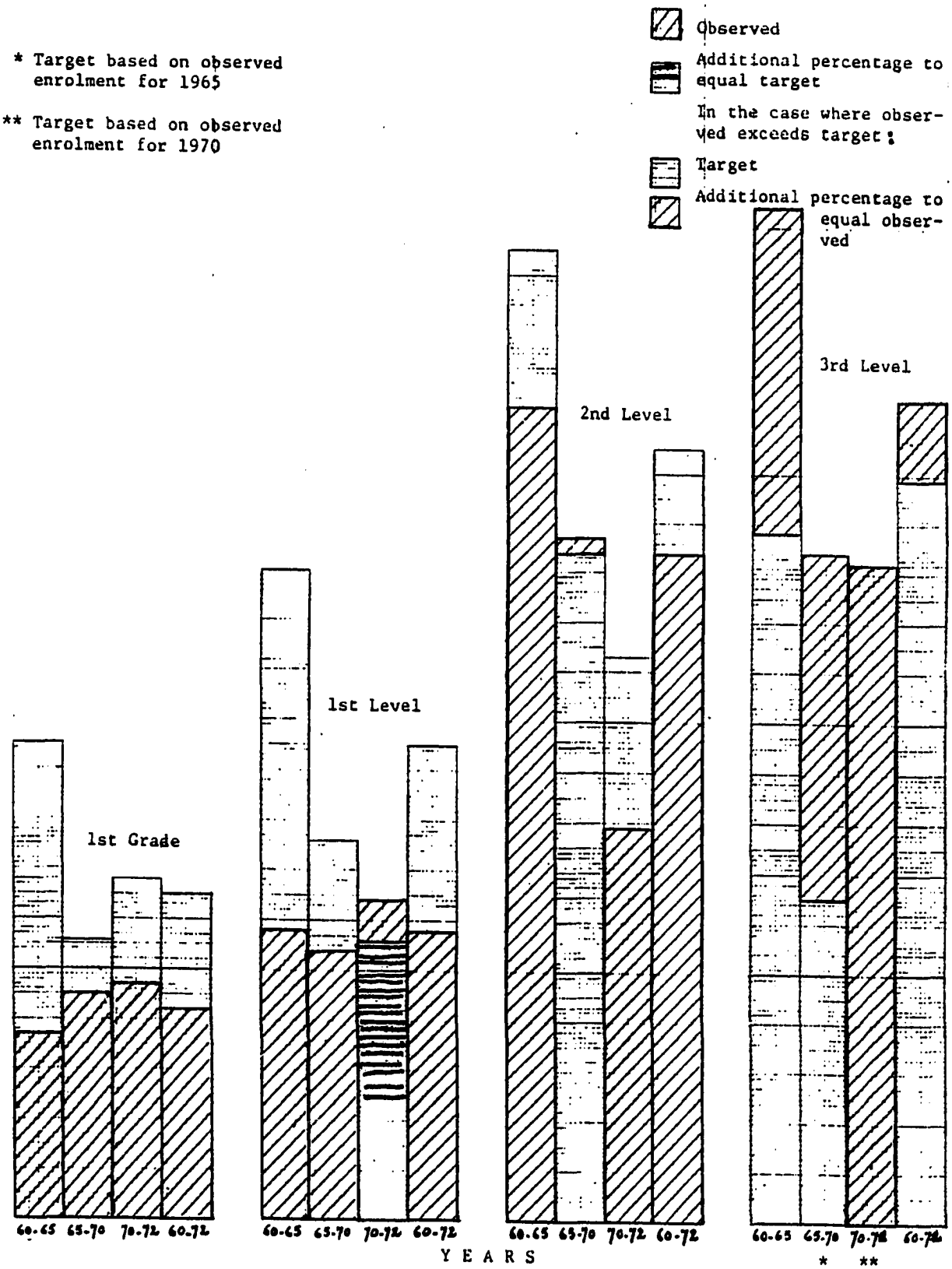
| | (1) Middle Africa | | | | | (5) North Africa (ex. Tunisia) | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1960 | (2) 1965 | (3) 1970 | (4) 1971 | Change 1965-1971 | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1971 | 1972 | Change 1965-1972 |
| Percentage of students in arts | | | | | | | | | | | |
| (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.

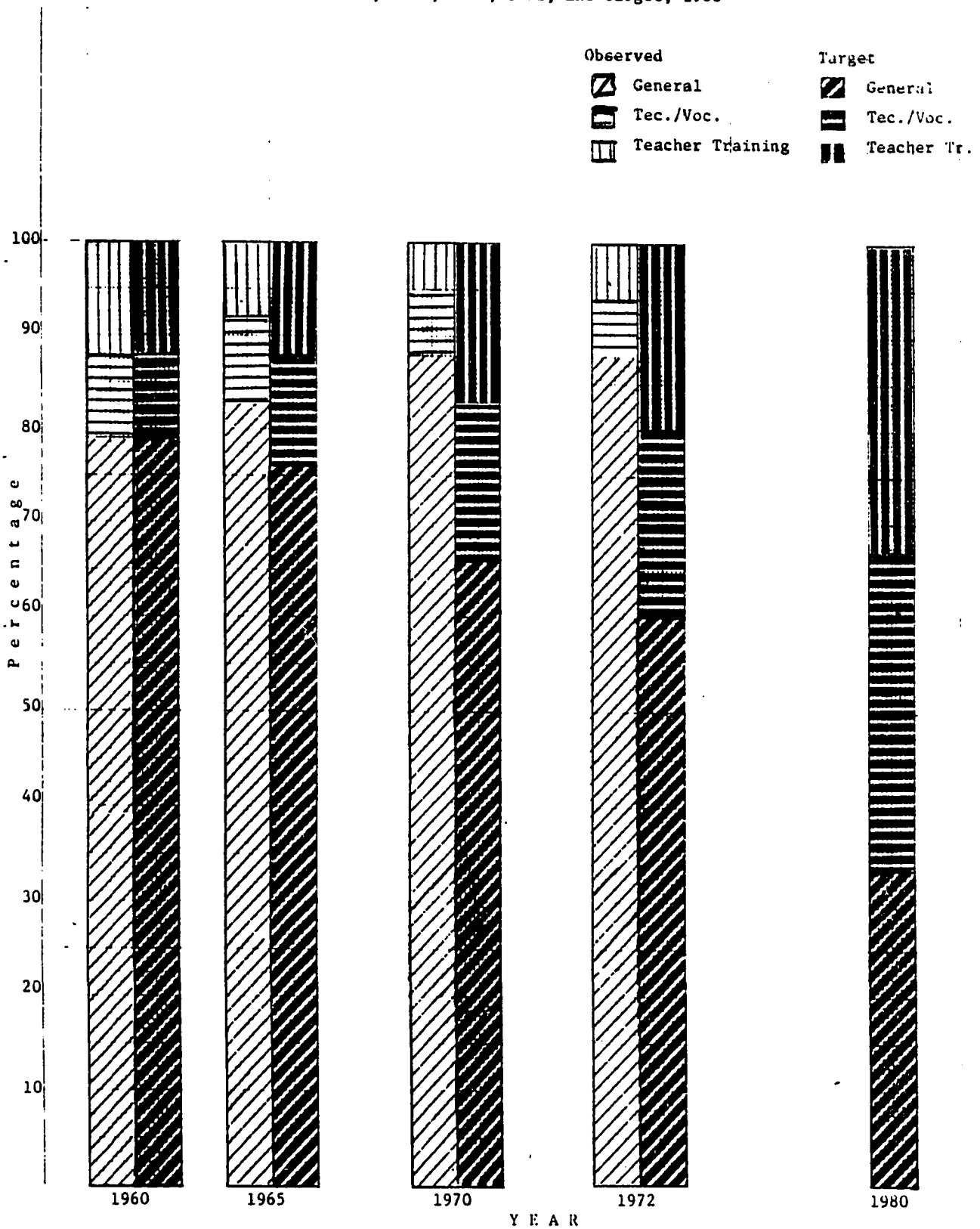
Annual (Compounded) Increase in Enrolment, All Levels of Education, for Periods 1960-1965, 1965-1970, 1970-1972, 1960-1972, Observed & Target, Middle Africa




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

## Table 16.*

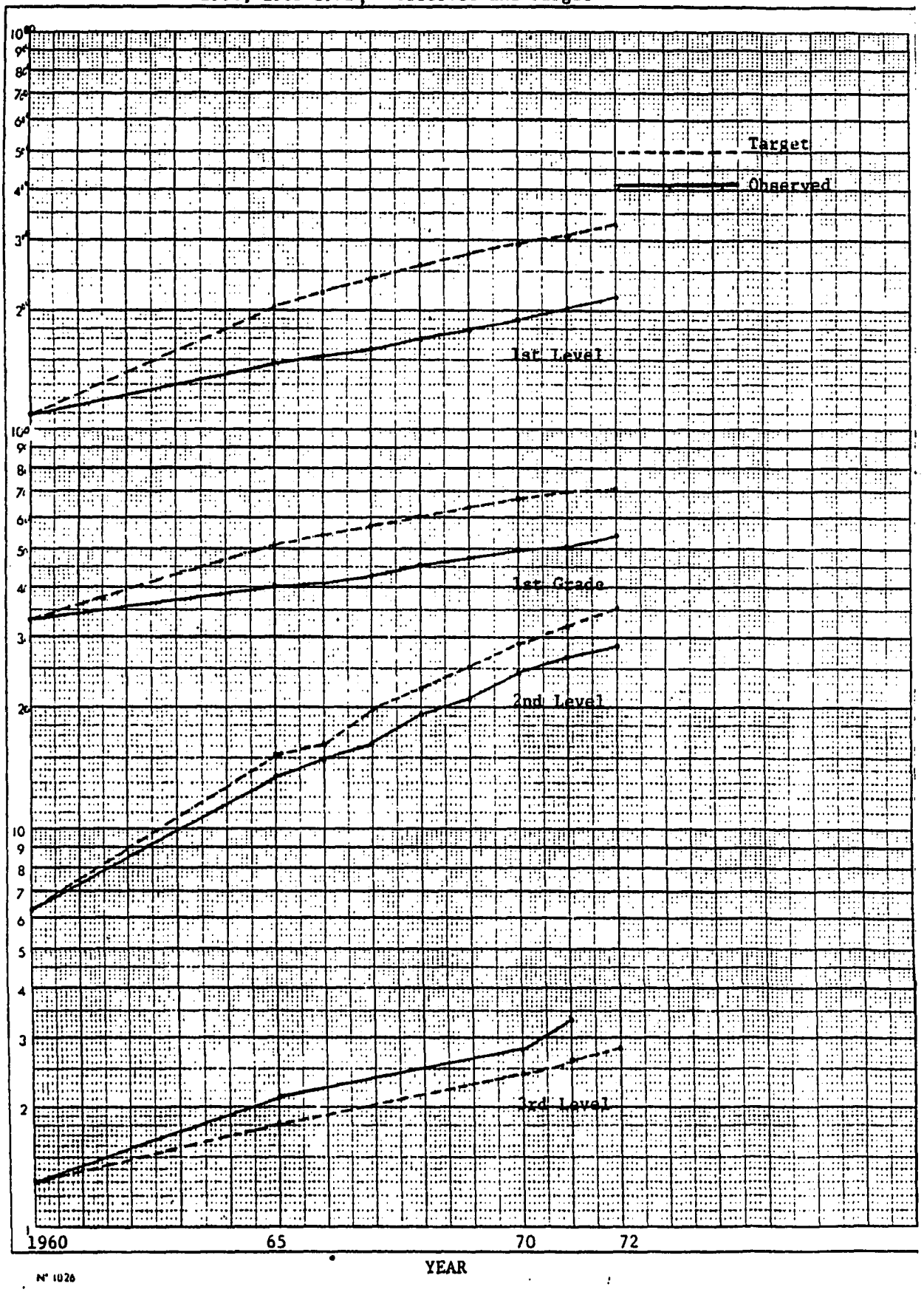
Percentage Distribution, Observed and Target, of Secondary Level Enrolment with respect to Stream, Middle Africa, 1960, 1965, 1970, 1972, and Target, 1980




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

## Table 17.*

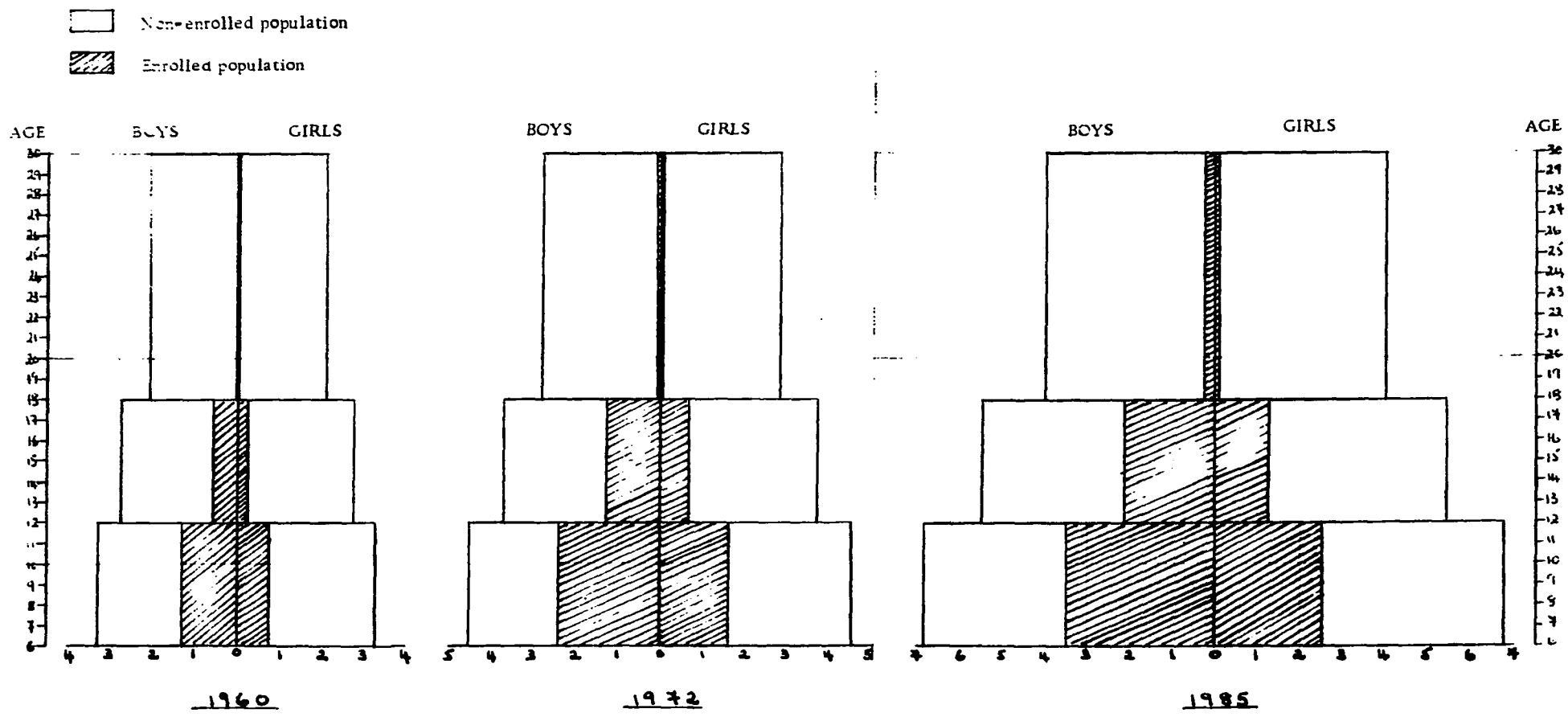
Total Enrolment at All Levels of Education, Middle Africa, 1960, 1965-1972, Observed and Target




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

Table 18.*

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




*Source: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos, Unesco/ECA.Ed076/MINEDAF/REF.2+., p. 7

## 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 conference 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

> 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 implementation 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 satisfactorily 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 feeling 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 prerequisite 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 inadequacies of an outmoded point of view. It is, perhaps, 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 contribution 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 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 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 education. The conference also met to define the problems calling for priority treatment and to establish guidelines for activities in the field of educational 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 representatives 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 credited the Addis Ababa Conference as having initiated the regular exchange 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 education provided. African States continued to work towards the Addis Ababa targets and particularly the target of universal primary education which is a precondition 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 developments. 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, cultural, 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; cultural 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 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 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 progress for each country.

1961 was a turning point in African history because on that date the African nations assumed responsibility for their own national destinies. 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 consultation.

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 educational 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 paradoxical 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 catastrophe 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.

- E n d -

# 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)** | | | |
| 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<br>Federation: October 1, 1961 | French Cameroun (or French Cameroons) and former British Southern Cameroons |

| Name | | Date of Independence | Former Name |
|---|---|---|---|
| Short Form | Long Form | | |
| The New States (1950-October 1961) (Continued) | | | |
| 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 Independence | Former Name |
|---|---|---|---|
| Short Form | Long Form | | |
| **Territories Scheduled for Independence Later in 1961** | | | |
| 29. Tanganyika | Tanganyika | December 9, 1961 | U.S. Trust Territory administered by the United Kingdom |

**Areas Still Dependent**

| 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 |

Areas Still Dependent (Continued)

| 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 ($billions) | Per Capita GNP 1975 ($) | 1965-1975 growth rate,% | 1980 ($) | 1990 ($) | Military 1976 ($ thousands) | Education 1970 (%of age group)* | Education 1980 (%of age group)* | Independence |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 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 |

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 Organization 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 introduced, 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 awareness 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 understanding 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 intellectual 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 education, 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 suitability 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 educational institutions with the other national institutions on which development and progress depend are contingent thereon. They ensure intellectual and scientific independence, 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 languages 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 integration 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 contribute 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 aptitudes 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 management, administration and the organization of public activities should have its place in curricula, and educational

activity should proceed in such a way as to enable the beneficiaries 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 administration 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 fundamental 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 specialists, 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 specialization by the African countries in their national training, study and research institutions;

(iii) co-ordinating and harmonizing programmes for the testing, manufacture and distribution 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 international 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 development 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 Organization's budget, in violation of the decisions of the eighteenth session of the General Conference,

Noting with indignation the campaign of calumny and denigration 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 Organization 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 Organization;

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 training 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,

Recognizing 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,

Considering that African schools are consequently still to a large extent cut off from the social milieu,

Convinced 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,

Recommends:

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 psychological aspects of the life of the population with a view to defining realistic educational 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 systematic 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:

   (i) 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 technological skills;

3. Further requests Unesco, acting in collaboration with ECA, OAU, UNIDO and other appropriate international 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 development 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 the 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 the 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 development 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;

Invites 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 innovation 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 measures necessary for the compilation and publication 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 agriculture 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,

Considering the important role that a qualified and numerically adequate teaching profession should play in the planning and execution of any national educational policy,

Considering 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,

Considering that the aim of providing schooling for all children 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,

Recommends:

(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 developing their critical faculties;

(b) that suitable steps be taken to encourage teachers to remain in the teaching profession;

Recommends to African Member States and aid-donors that substantial 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 availability 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 continually undergo intensive training so as to strengthen their capacities for implementing education reforms effectively and successfully;

Recommends that African Member States should establish educational research centres whose function it will be to undertake 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 educational 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 Education 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,

Taking into consideration 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,

Noting the importance of educational technology in speeding up the process of innovation,

Requests 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. Basic education and mass education in support of development

RECOMMENDATION 14

The Conference,

Considering

(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 development 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 elements 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 instruction 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 training 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,

Recommends 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;

Recommends 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;

Appeals 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;

Recommends 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 education,

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 infrastructures 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,

Bearing in mind 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 development of Africa,

Noting with satisfaction the progress that the Association of African Universities has made in promoting higher education among Member States through the exchange of students and professors, organization of inter-university seminars and workshops, study tours and documentation,

Conscious 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,

Considering that hitherto the greater source of funding for the Association has been derived from sources outside Africa,

Aware 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,

Recommends

(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 financial 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 Education 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 harmonize 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 development 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 perspectives for the further advancement of African education, as well as the urgent educational, scientific and technological problems facing Africa, and to initiate concerted action programmes 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 countries,

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 educational 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,

Deeming it necessary that the international bodies show greater understanding by providing suitable solutions to the problems specific to the land-locked countries,

Recommends 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,

Noting 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,

Appreciative of the crucial role which the Organization has continued to play in the development of education in all Member States,

Considering the gravity of the educational problems facing certain African countries,

Concerned at the fact that present procedures for mobilizing international assistance do not always take account of certain particular situation,

Places on record 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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