

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND
EDUCATION FOR LIVING TOGETHER:

CONCEPTUAL AND MANAGERIAL CHALLENGES IN AFRICA

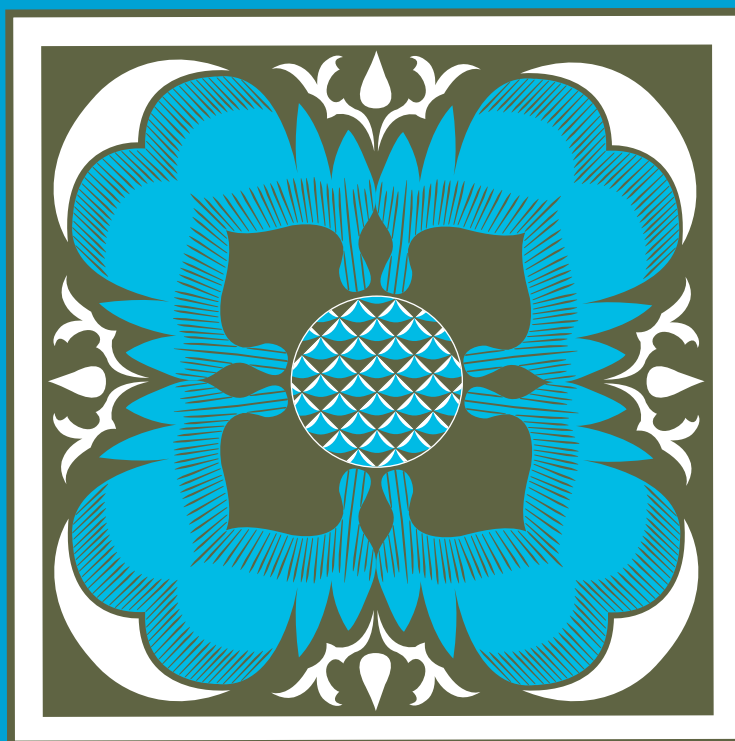
DÉVELOPPEMENT DU CURRICULUM
ET ÉDUCATION POUR VIVRE ENSEMBLE :

PROBLÈMES DE CONCEPTS ET DE GESTION EN AFRIQUE

FINAL REPORT OF THE SEMINAR HELD IN NAIROBI, KENYA,
25-29 JUNE 2001

RAPPORT FINAL DU SÉMINAIRE, NAIROBI, KENYA
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Edited by / rédacteurs : John Aglo and/et Mankolo Lethoko



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THE KENYA NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR UNESCO
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PART I:
FINAL REPORT

PARTIE I :
RAPPORT FINAL

Final report

John Aglo and Mankolo Lethoko

I. INTRODUCTION

The seminar devoted to Curriculum development and education for living together: conceptual and managerial challenges in Africa (Nairobi, 25-29 June 2001) was organized jointly by the International Bureau of Education (UNESCO/IBE) with the assistance of the Kenya National Commission for UNESCO and the UNESCO Nairobi Office. The IBE's policy dialogue and capacity building efforts in the area of curriculum development are largely based on a cycle of regional and international seminars and workshops. The underlying premise of these efforts in support of the adaptation and renewal of school curricula is that the integration of regional and global perspectives in processes of curriculum policy formulation, implementation and management is central to promoting education that contributes to living together and that enhances social cohesion.

II. OBJECTIVES

- To analyse existing official school curricula from the vantage point of their potential contribution to learning to live together and to social cohesion.
- To formulate recommendations for the improvement of the dialogue and exchange that would place on the occasion of the forty-sixth session of the International Conference on Education (Geneva, 5-8 September 2001);
- To address the issue of curriculum management with a view to improving the capacity of basic schooling to contribute to enhanced social cohesion.

III. PARTICIPANTS

Some forty participants from Burundi, Comoros, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mauritius, Nigeria, Rwanda, the Seychelles and Somalia took part in the seminar. Kenyan participants included officials from the Ministry of Education, the Kenya Institute of Education, and university-based academics. In addition to representatives from the IBE, UNESCO-PEER and UNESCO's Bangkok Office, international experts from Argentina, Bolivia, Germany and the United Kingdom also participated.

IV. PROGRAMME

1. Keynote address

The keynote address, delivered by the Director of the IBE, Cecilia Braslavsky, was devoted to the central issue of concerns about how social cohesion and living together can be placed in the rationales for schooling in the twenty-first century, and the link between such concerns and the sixth follow-up goal adopted by the World Education Forum held in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000 devoted to improving the quality of education.¹ It was also emphasized that the deliberations of this Nairobi seminar would feed directly into preparations of the policy dialogue sessions organized at the International Conference on Education to be held in Geneva, Switzerland, on 5-8 September 2001.

2. Country presentations

Representatives from the eleven participating countries presented their national situations on the basis of the guidelines provided (see Annex III). The cross-cutting issues that emerged from the presentations of Burundi, Comoros, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Nigeria, Rwanda and the Seychelles are as follows

- (a) Living together and language policies:* In raising the central issue of the nature of educational goals that would ensure education for living together, a fundamental question was that of the tension between language policies based on concerns for national unity and nation-building, as opposed to the promotion of respect for cultural diversity through the use of minority languages as media of instruction.
- (b) Redefining curriculum content:* The issue of redefining the selection and organization of curriculum content must be addressed in such a way as to avoid excessive pressure on already overloaded—and often examination-driven—curricula.
- (c) Learning and teaching approaches.* Curricular renewal is more than just reviewing curricula contents and requires a rethinking of pedagogical approaches to teaching and learning.
- (d) Building up the capacity of teachers* to ensure that they are equipped to deliver the curriculum effectively.
- (e) Decentralization or deconcentration:* The central issue of debate was to determine the extent to which decentralization can be effective in the absence of

sufficient school autonomy that might facilitate the promotion of learning to live together.

(f) *Curricular policy formulation*: The central issue here was that of resistance resulting from curricular policy decisions that are too often taken by professional bodies with little or no consultation with representatives of civil society and local communities.

A number of context-specific issues were also identified:

- Rwanda is currently involved in the overall reorganization of its education system in order to address the issue of the return of refugees and displaced children who had been exposed to different systems of education in their host countries (including a different medium of instruction).
- The multiple challenges of educational provision in conflict-affected contexts and emergency situations: Somalia (where UNESCO-PEER is active); the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Burundi.
- For the Comoros and Nigeria, measures are being examined to promote bridges between the Koranic and official schools in order to integrate the two models within a national education system.
- Both Ethiopia and Eritrea have opted for multilingual approaches in recognition of the benefits of literacy acquisition through the mother-tongue.
- In one country at least—the Seychelles—education for living together has been institutionalized for quite some time now.
- Mauritius has a free and full coverage at primary education level and enjoys democratic and economic stability. Paradoxically, due to the bottleneck situation occurring at the transition to secondary education and the emphasis on end-of-primary cycle examinations, there are high drop-out and repeater rates.

3. Issues requiring further exploration

Although not fully discussed, the following were identified as being issues that require further attention:

- The devastating impact of HIV/AIDS on education in Sub-Saharan Africa.
- The need to relate emergency programmes to educational planning and programmes taking place in contexts of ‘normalcy’.
- The rehabilitation of the ‘lost generations’ resulting from disrupted educational processes in emergencies—how can host countries allow refugees to develop curricula based on their home countries in preparation for integration in their societies after the emergencies are over?
- Multicultural or inter-cultural education? Value systems and their integration in education.
- The wide range of situations in the utilization of both traditional and new technologies as pedagogical support for the promotion of social cohesion.
- The uneven importance given to science education across the participating countries.

- The need for capacity building to manage both cross-cutting and specific issues.

4. Kenyan Day

Several representatives from various sections of the Kenyan education system presented issues related to access and equity with a particular focus on curricular issues related to the relevance and quality of learning in relation to socio-economic, financial, cultural and political parameters. The following needs were identified:

- The adaptation of a centrally developed curriculum to varying regional situations.
- The greater empowerment of communities for the provision of education in general, and for early childhood education in particular.
- Greater integration of non-formal education programmes in the formal education system so as to allow for a more efficient flow of students from one system to the other.
- Redefining education in such a way as to enrich and not to undermine the curriculum.
- Further research on the issue of first and second languages as media of instruction at the level of primary education, as well as the sensitive issue of when to make the transition from the mother-tongue to a second language. Existing research findings suggest that a learner needs no less than six years of learning in his or her mother-tongue before switching to the second language.
- Strengthening of the role of the inspection mechanisms in quality assurance and a focus on school-based assessment by the teachers themselves.
- Strengthening links between universities and curriculum agencies with regard to curriculum development.

5. Round-tables

Round-table I: *Curriculum and language: teachings in African language and learning strategies.*

Moderator: J. Naumann (Germany).

Language issues were presented against a backdrop of research findings resulting from a number of studies undertaken by the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), the Institut national d'études et d'action pour le développement de l'éducation (INEADE), as well as by the Programme d'analyse des systèmes d'éducation de la CONFEMEN2 (PASEC). It was highlighted that the link between first-language status of pupils and learning achievement has not as yet been fully explored in Africa. Two strategies were proposed in view of bridging structural language gaps in the learning process.

- Developing dictionaries in the first language or the most widely used national languages so as to cover larger lexicons.

- The provision of support materials to supplement school textbooks in use, particularly since these are most often printed in foreign languages. The ultimate premise expounded was that the assimilation of foreign languages is facilitated through a proper mastery of the mother-tongue/widely used languages.

There exists a tension between the general consensus among specialists around the fact that local languages are the most appropriate vehicles for the acquisition of concepts, on the one hand, and public opinion in favour of early learning of foreign languages as an important component of upward mobility, on the other. Consequently, there is a need to consider language issues both in terms of their role in facilitating such mobility, as well as tools for the betterment of all—which is the ultimate goal of education. Moreover, local languages are often perceived as being insufficiently developed as vehicles for the transmission of modern scientific and technological concepts. Finally, although each language has its own paradigm, the adoption of a single (often foreign) national language is dictated more by ideological and political concerns for nation building, rather than by educational and psychological concerns. Given the recognized importance of enriching analytical and communication skills through the learning of several languages, it was recommended that insight might be gained by examining language paradigms in multi-lingual and multi-cultural countries, such as the United Republic of Tanzania, that do not use English as a first language.

Round-table II: *Education and violence: education in emergency situations: the problem of social cohesion.* Moderator: M. Devadoss (UNESCO/PEER) and A. Osler (United Kingdom).

The initial overview of the theme of education and conflict raised the following issues:

- Education has a role to play in conflict-affected societies in ensuring dialogue, contributing to reconciliation and social healing, as well as to the possibility of conflict resolution.
- There is a fundamental need to identify the type of education that will win back and provide a solid foundation for the lost generation that has suffered from a period of violence.
- What is the role of education in the repatriation of displaced and refugee populations, and the reintegration of former combatants?
- What is the role of education in reconstruction programmes and the need for educational transformation in rebuilding social fabric?

The second presentation was devoted to the issue of institutionalized violence, particularly in the context of schools. Such violence takes the form of exclusion from school and discrimination on the grounds of gender, religion, race and ethnicity. School violence also includes the legitimate use of corporal punishment, the symbolic violence inherent to many learning processes

and the curriculum content on which they are based. It was felt that there is a pressing need for institutions and individuals to promote equity: the preservation of humanity's heritage implies promoting a broad-based curriculum with a global outlook. If peace education is to counteract a culture of violence, it is necessary to promote not only education on human rights, but also human rights in education. The following pressing issues were identified:

- The need for more pro-active research-based strategies on crisis prevention, rather than reactive measures to counter situations of violence and emergencies. It is therefore crucial, while dealing with the immediate manifestations of violence, that social issues that are the source of symbolic and structural violence be properly addressed. This poses important political and ideological challenges both at the national and international levels.
- The world community should place appropriate emphasis on education for peace.
- A curriculum should be adopted that: (i) enables students to face and overcome conflicts, by focusing on the need to revive historical studies to analyse such situations of conflict to get to their root causes (social, structural, economic) and to develop learners' negotiation skills; (ii) promotes mutual respect through the teaching of humanistic 'universal' values stemming from African cultural traditions; (iii) caters for the 'lost generations' that suffered from educational disruption and destruction during emergencies; and (iv) facilitates the fast tracking of traumatized individuals and groups back into the system, thus overcoming social trauma.

Ultimately, the idea of multiple forms of 'violence' has to be seen as an important conceptual reference in curriculum development. This broad and multifaceted concept would embrace not simply violence related to situations of armed conflict, but also structural and symbolic violence as experienced in the family, the community, the school and the media. Violence that results from social frustrations, in particular, implies a need to re-examine the assumptions on which curricula are developed and learning experiences in schools are organized.

Round-table III: *Curriculum and cultural diversity: education and shared values.* Moderator: Luiz. E. López (Bolivia).

New curricular challenges for school education:

- The re-examination of such values as tolerance, pluralism, mutual respect, as well as multilingualism and democracy.
- The development of such competencies as cognitive flexibility, development of self-esteem and self-respect, cultural relativism within the framework of human rights and openness towards the unknown.
- The need to foster international understanding and peace, as well as to train students in conflict

resolution and negotiation. Hence, there is a need to develop language competencies for cultural diversity and linguistic pluralism.

Unlike long-standing mono-cultural approaches, there is an emerging concern for the promotion of inter-cultural approaches to education, rooted simultaneously in one's own culture and open to international and global realities. In order to counter the apprehension related to curriculum overload in promoting respect for cultural diversity, it was felt that the focus should not be on content but rather towards an attitudinal shift. Likewise, proper teacher education would see to it that teachers cope expertly with the promotion of attitudes related to respect for cultural diversity in the curriculum. Proper promotion of respect for cultural diversity in education would require a redefinition of education and of the concept of nation-State based on pluralism, multilingualism and multiculturalism. It was felt that mono-cultural, monolingual attitudes in formal education and schooling are a particular legacy of the developed world transplanted to the Southern hemisphere where multiculturalism and multilingualism had been the norm. While the term of 'living together' is a recent product of international educational discourse, participants felt that the implications of the concept have long been part of African social realities.

Round-table IV: Curriculum and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Moderator: Lucille C. Gregorio (UNESCO/PROAP).

The moderator began by quoting Dr. Piot's words, which emphasized that, in order to match the scale of the pandemic, the time has come for action and outcomes and not 'fine words'. The presentation touched upon two aspects:

- An overview of the critical situation in the Asia-Pacific region.
- HIV/AIDS prevention through quality improvement and innovation of curriculum content and teaching/learning material.

Representatives from a number of participating countries indicated preventive actions being taken at national levels to counteract the impact of the pandemic and to move away from mere knowledge-dissemination approaches to a focus on the development of coping strategies. An attitudinal shift is a sine qua non condition for reducing risk behaviour, and the real challenge lies in designing and developing appropriate teaching and learning materials for efficacious behavioural change. It was unanimously felt that collaborative efforts are necessary to ensure that the preventive programmes are more holistic in nature and do not overload existing school curricula. It was nevertheless noted that cultural pressures in a number of African societies are detrimental to a full-fledged intervention programme.

Round-table V: Curriculum, science teaching and interdisciplinary. Moderator: H. Labate (Argentina)

The discussion centred on the need to link the teaching of science to the social and ethical values of individual societies. Cross-curricular approaches were discussed as a means of reducing content overload, schedule fragmentation and low perceived relevance of science as a subject in schools. This was followed by an examination of the implications of such cross-curricular approaches on teacher training, co-ordination and teamwork among teaching staff, and the design and pilot testing of teaching materials and a revised curriculum. The following specific issues were examined:

- How can the teaching of science be related to values when the very focus of science seems to be in contradiction with some 'traditional' beliefs and values, particularly in some African social contexts?
- How can cross-curricular approaches be effectively handled without teachers tending to focus on their own area of specialization?
- Do cross-curricular approaches just mean linking individual subjects or the meshing of content from different subjects in dealing with a problem?
- How do we train/prepare teachers so that they can promote interdisciplinary approaches in the teaching of science?
- How do we promote specialization at the higher levels—especially at universities if this mode of teaching has to be adopted?
- Interdisciplinarity is a form of broad-based curriculum (integration). Is there not a danger of superficial coverage of content—especially given limited instructional time?

There was a general consensus to the effect that:

- There is need to approach science teaching differently, avoiding 'old' solutions.
- It is easy to promote interdisciplinarity at the lower primary level, while it is fairly difficult at the upper levels.
- Who determines the content in science?
- Teachers need to put themselves in the place of the learners in order to adapt content appropriately.
- There is need for teachers to state connections between subjects in order to promote interdisciplinarity.

6. Recommendations for the International Conference on Education (Geneva, September 2001)

During the last session of the seminar, participants were provided with an opportunity to contribute to the elaboration of possible questions to be put to Ministers of Education during the six working sessions that were to be organized at the International Conference on Education (Geneva, 5-8 September 2001). The questions were organized around the following topics: the teaching of science, education, violence and social cohesion, language issues and the promotion of shared values.

Group I: The teaching of science

1. What is being done to implement the formulation of science and technology in national development plans and to promote relevant interest and enhanced performance of science in each country?
2. What is being done to enhance the participation of girls in science and technology activities?
3. What action may be taken to enhance public support for science education in each country?
4. What is being done to ensure that science curricula include environmental protection and management?
5. What is the goal of science education in each national context? What variations may be observed?
6. What is being done to enrich scientific knowledge with traditional knowledge?
7. What policies are being implemented to enhance teacher competencies and flexibility in the teaching of science?

Group II: Education, violence and social cohesion

Democratic schools

1. What measures will governments take to promote the democratic participation of teachers and children in decision-making (and so prevent frustration and violence)?

Curriculum and examinations

2. What policies and practices will be put in place to promote peace and children's rights and to combat ethnic conflict?
3. Competitive examinations are often a form of violence. What alternative measures will governments take to prevent this violence against children?

Training

4. Schools need alternative disciplinary measures other than corporal punishment. What measures will the ministers take to give training to teachers in positive, non-violent, disciplinary strategies?

Sexual harassment as violence

5. What measures will governments take to prevent the sexual harassment of children and vulnerable teachers? In particular, will they ensure that measures are taken to keep pregnant girls in school, so that they do not suffer the further violence of expulsion?

Truancy

6. Truancy often results from violence (bullying by peers, harsh treatment by teachers). What measures are to be taken to combat truancy?

Group III: Language issues

1. What measures are being proposed to enhance children's learning through the drafting of appropriate

- language policies (i.e. initial literacy in the mother tongues/local language(s) of the learners; using the approach of foreign-language teaching for African learners with regard to official European language)?
2. What strategies and plans are being put into place or are being envisaged for the near future in order to strengthen the use of important local languages in basic education and in public life in general?
3. What type of co-operative regional efforts are being envisaged to pool different national human and material resources to enhance the use of local languages shared by neighbouring countries, in primary education, adult literacy and public life in general?

Group IV: Shared values

1. How can education systems strengthen the role of the school, the family and the community in the development of shared values within the framework of the universally agreed principles of human rights?
2. In view of all the efforts taking place concerning regionalization and globalization, how is it possible to work together with a view to harmonizing the curriculum so as to enhance the move towards achieving education for living together?
3. How can we ensure that school curricula integrate issues of cultural diversity?
4. Is it desirable to integrate the teaching of values in all disciplines covered by the school curriculum?
5. How can mutual exchange between curriculum developers from countries with similar characteristics be promoted?
6. What measures can be taken to minimize the politicization of education?

Some participants felt that there were some issues which were missing in the questions addressed to the ministers, for instance, the question of integrative approaches in the teaching of science, lack of intensive and objective-based research before and after new policies are implemented, sub-regional, regional and international co-operation between countries, especially in Africa. Another prominent issue raised dealt with the role of NGOs and teachers' unions in curriculum development and implementation.

7. Exchanging experiences and building capacity in curriculum development

This final session aimed at identifying needs in the area of curriculum development and recommended methodologies for training and networking with a view to strengthening national and regional capacities. On the subject of needs, the following were identified:

- Language issues: development of curriculum, materials and books in mother-tongues and local languages; assessment and evaluation.
- New information technologies and access to current information on curriculum design and development.

- Micro-planning skills and participatory curriculum planning skills.
 - Negotiation and ways to harmonize the curriculum planning process with available resources and negotiation skills for budgetary allocations.
 - Expertise in systematic curriculum development and techniques for keeping the curriculum flexible, allowing for quick changes as a result of monitoring.
 - Advocacy and management skills for implementation.
 - Mobilization and participation skills for involving communities in school life.
 - Pilot testing strategies.
 - Content selection, screening and updating to avoid curriculum overload.
 - Monitoring and evaluation of quality assurance and research capacity.
 - Access to information to be able to compare curricula from other areas and countries.
 - Skills in the use of modern information and communication technology.
 - Skills for fund-raising and public relations.
5. The promotion of equity through the curricula to forestall the emergence of situations likely to engender violence.
 6. The elaboration of curricula that equally promote proper attitudes and behaviours.
 7. The prioritization of suitable training of trainers and teacher programmes that may be adapted to the multidimensional changes in education.
 8. Encouraging research in the field of education for solutions that are relevant to the specific needs and environments of African States.
 9. The institutionalization of a national policy on languages specific to each nation.
 10. The systematic reinforcement of measures against the spread of HIV/AIDS.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The setting up of a Pan-African Institute for curriculum designers and developers.
2. The promotion of exchange programmes related to curricular know-how at regional and inter-regional levels.
3. The review of existing pedagogical approaches so as to integrate the values pertaining to living together.
4. The protection of children from all forms of violence (whether institutional or implicit).

VI. DISCLAIMER

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Notes

1. See: http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/dakfram_eng.shtml
2. La Conférence des ministres de l'éducation des pays ayant en commun l'usage du français.

PART II:
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
FOR LIVING TOGETHER
IN AFRICA

PARTIE II :
LE DÉVELOPPEMENT
DES CURRICULA
POUR VIVRE ENSEMBLE
EN AFRIQUE

Curriculum development for living together in Africa

Mankolo Lethoko

I. INTRODUCTION

The new millennium has given a new urgency to efforts by governments to provide all citizens with access to quality education—at least for the basic level. The meaning and role of education, of teaching and learning, are being constantly redefined in an effort to meet the real needs and demands of individual societies and those of the international community. Furthermore, the implications for societies of globalization and communications technology are at the heart of present concerns to improve and upgrade education systems. The globalization of economies and societies at all levels has raised a new challenge, requiring the adaptation of educational content to meet both personal and the national demands in individual countries, as well as in the international arena.

Africa, like all the other parts of the world, is engaged in educational reforms that will enable it to participate fully in the international milieu. However, in many African countries the education systems are in a state of disarray (Nwomonoh, 1998, p. xii). This is illustrated by the country reports presented during the seminar devoted to *Curriculum development and education for living together: conceptual and managerial challenges in Africa* (Nairobi, 25-29 June 2001)—most of the countries had numerous problems arising from various internal and external factors. The reports from eleven of the Sub-Saharan countries presented at the conference highlighted Obanya's point (1999, p. 14) that in Africa education has been a product (if not a victim) of historical (i.e. colonization), social, political and economic forces that have determined its successes or failures in the continent over the years. There are also both internal and external dimensions of Africa's educational dilemma, i.e. over dependence on external donor funding, as in Somalia; rapid population growth, which is one reason that has led to insufficient resources in some countries, such as Nigeria; political instability, leading to internal conflicts in countries such as Burundi, while the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Somalia and Rwanda are trying to recover from wars that have ravaged their countries for years. The last and the most important dilemma, which the United Nation's Secretary-General refers to as 'the most formidable development of our time' (UNESCO, 2001, p. 4) is the impact of HIV/AIDS on education. The African Development Forum, UNAIDS and the Economic Commission of Africa (2000) have shown that more than 50% of HIV-infected people and AIDS sufferers globally can be found in Africa. Furthermore, in comparison to all the other world regions, Sub-Saharan

Africa is striking in two respects: its high level of absolute poverty, which is around 46% according to the United Nations Development Programme (2001, p. 12); and the recent decline in primary enrolment rates across the region to their lowest point in fifteen years (UNESCO-BREDA, 1995, p. 1). Nonetheless, despite Africa's declining economic ability, its multitude of political and social problems, and the wide 'knowledge gap' (i.e. its relative lack of access to modern scientific and technical knowledge and information), a number of countries are engaged in curricular reforms of different kinds designed to address specific situations.

Finally, one of the lessons learned from the experiences of many African countries regarding curriculum development and implementation is that to better contribute to education for 'living together' (Delors et al., 1996, p. 97), it is necessary to improve approaches to curriculum reform so as to accommodate the issues of language, science, cultural diversity, social cohesion, violence in school and HIV/AIDS prevention. With this in mind, experts from Bolivia, Argentina, the United Kingdom, Thailand and Germany presented papers focusing on these issues at the seminar. Some of these issues or themes were also discussed in detail during the subsequent forty-sixth session of the International Conference on Education (ICE), organized by the International Bureau of Education (Geneva, 5-8 September 2001).

In the light of the situation in the countries participating in the seminar, the next sections will discuss the following themes: (i) curriculum and languages; (ii) curriculum and cultural diversity; (iii) education for living together; (iv) curriculum, science teaching and interdisciplinarity; and (v) education in emergency situations. Examples and illustrations will be drawn from country presentations in order to highlight the importance of such issues in curriculum development and reform.

II. CURRICULUM AND LANGUAGES

Language in education embraces the wider question of the languages taught and learned in school, and the languages used as media of instruction at various levels of the education system in each country. The choice of languages used in education in Africa has been influenced by a number of factors: the historical experience of colonialism; political evolution after independence; the socio-linguistic contours of each country; and the strength of linguistic and educational lobbies in various countries (Obanya, 1999, p. 425). For instance, the case of Seychelles was the most intriguing since it has a

tri-lingual policy, that is, the use of French, Creole and English in education. While Mauritius, with Rwanda planning to follow suit, has a bilingual policy of both English and French in its schools. Other countries, such as Burundi and the Comoros, use French, while Kenya, Eritrea and Ethiopia use English. However, it has been suggested that there are three basic orientations about language functioning that are at the root of language policy (Nwomonoh, 1998, p. 305): language as a right, language as a problem and language as a resource.

1. Language as a right

Language as a human right may be derived from, and underpinned by, personal, legal and constitutional rights. In many of the world's countries, language as a right is enshrined in the constitution, so that, where possible, all languages are equally recognized in all spheres of life. In any case, as has been discussed earlier, different countries are faced with various linguistic and/or technical obstacles that lead to a wider use of one local language more than others. For example, Somalia would like to use the Somali language, but they are obliged to the use of Arabic since the Somali language is basically oral—it is not yet written down. In Eritrea it is believed that ensuring the rights of every individual and of every ethnic group in the country depends on the maintenance of their mother-tongue, and that minority languages need to be recognized to involve all ethnic groups in nation-building. But they have only managed to use eight languages because of a shortage of teachers in the ninth language, a lack of teaching materials, etc. Thus, in some situations it is virtually impossible for a particular local language to be used as a medium of instruction in education.

Furthermore, during the last thirty to forty years, important strides have been realized to overcome traditional Eurocentric and colonialist premises on language policies, especially language teaching and learning in formal and informal education (Naumann, 2001). For example: schoolbooks have been Africanized in contents and presentation; a fair number of teaching materials have been developed for adult literacy in African languages; it is no longer common practice to punish pupils who speak African languages during breaks in the schoolyard; and it is accepted in some countries for students to ask questions using African languages and the teacher can use the same language in order to explain some difficult concepts to the pupils. However, a lot still has to be done in terms of striking a balance between psycho- and socio-linguistic needs so as to take account of the large number of African languages spoken at home and the use of European language(s) that are usually used only as a medium of instruction in schools.

2. Language as a problem

Public debate about language policy often examines the issue of language as a problem—a source of conflict in

some countries. Most societies view language as an important cultural tool that gives people a sense of both national and cultural identity, but it can also be a source of disunity and weaken national identity. During the seminar, many countries outlined their language policies in education, and reported a sense of competition or tension between the use of local languages and the official 'European' languages. As already mentioned, eight of the nine local languages in Eritrea are used as a medium of instruction, although only three of them have a script of their own. In Rwanda the country is faced with a problem of refugees who have been exposed to either French or English education systems in asylum countries. Both English and French must be incorporated into its education system in order to accommodate both groups upon their return. In Ethiopia there is apprehension and dissatisfaction that the use of local languages as media of instruction in schools will limit learners' chances of success on the international scene. Nigeria has more than 400 languages, but only three of them are used as a medium of instruction in the early stages of primary education. Likewise, Kiswahili is the only officially recognized language in Kenya out of almost fifty languages.

According to Naumann (2001, p. 3), ever since the beginning of internationally comparable empirical surveys on school achievement and proficiency, pupils from developing countries have always scored much lower than the average level of their peers in industrialized, Western countries. The main reason for this gap appears to be the fact that in the Northern industrialized countries, the language of instruction at school is largely the same as the language spoken at home by a most pupils. Although most participants agreed that they would appreciate highly the use of their local languages as media of instruction, numerous linguistic problems are evident in many of them. In Kenya, publishers are not that keen to publish a lot of material in some minority languages because of a limited market. In Rwanda, they want to use both English and French, but there is a shortage of bilingual teachers and the financial crisis makes it virtually impossible to use both languages for teaching. In Eritrea there is a shortage of teachers in the eight local languages used in early primary education, and some of these languages have little or no literary stocks, such as dictionaries, glossaries and other books.

In conclusion, language is an important cultural tool that can give people a sense of identity, but it can also be a divisive factor, especially if each ethnic group demands that its own language be equally recognized in all sectors of community life. Nonetheless, it is believed that proficiency in many languages, even if it is not one's mother-tongue, can help the majority of learners and teachers to better master the challenges of foreign 'European' languages used at school.

3. Language as a resource

Favoured languages are usually those granting international, economic or political gain. In Ethiopia, for

instance, parents were not happy with the linguistic policy that advocates the use of local languages at primary school. They would have preferred their children to be taught in English from the outset so as to give them more opportunities to master the language at an early age. Elsewhere, commitment by political leaders from strong ethnic groups has led to the adoption and development of zonal or regional languages in multilingual countries, such as Nigeria. The tendency inherent in this orientation has been to value the acquisition of foreign languages, such as English and French, as official languages and media of instruction from the higher grades of primary education. It can be seen that although the continent wants to have a unifying or international African language, it remains a far-fetched dream because many countries are still struggling to promote their own local languages. Thus, the use of foreign languages in education and other spheres of life will remain in practice for decades to come.

III. CURRICULUM AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY

Learning to live together in today's increasingly globalized world requires competencies and values that will equip us all to live in extremely diverse cultural and linguistic contexts. As López (2001a, p. 2) puts it:

such diversity is not only characteristic of societies that we formerly considered to be distant, but is rather part of our very own co-existence, since otherness and difference now impregnate our homes due to the increasing predominance of new information technologies that constantly bring us into contact with worlds with different cultures and languages, and also due to the increasing population shifts of individuals from regions and countries from their own.

This implies that learning to live together in the twenty-first century should then start by recognizing these new situations and accepting our creative diversity. In the educational context, teaching and learning have always been cultural processes that take place within particular contexts, to the extent that they reflect the experience, perspectives, orientations and contributions of a wide variety of ethnic and cultural groups (Häkkinen, 1998, p. 9). In other words, students learn more and more easily when academic knowledge and skills they are expected to learn are filtered through their own experiential and cultural frames of reference.

As was echoed and reiterated during the seminar, language is an important tool that gives people a sense of identity and nationality. It has been mentioned that all countries participating in the seminar used English, French or both from the fourth grade of primary education upwards. This could imply that, as much as countries like Eritrea want their curriculum to be a pillar of national unity based on uniformity in cultural and ethnic diversity, they will still be obliged to use English as a medium of instruction from grade four upwards and this tends to defy their philosophy of using language as one of the unifying factors. So the question is:

‘uniformity in cultural and ethnic diversity in whose language?’ The participants came to a conclusion that to better transmit culture and values to one's children, the use of the first language of the children is ideal. However, it can be seen in the African situation that it is impossible for the time being.

1. The challenges for education

Education, like all the other spheres of life, faces a real challenge in the new context in which the world's accelerating mobility and intercommunication mean that we are brought into contact with ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity. One response related to this increased diversity witnessed across the globe has been a focus on areas that are commonly referred to as intercultural, multicultural, cross-cultural or international education (Cushner, 1998, p. 2). Hence, to prepare us for living together, education for the twenty-first century is expected to:

- Teach us to accept that cultural and linguistic heterogeneity is a fact of life and an inherent human characteristic;
- Facilitate the acquisition of various social competencies that will lead all of us to recognize, respect and value diversity;
- Teach us that human beings are diverse by nature, and are carriers of specific and different cultures;
- Teach us competencies enabling us to understand otherness and the need to highlight how necessary it is to recognize a minimum set of values shared by everyone;
- Teach us to accept others' points of view, cultural practices and beliefs, human rights, equity and equality in an increasingly democratic life (López, 2001a).

It is obvious from these expectations that education is beginning to be viewed as a panacea for the problems and misunderstanding regarding cultural diversity occurring in modern societies. Nonetheless, the rhetoric in all of these expectations is that some countries have such problems that, while these expectations may seem very rational, logical and of the utmost significance, the schools will be unable to handle such complex issues. Given the fact that half of the countries participating in this seminar had been previously involved in a serious armed conflict (Eritrea, Somalia, Democratic Republic of Congo and Rwanda) or the war was still continuing, as in Burundi, it was highly imperative that children at a very young age were exposed to the kind of education that inculcated the above expectations, so that this type of education can ‘influence the future by preparing the minds of young people to include a diversity of viewpoints, behaviours and values’ (Cushner, 1998, p. 2). These are good intentions, but can the African countries afford to incorporate these concepts in their curricula? Do teachers have the relevant training? And can the school timetable allow renewed approaches to accommodate these issues?

2. Can countries, national systems and schools cope?

Many problems from different countries have been outlined above. However, specific problems that relate to this topic will be briefly discussed here. In Eritrea, after thirty years of war, the Ministry of Education is trying to build an education system based on cultural and ethnic diversity through the use of eight local languages as media of instruction. In Rwanda, the education system and the curricula are being reconstructed in a way that will teach the learners to be considerate citizens, without practising discrimination. Peace education is also part of the new Rwandan curriculum, whereby children are taught values such as tolerance, solidarity, cultural diversity and human rights. In countries such as Somalia, where the formal education curriculum is presently being developed, it is difficult to introduce more new items, and also political sensitivities sometimes destroy positive steps forward. In Burundi, the present curriculum does not have policy-backing, and teachers still use old methods and old curricula. It might not be possible to introduce any form of teaching that could be related to cultural diversity for there is no legal document to substantiate it, and teachers are not competent enough and lack proper training to embark on such a venture. In Ethiopia, the major complaint was related to too many political changes, since new projects or initiatives are abandoned each time a new minister comes to power.

Furthermore, in Kenya and Nigeria, the main complaint was that the school timetable is already overloaded with many subjects, such that it is difficult to include any more. It was mentioned during the debate that schools are expected to take care of many new issues, for instance, the issue of HIV/AIDS, information and communication technology (ICTs) and many others. So the question was: at what time will these issues be addressed? A crucial point made by the Seychelles representative was that Africa may be adopting initiatives from more mature education systems, and suggested that it would be better for the countries to develop their own home-grown systems.

3. Pedagogical implications

It is indeed essential for both students and teachers to become aware of the complexities regarding cultural diversity and how shared values can help to alleviate the consequences that result when there is a lack of understanding of this phenomenon. It is equally important to realise this task goes beyond schooling and calls for society's involvement. The following recommendations were outlined as guidelines on how multiculturalism can be maintained within the school setting without introducing conflicting ideas between different ethnic groups and nationalities. These recommendations also tried to take into consideration issues of overloaded timetables and that it is not really necessary for countries and schools to introduce a new

subject. Instead, these recommendations can be incorporated into the teachers' daily work (López, 2001b). They include:

- Curriculum design and implementation has to take into account the reality in which education and learning take place.
- Education in multilingual and multicultural settings must take into account the social and cultural context.
- The school has to provide children with meaningful and situational linguistic opportunities for learning, and for cognitive and social growth.
- Western-style schools attended by indigenous or minority groups should pay special attention to the specific languages spoken by the pupils and to their diverse cultures. In such schools teachers should inquire and learn about minority social practices, so that the other pupils can accept these groups.
- The more opportunity a child is given to acquire and learn new languages, the wider the cultural flexibility and understanding. Thus, second-language learning should place an emphasis on social use rather than linguistic form, so that the pupils can construct a new culture via their second language.
- Educational planners and teachers must be aware of the varying historical and socio-cultural situations in which learning takes place.

To conclude this section, we can say that adequate decisions in intercultural curriculum design, language choice and implementation in schools can contribute to the empowerment of minorities in all societies. The support and participation of parents, local leaders and authorities regarding the choice and effective use of indigenous languages as media of instruction can help to achieve the goal of contributing to the children's development through improved self-image, self-respect and self-esteem. The most serious challenge regarding this topic was teacher training—their understanding and interpretation of multiculturalism, shared values and diversity—since each one of society's problems is pushed onto the school. Another main issue was that what is taught in schools becomes diffused in society when children go home. Participants reiterated that parents and the entire society need to encourage young people in order for schooling to succeed in what it teaches.

IV. EDUCATION FOR LIVING TOGETHER

In his opening speech at the seminar, the Kenyan Minister of Education stated that 'living together is impossible when there is intolerance, conflict and disrespect which has gone to school'. The Minister asserted that the curriculum should emphasize equitable learning and harmonious co-existence for all people. The efficiency of formal education as an instrument of integration and social cohesion is increasingly questioned as rapid changes associated with the multiple processes of globalization weaken traditional models of social, political and economic organization. As a result, schools have been charged with duties that teachers sometimes feel

society could do much better. As Tawil (2001, p. 1) puts it, social exclusion, armed conflict and school-based violence have recently emerged as important social concerns calling for a radical re-examination of the role of education in ensuring social cohesion. As has been observed earlier, some of the countries that participated in this seminar had been involved in a war (Burundi), while some are in a post war era (Somalia, Ethiopia, Democratic Republic of Congo and Rwanda). These countries have been exposed to violence that has adversely affected their education systems and the learners. There are many kinds of violence that can affect education, schools and learners. This makes it all the more imperative for these countries to strive for social cohesion, democracy and education for living together. Education is one way of curbing violence and learning how to deal with the victims of violence.

1. Education and social exclusion

Social exclusion can be defined as the exclusion of the poor (or minority groups in some cases) from the benefits associated with economic growth and progress, exclusion from the accompanying socialization experienced through access to education, consumption, identity and social recognition (Tawil, 2001, p. 3). There are a series of exclusions that can be economic in nature (exclusion from employment, means of production, land, etc.), political (denial of security, of representation, of citizenship, of rights, etc.) and social (exclusion from education, health services, housing, etc.). Any of these forms of social exclusion could lead to breakdown at the familial, economic, political and social levels, possibly resulting in anger and frustration. The final outcome of such a situation could be violence in terms of war, genocide and even terrorism. Educationally, children and even teachers who live with social exclusion end up frustrated since they are discriminated against and are denied their human rights—such as the right to education in the case of learners.

As both an instrument of domination and oppression, or of democracy and liberation, education can incite conflict, violence or alternatively encourage social exclusion. For instance, exclusion from minimal levels of schooling leads to a lifetime of exclusion from basic entitlements, employment, social acceptance, dignity and the right of citizenship (Tawil, 2001, p. 9). This implies that the continual ‘denial’ of access to basic education in many countries for various reasons perpetuates economic disparities and social exclusion. In Comoros, 25% of the learners do not have access to basic education and less than 10% of students enter high school; in Ethiopia, only 51% of the school-going population has enrolled at primary level. Thus, the question is: What happens to those children who never have a chance to see the inside of a classroom? This is the beginning of their social exclusion, for they have not received the minimal formal education that would make them eligible for employment and other social benefits.

In Mauritius, a system of pre-vocational streams in

State secondary schools has been developed aimed at assisting those students who have failed twice in formal schools, but are too young to be employed. This system ensures that these learners do not immediately enter the work market and, when they do, are equipped with some pre-vocational skills that could help them get better employment or gain access to technical schools/colleges.

2. Schools and violence

Violence can be defined as ‘behaviour against people liable to cause physical or psychological harm’ (Osler, 2001, p. 2). Although the term violence in schools is now widely accepted, there is a preference among many practitioners and academics to use terms such as ‘anti-social behaviour or incivility’. Violence is also a natural human reaction to avoid unpleasant and painful experiences, and it is a reality in both schools and society. Ohsako (1997, p. 7) asserts that to admit violence in schools, which are traditionally havens of learning and growth, is particularly painful. However, as Osler (2001, p. 2) shows, violence and human rights violations are inflicted on learners by other learners—and sometimes by teachers.

Institutional violence also includes exclusion from school, as used by teachers and head-teachers to control unruly behaviour. This can be either temporary or permanent (expulsion). Those who are permanently excluded from school rarely return to mainstream education, since students’ records are kept for future reference by other schools. In effect, a form of institutional violence is applied to young people who are already experiencing problems at school (learning problems) or at home. For instance, refugee children who have experienced trauma and violence can themselves become very unruly and violent if excluded from school (Osler, 2001, p. 4). In some cases, the education system has laws, customs and practices that systematically reflect racial or religious inequalities, leading to some kind of exclusion for those who do not belong to the ‘right’ race or religion. There is also school-based violence, which includes bullying between youngsters, intimidation and physical aggression towards teaching personnel, vandalism, racketeering and sexual violence (Tawil, 2001, p. 7). There are also different types of violence, such as reactive violence whereby children find themselves in trouble as a response to a long history of ‘everyday aggression’ against them. In some instances, the violence is legitimized such as when teachers are allowed to cane students. Lastly, in some low-income countries, parents are afraid of sending their daughters to school for fear of sexual harassment and rape. In Nigeria, if a family is poor, they are more likely to send a male child to school than a female one.

3. Challenging violence

According to Ohsako (1997, p. 16; see also Osler, 2001, p. 7), the following measures can help to tackle violence in schools:

- *Rights and responsibilities*: The United Nations

Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) reaffirms children's right to education. It also asserts that the State has an obligation to protect children from abuse, neglect and all forms of violence. It is therefore every State's responsibility to protect children against all forms of violence and social exclusion.

- *School curriculum*: The concepts of peaceful conflict resolution, social responsibility, constructive communication and interactive approaches should be incorporated into existing lessons, rather than creating additional subjects and learning materials. A major complaint of most countries at the seminar was that curricula are already too overloaded.
- *School-community co-operation*: Teacher/parent communication is a crucial factor in violence management and in regulating students' behavioural problems. In many developing countries, parents still have this belief and notion that schools are the teacher's domain, but the fact remains that when a child leaves school, he/she goes home to his parents. Thus, a coalition between the two parties could prove helpful and support children in continuing to learn non-formally at home.
- *The promotion of equity, including gender, race, ethnicity and disability*: Schools are obliged to involve staff and students in the formulation of such policies, so that all sectors within the school are catered for.
- *The preservation of humanity's cultural and intellectual heritage*: It is important for subjects, such as history, to be interpreted from a variety of perspectives in different times and places.

Finally, according to Tawil (2001, p. 9), formal education in some cases can fail in its nation-building and distributive functions, thus encouraging social exclusion. And, as it has been said earlier, violence is a natural reaction to avoid unpleasant and painful experiences. It follows that those students who are excluded from school through expulsion or bullying, because of war, poverty or refugee status are more likely to be violent as a way of releasing their anger. Therefore, it is highly imperative that countries, education systems and schools should try to keep learners at school for as long as possible so as to avoid social exclusion. This will have an effect on long-term violence and anger among excluded learners. Countries such as Rwanda, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Burundi need peace education in order to help learners to understand the past and look into the future. There is also a need for psychological support for young war victims in some countries.

V. CURRICULUM, SCIENCE TEACHING AND INTERDISCIPLINARITY

More than any previous period of human history, the twentieth century was profoundly marked by developments in science and technology. Across the world, science is increasingly viewed as a subject of lifelong utility to all students, whether or not they follow

science-related careers. A more science-literate population is perceived as being better equipped to contribute to sustainable economic development and to social welfare through informed decision-making (Ware, 1992, p. 1). Moreover, teaching science to enhance the capacity for 'living together' means building an image of science as a culture, as a language, as a heritage for all mankind and as a quest that does not conflict with other ways of making sense of the world (Labate, 2001, p. 1). Science as a compulsory subject had the following characteristics: (i) it was divided into disciplines, such as chemistry, biology and physics; (ii) there was a tendency to produce 'simplified versions' of the science syllabus taught at higher education institutions; (iii) it was impossible to cover such a vast number of topics in the time allocated in the school timetable. As a way of moving away from this situation, there has been a shift from discipline-based to an interdisciplinary approach to science teaching.

1. *Interdisciplinarity in science teaching*

An interdisciplinary approach consciously applies methodology and language from more than one discipline to examine a central theme, issue, topic or experience—making links of complementarity or co-operation in order to integrate students' learning (Labate, 2001, p. 10). In other words, interdisciplinary teaching gives a global view of content and a holistic view of what is being taught by also incorporating the learners' experience and culture. According to Jenkins (1997, p. 25), science is a way of making sense of the world, but not the only one. Scientists understand the world in a particular way and they express it through a language that is not the one we use for everyday speech. Thus, an intervention of a practical kind in the natural world can never be value-free. This implies that science taking into consideration the interest of children, their experiences and cultural backgrounds, will be much more appreciated.

Furthermore, interdisciplinary teaching may consider several contexts, such as: classroom inquiry about a science topic that allows the study of factors from the point of view of more than one scientific discipline; exploring how machines work and how they are made, making links with technological knowledge; learning the history of scientific concepts in relationship to history, geography and society; and social and personal issues such as the use of natural resources, the environmental impact of human activities, the prevention of natural catastrophes, etc. During the seminar, different countries voiced their opinions regarding this approach to science.

2. *Perspectives on science teaching and interdisciplinarity*

It was agreed that although interdisciplinary teaching may be the best option or solution, in some cases teachers have their own biases and end up concentrating their efforts on areas of science that they like or that they

find easy to teach. In some cases, teachers concentrate on the content that will be assessed in the final examination, to the detriment of other issues of less importance as far they are concerned. In most of the participating countries, science subjects have the highest attrition and drop-out rates. Thus, it was agreed that a user-friendly approach is necessary to encourage more girls to join the field of science. Most of the participants agreed that the teaching of science in schools is not exclusively the domain of those who will be future engineers and scientists, but should contribute to an equitable education for all students (Labate, 2001, p. 4).

It was mentioned that in Kenya, while the teaching of science is a daunting task for most teachers, the interdisciplinary approach is even more challenging. Thus, it was felt that teacher training would have to be revised if the interdisciplinary approach was to be employed. In Rwanda, the German government had helped teachers to practise interdisciplinary teaching, but only up to grade III in body hygiene and environmental science. In Mauritius, integrated science had been attempted as a subject, but those teachers who specialized in one subject, such as chemistry, focused on what they knew, rather than trying to integrate it with other subjects.

For countries such as Somalia and the Democratic Republic of Congo, who are trying to pick up the pieces after a conflict, the idea of interdisciplinarity seemed to be a far-fetched ideal while grappling with a basic curriculum to satisfy the needs of the people. For Burundi, where the war still continues, although to a lesser degree, it is difficult to start implementing such complicated ideas as interdisciplinary science teaching.

3. The curriculum and science teaching

If we accept the importance of teaching science to all students, the curriculum development process means making decisions on what is to be taught, how and when. It will also be necessary to develop materials that can help students to learn and teachers to teach.

While the practical side of science teaching is very crucial, there are many examples of well-intentioned planners taking decisions on the curriculum that teachers must apply, but who failed to consider specific students' needs, school organizational constraints, teachers' competencies or the contexts in which science is taught. Therefore, the curriculum must show some degree of flexibility and openness permitting regional and local adaptations (Labate, 2001, p. 7). Teachers are important role-players if the interdisciplinary approach is to succeed. For teachers, acquiring a mastery of interdisciplinary teaching is not easy, and introducing this approach in the classroom requires changes in teaching methodologies that are difficult to anticipate and manage (See: International Bureau of Education, 2001, p. 14). As far as students are concerned, science teaching, its syllabus and methods frequently fail because they do not sufficiently take into consideration the pleasure that young people derive from discovery—

science and technology are not subjects that arouse the same enthusiasm as sports and rock music. Thus, it is very important that curriculum developers and teachers alike should try to make science interesting and more related to learners' daily lives. In such circumstances, curriculum developers could benefit from the following guidelines:

- A science curriculum must focus on a limited number of concepts;
- Concepts have to be organized taking into account their level of difficulty;
- The curriculum should allow children to improve their understanding of day-to-day events, making it richer and more complex;
- Content should encourage a parallel development of scientific procedures and attitudes;
- Content is adequate when it is related to the students' world (health, bodily functions, daily use of objects, etc.);
- Differentiation of content within disciplines should be a goal—and not a starting point.

A very important question addressed during the seminar was what teaching methodology should be used that could arouse the learners' interest in sciences and also help them to understand the content that is being taught. The working document on Workshop No. 5 of the ICE (International Bureau of Education, 2001, p. 9) listed the following methods:

- *Experimental practices and getting in touch with reality*: Great emphasis has to be placed on practical work and learner involvement in that practical work;
- *Making the learner act*: Students should play an active role if they are to learn;
- *Diversifying learning paths*: Every student has to follow his/her own learning path, so that they can learn with ease;
- *Taking account of initial representations*: The students' prior knowledge or ideas form an important base for what is going to be taught, and that knowledge will help to facilitate or block the students' learning;
- *Knowledge about knowledge*: Once the learning process has been completed, the difficulties encountered must be discussed with the learner, so as to see how much has been understood;
- *Project-oriented teaching methods*: Using projects is the best way to increase pupil involvement in numerous ways during the teaching and learning process;
- *Documentary research*: This involves some specific technical skills and would depend on the availability of learning materials, such as textbooks, reference books, the Internet, etc.

To conclude, to live together in an increasingly complex, globalized and scientific world requires individuals and communities capable of continually developing and utilizing various kinds of knowledge frameworks, value systems and skills. In order to help students to achieve this kind of understanding, the curriculum needs to be

designed taking into account their daily lives and cultural background, and emphasizing a sense of wonder and respect for the world.

VI. EDUCATION IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS

1. The curriculum and the HIV/AIDS pandemic

Education is an essential building block in any country's development. In African countries where the HIV/AIDS pandemic is at its peak, teacher and learner ill health, absenteeism and death characterize the educational terrain. According to UNESCO (2001, p. 5), the high rate of disease and death among teachers, health workers and trained professionals from other fields will make replacements increasingly hard to find, erode access to education, interfere with the capacity of all educational institutions to function, and finally overwhelm the capacity to cope. Children are also at risk on an unparalleled scale—millions are becoming orphans and will grow up deprived of their right to education. They may run the risk of social exclusion since they are more likely to drop out of school through lack of money to pay school fees, or the need to take care of their younger siblings at home or to take up early employment.

Although HIV/AIDS was identified as early as the 1980s as a killer disease, and has subsequently plagued Africa more than any other region of the world, it is surprising to learn that in most African countries HIV/AIDS education is still not part of the curriculum. For instance, in Eritrea there have been efforts to declare a national policy on AIDS, and religious leaders are expected to play a role in this campaign since it is clear that the country needs a preventive strategy. But it has not yet been done. In the Seychelles, the national curriculum has provision for HIV/AIDS, and the media is also fully involved in this campaign. However, young people have not changed their behaviour yet. In Mauritius, the disease has minimal prevalence; nonetheless NGOs are very much involved in the campaign compared to schools. The major problems in Ethiopia are related to Islamic, poor, urban areas—those who live there do not believe that AIDS exists and that it is a deadly disease, since people who are infected with it die of common diseases such as malaria, tuberculosis and others.

The challenge to overcome the epidemic is overwhelming and the first and the most crucial contribution that an education system can make to is to protect the threatened systems so that schools can continue to provide quality education and training (Coombe, 2001, p. 437). Responding to the HIV/AIDS assault on education includes creating a policy and management framework that can bring about effective changes.

2. Education in emergency situations

'Education is an inalienable right—the one that all children, including those caught in natural and human-made emergencies, must be able to access' (UNICEF, 1999, p. i). This implies that education as a right for all children of the world as stipulated in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 28) has to be provided to children at all costs, in all situations. However, on-going political, social and economic instability in many regions of the world impede access to regular education for large numbers of children. They may be affected by war, conflicts and natural disasters, such as famine, drought and floods. In such situations, a type of education for emergencies has to be developed in order to assist and satisfy these children's right to education.

Furthermore, education has been increasingly viewed and perceived as an integral part of the humanitarian response to emergencies. Nonetheless, UNICEF (1999, p. i) warns that education is not a relief activity. It is central to human and national development since it may serve to prevent man-made emergencies, such as war and conflicts, through the teaching of peace and citizenship. In such a case, education must be a vehicle to form citizens who value peace, respect others, and understand cultural and ethnic diversity. In the midst of all these fine words, full of expectation and anticipation, many problems have surfaced in different countries. Amongst these are: problems experienced by the refugees themselves; problems experienced by the host countries; and the problems experienced by the educational providers in both asylum countries and the refugees' country of origin.

To conclude, the participants pointed out that we cannot find a cure unless we properly diagnose the illness. For instance, violence that leads to war, genocide and, more recently, terrorism is a social, economic and political phenomenon. Thus, schools alone cannot curb the surge of violence in most countries. Children are continually exposed to it through domestic violence, community conflicts and the media. Thus, it was agreed that governments, the community and parents have a stake in trying to combat the violence affecting many countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Devadoss (2001, p. 7) concludes that creating and maintaining social cohesion has become more of a challenge due to globalization, but it is also being ripped apart by real or perceived prejudices and injustices that result in civil strife, ethnic and religious conflicts, social disintegration and—lately—terrorism.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Africa is a continent of countless calamities—for many years it has been plagued by ethnic and religious conflicts and wars, genocides, poverty and debt, natural disasters such as famine, drought and floods, racism, and pandemic diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis. As the new millennium dawns, while coming to terms with globalization, science and technology, linguistic and cultural diversity, shared values, democracy, education for all and education for

living together, many African countries are still struggling to provide their inhabitants with the basics—food, clean water, housing and primary education. Nonetheless, African countries are part of the wider community. They do not want to be left out and are ready to be part of the global village. As a result, all countries that participated in the seminar were engaged in some kind of educational reforms, because it was felt that education is also a basic need that could help societies to live together in peace and harmony.

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Développement du curriculum pour vivre ensemble en Afrique

John Aglo

Comme d'autres secteurs, l'éducation est confrontée à de sérieux problèmes en Afrique au Sud du Sahara, et il n'est d'ailleurs plus nécessaire de rappeler un tel constat. C'est pourquoi, la démarche pertinente aujourd'hui ne consiste pas à se poser la question de savoir s'il y a des problèmes en Afrique subsaharienne, ni même, quels sont les problèmes que connaît cette partie du continent africain, mais plutôt d'avoir d'autres types d'interrogations, à savoir : Que faisons-nous avec les problèmes, une fois que nous les avons identifiés comme des problèmes ? Comment, une fois dépistés, sont-ils gérés d'abord en tant que problèmes affectant des populations d'une région, d'un État, d'une communauté, ensuite et si nécessaire, en relation avec les problèmes analogues et les expériences des régions, États, communautés d'autres parties du monde ? Ces problématiques de gestion des problèmes éducatifs devraient donc désormais s'imposer.

Voilà, au fond, l'esprit sous-jacent aux différents séminaires qu'a organisés le Bureau international d'éducation (BIE) et plus particulièrement, celui qui s'est tenu à Nairobi, au Kenya, du 25 au 29 juin 2001, sur le thème : « Développement du curriculum et éducation pour vivre ensemble : problèmes de concepts et de gestion en Afrique ».

L'organisation de ce séminaire-atelier, la détermination de son contenu et plus particulièrement le choix de son thème se justifient à plus d'un titre :

- L'une de ces raisons, est sans aucun doute liée au nouveau mandat même du BIE. En effet, depuis 1998, la mission du BIE s'est orientée principalement vers le contenu et les méthodologies de l'éducation. Cependant, l'intérêt du BIE pour le curriculum est associé à l'un des défis majeurs du nouveau siècle, l'exigence du vivre-ensemble.
- Une autre raison ayant contribué à déterminer le contenu et le thème du séminaire-atelier est l'organisation de la 46e session de la Conférence internationale de l'éducation (CIE), à Genève, du 5 au 8 septembre 2001. Incarnant le dialogue politique et le matérialisant à une très haute instance, la CIE apparaît comme une manifestation principale de la mission du BIE. De nombreuses activités et des séminaires ont été consacrés à sa préparation. Ainsi, le séminaire-atelier de Nairobi, tout en s'intéressant aux situations éducatives des États d'Afrique de l'Est, a aussi servi comme cadre de préparation de la CIE. Ce n'est donc pas par hasard qu'il y ait un parallèle entre le thème de ce séminaire-atelier et celui de la CIE qui est : « L'éducation pour tous pour apprendre à vivre-ensemble : contenus et stratégies

de l'apprentissage – problèmes et solutions ». Par ailleurs, les nouvelles préoccupations prioritaires de la communauté internationale en matière d'éducation, telles qu'elles ont été exprimées dans le Cadre d'action adopté à la clôture du Forum mondial sur l'éducation, tenu à Dakar du 26 au 28 avril 2000, ont aussi inspiré le contenu de ce séminaire-atelier.

Du reste, les différentes missions du BIE, celles qu'il met en œuvre à travers la CIE ou au moyen de séminaires et cours de formation, ou encore celles qu'il accomplit dans le cadre du suivi de Dakar, constituent toutes des tentatives de réponse aux problèmes nombreux et complexes qui se posent par rapport à l'éducation de par le monde et qui atteignent, dans certaines régions et notamment en Afrique au Sud du Sahara, un seuil critique et tragique.

Ces différentes raisons, sous-jacentes à l'organisation du séminaire atelier et au choix du thème principal, vont également déterminer la conduite des activités, l'organisation des ateliers et le choix de leur thème respectif. En effet, les contributions des participants sous forme de rapports nationaux ont permis de faire l'état des lieux sur les problèmes qui se posent aux systèmes éducatifs des pays de la région avec une insistance sur leur dimension curriculaire.

- Quatre ateliers ont été consacrés à des thèmes choisis d'après les critères qui ont été énoncés plus haut. Ils répondent donc à la fois aux demandes émanant des pays de la région et constatées, suite à des études préliminaires, et aux exigences de la préparation de la CIE dont ils anticipent certains des ateliers.
- Deux autres ateliers se situent dans le cadre du suivi de Dakar et répondent à des situations dramatiques : le VIH/SIDA et l'éducation dans les situations de conflit.

L'ensemble des travaux a conduit alors à faire ressortir des problèmes et solutions caractéristiques de la situation éducative de la région concernée. Ces problèmes et solutions peuvent être rangés en deux grandes catégories : ceux qui concernent l'ensemble des pays participants et qui peuvent être caractérisés comme des situations partagées ou transnationales et ceux qui sont plus spécifiques à certains États.

I. LES PROBLÈMES ET SOLUTIONS DE DIMENSIONS TRANSNATIONALES

Parmi les problèmes et solutions à ranger dans cette catégorie, il convient de commencer par citer la problématique de l'enseignement des langues.

1. La problématique de l'enseignement des langues

La problématique de l'enseignement des langues ne devrait pas être normalement séparée de l'ensemble des questions curriculaires, et il ne semble pas y avoir une justification scientifique à une telle séparation. Si elle s'impose ici, c'est tout simplement parce que pour les États de la région, cette problématique occupe une position centrale dans les préoccupations curriculaires.

En se situant dans le contexte social et linguistique du Sénégal, Jens Naumann¹ a pris position par rapport à des études conduites en vue de la détermination du taux de réussite des élèves sur l'initiative du SACMEQ², de l'INEADE³ et du PASSEC⁴. Il a signalé que dans ces études une attention suffisante ne semble pas avoir été accordée aux données relatives aux milieux linguistiques de base des élèves. Ces études sont caractéristiques d'une observation plus générale qui est que des études sérieuses sur la relation entre les performances scolaires et les milieux linguistiques de base des élèves manquent en Afrique. Or, de telles études seraient nécessaires pour combler les lacunes structurelles qui minent le processus d'apprentissage.

Par leurs différents apports, les autres experts ont montré que ce manque constituait en lui-même un problème important pour l'éducation et l'apprentissage. Ces apports ont contribué à mettre l'accent sur la nécessité de la prise de conscience de l'importance dans le processus d'apprentissage de la langue maternelle ou de la principale langue de l'environnement naturel de l'enfant. Il ressort clairement des contributions de ces experts que l'utilisation, en tant que langue d'enseignement de cette langue maternelle ou principale, offre de meilleures possibilités d'apprentissage pour l'enfant.

Malgré ces conclusions d'ordre scientifique, force est de noter que l'opinion publique manifeste un certain scepticisme quant à l'efficacité et l'utilité des langues locales. Il faut indiquer qu'elle ignore tout des résultats et du consensus de la communauté scientifique quant au fait que la langue locale est le véhicule le plus adapté pour l'acquisition des concepts. La langue locale souffre d'une perception négative. Elle est souvent perçue comme étant insuffisamment « développée » pour assurer la transmission des concepts modernes dans le domaine des sciences et technologie. L'opinion publique continue à croire que la maîtrise de la langue étrangère héritée de la colonisation est la solution cardinale pour la réussite scolaire et pour la réussite sociale et professionnelle. Elle exige que la langue étrangère soit enseignée à l'enfant de plus en plus tôt pour être bien maîtrisée. L'utilisation de la langue de l'environnement naturel de l'enfant comme langue d'enseignement n'est donc pas toujours bien accueillie. Il faut en conclure que l'utilisation de la langue étrangère comme médium d'enseignement bénéficie d'un très fort soutien auprès de l'opinion publique.

Les autres questions auxquelles les participants au séminaire-atelier se sont intéressés d'une manière explicite, ont été abordées soit par rapport à la sélection

et à l'organisation des contenus d'enseignement, soit par rapport à leur efficacité sur le comportement des apprenants ou encore par rapport à leur fonctionnement eu égard à leur gestion et administration. La sélection et l'organisation des contenus d'enseignement ont été examinées à partir d'une mise en relation de l'éducation avec chacune des thématiques suivantes :

- La violence et la cohésion sociale ;
- La diversité culturelle et les valeurs partagées ;
- Les maladies endémiques : VIH-SIDA ;
- L'enseignement des sciences et l'interdisciplinarité ;

Ces thématiques ne sont pas posées simplement comme des thèmes, mais aussi et en même temps comme des valeurs et des situations ayant des implications sociales, politiques et économiques de grande importance.

2. La violence et la cohésion sociale

La question a été présentée sous deux angles. Dans un cas, il a été question de la transmission des contenus dans les situations de conflits, des problèmes qui se posent, et de la manière de les dépasser ou les prévenir. Dans ce cas, l'éducation peut être considérée comme étant victime de conflit et de violence qu'elle a ou non engendrés. Dans l'autre cas, le conflit et la violence sont examinés par rapport à leur manifestation à l'école ou dans la vie ou en tant que résultant de la sélection et de l'organisation des contenus et méthodes d'enseignement et d'administration de l'école.

Face à ces deux cas, l'éducation peut être envisagée comme moteur d'action, ou moyen d'action contre la violence, que ce soit pour lutter contre une situation de violence ou pour la prévenir. Il faudra alors veiller à faire en sorte que la sélection et l'organisation des contenus et méthodes d'enseignement ne soient pas directement, ou indirectement, cause de violence à l'école ou dans la vie.

En fait, les cas où l'éducation est victime des situations de conflits et de guerre paraissent plus spectaculaires. Ils sont en effet plus médiatisés. Force est de rappeler toutefois que les cas où l'école est prise dans un tourbillon de violence ne sont pas les plus réguliers. Plus souvent -mais on en rend moins compte-, et de façon plus insidieuse, l'école est un lieu de violence permanente. Le professeur Audrey Osler parle d'une « violence institutionnalisée » à l'école. Celle-ci ne se manifeste pas seulement dans l'administration de l'école sous forme de moyens de gestion des comportements et des relations interpersonnelles et donc de méthode de discipline. Elle se manifeste aussi à travers l'organisation ou la gestion du curriculum. Cette violence se déploie sous forme d'exclusion de l'école, de discrimination sur la base du genre, de la religion, de la race, de l'ethnie.

L'idée de « violences », au pluriel, doit être saisie comme très importante du point de vue conceptuel. Elle doit comprendre non pas seulement la violence des situations d'urgence comme celles des réfugiés, mais aussi les violences d'origine familiale, communautaire, celle des médias, la violence enseignant-élève, en d'autres termes toute violence qui est le reflet de la frustration sociale.

3. Curriculum et diversité culturelle

L'école et le curriculum doivent s'intéresser désormais au réexamen des valeurs telles que la tolérance, le pluralisme, le respect mutuel, le pluralisme linguistique, la démocratie. Ils doivent viser le développement des compétences tels que « la flexibilité cognitive », le développement de l'estime de soi et du respect de soi. Ils doivent prendre en charge le relativisme culturel dans le cadre des droits humains et l'ouverture « en direction » de l'inconnu. Ils doivent être caractérisés par le rejet d'une vision unique du monde et prendre acte du fait que les cultures sont dynamiques. Tels sont pour Luiz E. López, les nouveaux défis auxquels l'école et le curriculum sont confrontés.

4. Curriculum et maladies endémiques : VIH-SIDA

La relation entre le curriculum et les maladies endémiques a été plus exactement ramenée à celle entre le curriculum et le VIH-SIDA et envisagée sous deux axes : l'aperçu de la situation critique dans la région d'Asie et du Pacifique et la présentation concrète des actions en vue de la prévention de VIH/SIDA au moyen des améliorations, des innovations qualitatives en matière de curriculum et de matériels didactiques.

5. Curriculum, enseignement des sciences et interdisciplinarité

La relation entre le curriculum et les sciences a permis de mettre en évidence l'importance de l'enseignement interdisciplinaire. Les participants ont insisté sur le lien entre l'enseignement des sciences, les valeurs sociales des sociétés prises individuellement et l'utilité des sciences pour les apprenants.

L'approche interdisciplinaire pourrait être une solution contre la surcharge des programmes. Elle peut permettre de réduire les programmes surchargés, résorber la fragmentation des emplois du temps, éliminer les impertinences. Toutefois, l'enseignement interdisciplinaire exige des enseignants bien formés, le travail de groupe du personnel enseignant de l'école, du matériel didactique soigneusement conçu et testé, un soutien scolaire de la part d'un conseiller en matière de science et curriculum.

II. LES PROBLÈMES ET SOLUTIONS SPÉCIFIQUES AUX ÉTATS

Les systèmes éducatifs de certains États de la région ont été affectés d'une façon particulièrement déterminante par des crises aux conséquences politiques, sociales et culturelles importantes. Il a été dès lors très instructif d'examiner la situation éducative dans les États, en ayant en esprit leur spécificité.

Il est à noter que le Rwanda s'est engagé dans une réorganisation en profondeur de l'ensemble de son système éducatif, suite au retour de réfugiés et exilés ayant connu différents systèmes éducatifs et différents

environnements linguistiques dans leurs pays d'accueil. Le système éducatif de certains des États évolue encore maintenant dans des contextes de conflit. Cela appelle à la mise en place d'une forme d'éducation adaptée aux situations d'urgence. C'est le cas de la Somalie -où l'UNESCO PEER intervient activement-, de la République démocratique du Congo et du Burundi.

L'Éthiopie et l'Érythrée ont opté pour le pluralisme linguistique à l'école et reconnaissent l'efficacité, à la fois culturelle et didactique, de l'utilisation de la langue maternelle dans l'enseignement. Depuis quelques temps déjà, l'enseignement aux Seychelles a donné un caractère normatif et institutionnel à l'éducation pour vivre ensemble.

Bénéficiant d'une stabilité économique et démocratique, le Mauricien jouit d'une scolarisation universelle totale et gratuite au niveau primaire. Mais paradoxalement, à cause du goulot d'étranglement que représente le passage au niveau secondaire et l'insistance sur l'examen de fin d'étude primaire, les taux d'abandon et de « double-échec » sont très élevés.

Aux Comores et au Nigeria des dispositions sont à l'étude pour assurer la complémentarité et l'intégration de l'enseignement de type coranique et celui de type officiel, qui ont jusque-là coexisté de façon parallèle. Par ailleurs, le Nigeria s'est engagé depuis 1999 dans un programme de neuf ans pour une éducation de base universelle.

Le Kenya a présenté les facteurs affectant son système éducatif en insistant sur les problèmes liés à l'accès, l'équité, la pertinence et la qualité. La plupart des problèmes ont été reliés à des paramètres socio-économiques et culturels, autrement dit, aux finances, à l'accès égal de la fille et du garçon à la scolarisation, au manque de matériels adaptés et aux facteurs politiques. Il a été question du mécanisme d'adaptation d'un curriculum développé au niveau central à des régions aux conditions naturelles et socio-économiques diverses. La représentation des acteurs régionaux dans l'instance centrale pour la conception, la définition et le développement du curriculum ont été envisagées comme un moyen de remédier aux problèmes liés à la diversité des régions. La présentation des programmes d'éducation pour la petite enfance et pour le système non formel a montré le rôle et l'importance des acteurs autres que l'État dans ces secteurs. De même, il est important que soit envisagé un mode de conciliation entre le milieu formel et le non formel, en vue d'un meilleur transfert des apprenants lorsque c'est nécessaire de l'un des systèmes vers l'autre. Le rôle des universités dans le processus de développement du curriculum est apparu très important au Kenya. En dehors de son rôle traditionnel dans la recherche en matière curriculaire, dans la formation des enseignants et des chercheurs et gestionnaires des curricula, l'université est associée de près à l'élaboration, à la mise en œuvre et à l'évaluation des curricula, processus dans lesquels elle participe avec des rôles de premier plan.

III. AUTRES QUESTIONS, ORIENTATIONS ET RECOMMANDATIONS

Au cours de leurs travaux les experts ont eu aussi à aborder des questions qui, tout en ayant une dimension curriculaire, n'ont pas bénéficié d'un traitement très approfondi, car ils ne faisaient pas l'objet des débats. Parmi ces questions, on peut signaler, par exemple, le caractère surchargé des programmes et le fait que dans de nombreux pays ils semblent être déterminés ou orientés essentiellement en vue des examens. L'analyse des modes d'examen, c'est-à-dire, de l'évaluation comme partie intégrante du curriculum, conduit à retenir que ces modes devront être enrichis, mais tout en veillant à ne pas compliquer ou miner le curriculum.

Il est à noter aussi qu'il y a un manque d'information concernant le degré d'utilisation de la technologie (traditionnelle ou moderne) dans l'éducation pour vivre ensemble.

Les ravages causés par le VIH/SIDA dans le milieu de l'éducation, le renforcement des capacités dans la gestion des problèmes transnationaux et des situations spéciales, l'éducation multiculturelle et interculturelle, l'enseignement des valeurs, le rôle de l'histoire en tant qu'instrument qui permet de combler le fossé entre les peuples, la recherche en matière d'éducation, l'approche intégrative dans l'enseignement des sciences, la coopération internationale, régionale ou sous-régionale, la façon dont le curriculum pourrait répondre aux situations nouvelles, et le rôle des organisations non gouvernementales sont d'autant d'aspects qui ont, à certains moments, retenu l'attention des experts. Mais n'étant pas l'objet formel des travaux, ils n'ont pas pu être approfondis.

D'une façon générale, il n'est pas aisé de séparer les problèmes de contenus de ceux de la gestion de ces contenus. C'est ainsi que les experts ont été conduits à examiner les questions relatives à la décentralisation ou à la déconcentration, à leurs répercussions sur la participation aux décisions relatives à l'élaboration des curricula. L'interrogation principale à cet égard, a consisté à savoir si une décentralisation effective pouvait être possible, si les écoles n'étaient pas dotées d'un degré d'autonomie suffisante pouvant faciliter l'enseignement et l'apprentissage du vivre ensemble. La question de la décentralisation apparaît ainsi, essentiellement, en termes de participation. Et, de l'avis de nombreux participants, les décisions curriculaires restent encore très souvent entre les mains de professionnels et excluent dans une certaine mesure la participation de la grande majorité de la communauté.

Face aux problèmes curriculaires et aux réalités éducatives des États, il est apparu nécessaire d'entreprendre une action d'envergure visant à revoir globalement ou à repenser profondément les approches pédagogiques plutôt que de continuer à leur apporter des remèdes ponctuels de moins en moins efficaces.

A force d'opter pour des solutions de replâtrage on aboutit à des impasses et des difficultés insurmontables débordant le cadre des problèmes strictement scolaires

pour être des problèmes de société. A ce sujet, l'évocation des cas attestés dans les pays occidentaux est très instructive. L'école devient, de plus en plus, et sans jeu de mots, un lieu de violence et de conflit, un lieu de mise en scène, en grandeur nature, des conflits déchirant l'ensemble de la société. En effet, dans ces pays, la tendance dans certaines écoles est de regrouper les élèves appartenant au même milieu socio-économique. Cela développe une incapacité à apprendre dans un environnement ouvrant à la diversité.

Le service central chargé de l'inspection académique et du renforcement de la qualité en matière curriculaire au Kenya a fait remarquer une tendance qui est valable pour l'ensemble des pays. Il s'agit d'aller progressivement, en matière d'évaluation du contenu et du personnel enseignant, vers un mécanisme d'auto-évaluation assuré par l'enseignant lui-même et au sein de son école.

En vue d'assurer une meilleure prise en main des situations de crises par le système éducatif et d'éviter que ce dernier n'en soit trop affecté, la question relative à la prévention des situations de crise au moyen de l'éducation a été abordée. Des mécanismes de prévention ont été suggérés. Par exemple, il a été question d'étudier l'opportunité d'intégrer des programmes d'enseignement en situation d'urgence dans le programme ordinaire, la réhabilitation des générations ayant connu les situations de crise, en développant dans leurs pays d'accueil la possibilité pour les réfugiés et exilés, d'avoir des curricula basés sur les réalités de leur pays d'origine en vue de favoriser leur retour et leur future intégration.

Il apparaît évident que toute entreprise de renforcement des capacités doit s'accompagner de dispositions dotant les enseignants d'équipements leur permettant d'assurer une mise en œuvre effective des plans et programmes.

Il est nécessaire en outre de mettre un accent particulier sur l'enseignement à la maîtrise intellectuelle et à l'utilisation des technologies modernes, des technologies de l'information, sur l'accès à l'information dans le domaine de la conception et du développement du curriculum, sur le développement des stratégies et des tests-pilotes.

Les experts ont contribué à l'identification des besoins dans les domaines suivants : le développement des aptitudes à la recherche dans le domaine curriculaire ; l'acquisition de la connaissance et de l'expertise dans le domaine du développement du curriculum, l'acquisition de la connaissance des techniques pour assurer au curriculum la flexibilité nécessaire à l'adaptation aux changements rapides ; pour la sélection de contenu, et la mise à jour du curriculum en vue de lui éviter d'être surchargé ; la planification du curriculum, l'harmonisation et à l'adaptation du processus de planification du curriculum aux ressources disponibles ; la négociation des allocations budgétaires, à la recherche de financements, à l'administration de la mise en œuvre du curriculum ; aux relations publiques, à la communication, à la sensibilisation et aux mécanismes de mobilisation de la communauté de base et des acteurs

clés de l'éducation pour la participation dans le processus de développement et de mise en œuvre de curriculum ; dans le domaine du pilotage et de l'évaluation de la qualité du curriculum aux niveaux national, régional, et de l'école.

Les travaux de ce séminaire-atelier ont conduit à des recommandations, tenant compte du fait que la globalisation doit faciliter la coopération régionale et internationale et la promotion de la diversité culturelle.

Considérant que les langues locales et nationales, grâce aux grandes opportunités qu'elles fournissent à l'apprentissage, contribuent au développement personnel et social de l'enfant; ayant à l'esprit l'importance du curriculum dans la promotion de l'éducation pour vivre ensemble, les participants au séminaire-atelier font les 10 recommandations suivantes :

1. La mise en place d'un Institut panafricain des concepteurs et des développeurs du curriculum ;
2. La promotion des programmes d'échanges liés au savoir-faire curriculaire, au niveau régional et inter-régional ;
3. La révision des approches pédagogiques en usage en vue d'y intégrer les valeurs permettant de vivre ensemble ;
4. La protection des enfants contre toute forme de violence (institutionnelle ou implicite) ;
5. La promotion de l'équité au moyen du curriculum, en vue de prévenir l'émergence des situations pouvant engendrer la violence ;

6. L'élaboration des curricula qui peuvent également servir de fer de lance pour l'enseignement des attitudes et comportements convenables ;
7. La mise en place de dispositions donnant la priorité à des programmes appropriés de formation de formateurs, en vue de l'adaptation aux changements multidimensionnels qui affectent l'éducation ;
8. L'encouragement de la recherche dans le domaine de l'éducation pour les solutions qui sont adaptées aux besoins spécifiques et à l'environnement des États africains ;
9. L'institutionnalisation d'un programme politique national sur les langues, propre à chaque nation ;
10. Le renforcement systématique des mesures contre l'expansion du VIH/SIDA.

Notes

1. Dans un texte intitulé « Curriculum and language: teachings in African language and learning strategies » Professeur Jens Naumann enseigne au Department of Education and Social Sciences de l'Université de Münster (Allemagne), et à l'Institut 1, Fachbereich Erziehungswissenschaft und Sozialwissenschaften.
2. The Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality.
3. Institut national d'études et d'action pour le développement de l'éducation.
4. Programme d'analyse des systèmes d'éducation de la CONFEMEN.

PART III:
SELECTED ISSUES
IN A REGIONAL PERSPECTIVE

PARTIE III:
PROBLÉMATIQUES SÉLECTIONNÉES
DANS UNE PERSPECTIVE
RÉGIONALE

Education and violence: education in emergency situations—the issue of social cohesion

Audrey Osler

I. INTRODUCTION

The 1974 UNESCO Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms remains a useful blueprint against which curriculum planners can assess the degree to which the formal school curriculum has the essential features necessary for learning and teaching for peace and preventing violence. The commonly used short title for this recommendation ‘Education for International Understanding’ disguises its value as a curriculum framework for education for living together in the community of the school itself and for promoting peace, human rights and democracy at local and national levels.

The Gulbenkian Foundation’s Commission on Children and Violence defines violence as ‘behaviour against people liable to cause physical or psychological harm’ (Gulbenkian Foundation, 1995, p. 4). The Commission observed that: ‘in general, children are far more often victims of violence than perpetrators’ (Gulbenkian Foundation, 1995, p. 1). Most importantly, the Commission noted that: ‘Schools can either be a force for violence prevention, or can provide an experience which reinforces violent attitudes and adds to the child’s experience of violence’ (Gulbenkian Foundation, 1995, p. 139).

Although the term ‘violence in schools’ is now widely accepted, there was, until the late 1990s, a preference among many academics and practitioners to use terms such as ‘anti-social behaviour’ to identify the problem, and terms such as ‘the promotion of safety in schools’ to describe the strategies needed to tackle this problem (Debarbieux, 2001). Such terms focus attention on the individual or group thought to be ‘anti-social’. A focus on individuals, be they teachers or pupils, and on behaviour problems prevents consideration of the schooling system itself as problematic. It invites solutions that address the individual, without due consideration being given to the school as an institution or to the whole system of schooling. In 2001 an international conference entitled ‘Violence in Schools and Public Policies’ was held in Paris, with the support of UNESCO, the European Commission and the French education authorities. This conference perhaps marks a turning point in our recognition of violence in schools as a real issue requiring policy responses, which address schools as institutions and focus on the need for educational reform.

II. SCHOOLS AND VIOLENCE

A number of writers have criticized the coercive nature of mass schooling systems as inevitably violent and damaging (Meighan, 1994; Harber, 1997). Colonial education systems were designed as mechanisms of control, with a number of post-colonial governments in Africa using the schooling system that they inherited for their own political purposes of control (Harber, 1989).

1. Institutional violence

A study of schools in nine countries in Africa, Asia and South America concluded that levels of institutional violence in some schools were so high that:

It is almost certainly more damaging for children to be in school than out of it. Children whose days are spent herding animals rather than sitting in a classroom at least develop skills of problem solving and independence while the supposedly luckier ones in school are stunted in their mental, physical and emotional development by being rendered passive, and having to spend hours each day in a crowded room under the control of an adult who punishes them for any normal level of activity such as moving or speaking (DfID, 2000, p. 12-13).

Institutional violence in schools may be expressed in a number of ways. In England, exclusion from school is used by headmasters as a sanction to control unruly behaviours of various sorts. The British government has expressed concern about the high levels of permanent exclusion from school. Around 12,000 pupils each year are permanently excluded from school, and those who are excluded from secondary school rarely return to mainstream education. In effect, a form of institutional violence is applied to young people who are experiencing problems in school. We know that disaffection and poor behaviour in school are often linked to learning difficulties, that is to say, young people who cannot cope with the curriculum because they lack the basic skills become frustrated and cover up their problems by causing trouble. There are also examples of young people being excluded from school following bereavement, and of refugee children who have undergone trauma and violence finding themselves excluded because they then exhibit violent behaviours in school (Osler, Watling & Busher, 2001). In one tragic case, a 10-year-old child committed suicide after a dispute between his mother and his headmaster led to him being excluded (McVeigh, 2001). There are concerns that exclusion as a sanction is not only

ineffective but that it may have short-term and longer-term effects that undermine social cohesion and well-being. Disaffected young people are removed from the classroom and many have little to do except wander the streets. Links have been made between exclusion from school and juvenile crime (Graham & Bowling, 1995). Those who are excluded may suffer longer-term social exclusion, since they may have been denied the chance to gain basic qualifications.

2. Schools, racism and inequality

Forms of violence in school may be linked to institutional violence in the wider society. In 1999, following an official inquiry into the police handling of the murder of a black teenager on the streets of London, the British Government accepted the finding that not only was there institutional racism in the police force, but that institutional racism ran right through society. The government pledged itself to an action plan to rid society of institutional racism, and accepted that schools have a key role. Yet, schools are not simply part of the solution, they are also part of the problem.

Richardson and Wood (1999) provide a useful working definition of racism in education, exploring how it can become institutionalized:

In the education system there are laws, customs and practices that systematically reflect and reproduce racial inequalities. [...] If racist consequences accrue to institutional laws, customs and practices, a school or a local education authority or a national education system is racist whether or not individual teachers, inspectors, officers, civil servants and elected politicians have racist intentions. [...] Educational institutions may systematically treat or tend to treat pupils and students differently in respect of race, ethnicity or religion. The differential treatment lies within an institution's ethos and organisation rather than in the attitudes, beliefs and intentions of individual members of staff. The production of differential treatment is 'institutionalised' in the way the institution operates (Richardson & Wood, 1999, p. 33).

If this definition is adapted and applied in a variety of national contexts, we may see how institutional racism, which is a form of institutional violence, exists in many forms. In Rwanda, where genocide took place in 1994, schools are identified, by the present government, as having contributed to the violence (Woodward, 2000). The education system, based on a colonial model, prepared a small minority to run the country. The massacre of Tutsis by Hutus was based on total dehumanization of the other (Prunier, 1995). The violence in schools was not limited to separate schooling and indoctrination. During the genocide:

Schools could not be places of refuge either and Hutu teachers commonly denounced their Tutsi pupils to the militia or even directly killed them themselves (Prunier, 1995, p. 254).

A number of writers have questioned how well-educated people have, in various contexts during the twentieth century, been involved in acts of genocide and in crimes against humanity:

The role of well-educated persons in the conception, planning and execution of genocide requires explanation; any attempt at explanation must consider how it was possible that their education did not render genocide unthinkable. The active involvement of children and young people in carrying out acts of violence, sometimes against their teachers and fellow pupils, raises further questions about the kind of education they had received (Retamal & Aedo-Richmond, 1998, p 16).

III. VIOLENCE AND THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

1. Reactive violence

In England it has been observed that the typical profile of a white child excluded from school is one who has a history of behaviour problems, trauma and, often, special educational needs. By contrast, the study found that children from a Caribbean heritage family excluded from school were more likely to be of above average ability and less likely to have a history of behaviour problems (OFSTED, 1996). It is possible that children in this latter group find themselves in trouble as a result of behaviour, which is a response to a long history of 'everyday violence' against them. Schools are often less than confident in dealing with issues such as racial harassment, with teachers likely to tell children who report harassment that they should not take verbal insults so seriously. When a child finally lashes out in response to the everyday violence of fellow pupils, she/he may be seen as the aggressor and punished.

Reactive violence of a similar nature may be expressed in reaction to various forms of institutional or interpersonal violence that individual children experience during their schooling in various national contexts. It may arise from the curriculum of schools. For example, children whose cultures are not reflected in textbooks and teaching materials or who struggle to cope with schooling in a language in which they are not competent, may become disaffected or may fail. Frustration and anger, when experienced over a period of time, may lead to violence. This may take the form of violence against other pupils, for example bullying or fighting, or, more rarely, violence against teachers.

2. Legitimized violence

Violence by teachers against pupils takes a number of forms. It may be formal punishment, such as caning, which is condoned by the school. Effectively, this becomes part of the informal curriculum, whereby pupils learn from authority figures that violence is an acceptable response when angry or when someone acts against your will. In many schools throughout the world a system of rough justice operates, and teachers are not required to seek the standards of proof that would be

required in a court of law. Parents often support such violence. They may see it as an important part of a well-disciplined school and may not complain—until what they see as unjustified action is taken against their own child.

3. Violence and gender inequality

Another type of violence against children, which is less rarely talked about, is sexual abuse and rape to which young people at school have often been subjected. This makes many schools unsafe places. Fear for the safety of girls, both at school and in travelling to school, has been cited as a reason why some parents are reluctant to send their daughters to secondary school in some low-income countries (UNICEF, 1996). Gender equality in school is not just a question of ensuring that textbooks and teaching materials show non-stereotypical images of girls and boys, women and men. It must involve a change in public cultures (and appropriate sex education) so that girls act confidently and recognize that their worth is not measured by the interest, which adult men, including teachers, may show in them.

4. Challenging violence

The 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) reaffirms children's right to an education in human rights. It also asserts that the State has an obligation to protect children from abuse, neglect and all forms of violence:

State Parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardians or any other person who has care of the child (CRC, Article 19).

This section examines actions, which might be taken to protect children from all forms of violence in schools. Underlying each of these approaches are the principles of human rights, which provide an internationally agreed standard which educators and curriculum planners can apply in a variety of cultural contexts (Osler & Starkey, 1996).

IV. RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1. To contribute to the common good

Article 29 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that:

Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible (UDHR, Article 29)

Human rights imply responsibilities. Human rights are reciprocal and we depend on each other to guarantee our

rights. The African Charter of Human and People's Rights is the first attempt in an international human rights instrument to define these responsibilities. Given this important emphasis in Africa on responsibilities, I have chosen to focus on how these might apply in education. The Commission for Global Governance, which reported at the time of the fiftieth anniversary of the United Nations, identified a list of responsibilities:

- To contribute to the common good;
- To consider the impact of their actions on the security and welfare of others;
- To promote equity, including gender equity;
- To protect the interests of future generations by pursuing sustainable development and safeguarding the global common good;
- To preserve humanity's cultural and intellectual heritage;
- To be active participants in governance;
- To work to eliminate corruption (Commission on Global Governance, 1995).

Although the form in which these responsibilities is expressed varies from the African Charter, it broadly echoes its intentions. The seventh responsibility, the elimination of corruption, is innovative in human rights discourse. It is not hard to justify, however, as corruption is corrosive of democracy—the main guarantee of justice, equality and sustainable development. These seven responsibilities have implications for schools. I draw here on work undertaken in collaboration with a colleague (Osler & Starkey, 2001). The responsibilities imply challenging violence and working towards democracy, peace and human rights.

This active obligation to work to further the aims of the school community supposes that the aims are made known and that they are shared, i.e. that each member of the community feels ownership of the goals of the institution. The aims will need to be revisited periodically to take into account changing circumstances and changing cohorts of students and to enable new members of the community to contribute to the process of reformulation. There are many ways in which institutions can initiate their members and retain their loyalty to the common purpose. In some cases, this will include an identification of institutional goals and some form of shared acknowledgement of symbols. These may take many different forms, but might include school assemblies, a school song, a celebration or prize giving, or perhaps the wearing of a uniform or badge. Provided that the ceremonies or rituals are based on human rights principles and inclusive of all, it can be expected that all members of the school will be able to support the aims expressed. Ceremonial expression of common loyalties needs to be matched by real opportunities for sharing in the benefits provided by the institution.

2. Consider the impact of actions on others

This obligation follows from the previous one. When many people interact in close physical proximity, as in schools, these considerations are particularly important.

For instance, something as simple as keeping to the left on stairs or not running in corridors will contribute greatly to security and welfare.

3. Promote equality, including gender equality

The institution is obliged to have policies that help to ensure equity. At the same time individuals have the responsibility to do their best to promote these policies. At a minimum level, this implies that both staff and students are familiar with equal opportunity issues and the policies that derive from them. Ideally, both staff and students should be involved in the formulation of such policies and all parties or their representatives should be involved in the design and monitoring of such policies. They should cover the curriculum as well as the informal provisions of the school and its ethos. Gender equity should not be divorced from other equality issues, such as those relating to race, ethnicity and disability.

4. Protect the interests of future generations

All members of the institution will be committed to preserving its assets and protecting communal facilities. They will also have an education that helps them acquire a global perspective and an understanding of the concept of sustainable development.

5. Preserve humanity's heritage

Traditionally, preserving humanity's cultural and intellectual heritage has been a major function of schools and universities. The reference is to the heritage of humanity rather than of any single nation or region. This implies a broadly based curriculum, again with a global perspective. For example, in the teaching of history no one national or religious perspective should be adopted. Students should be encouraged to understand that historical events can be interpreted from a variety of perspectives in different times and places.

6. Be active participants in governance

Institutions are obliged to provide structures for participation. Individuals have a responsibility to be involved. Involvement can take many forms, and at its most basic may simply imply voting for a representative. The school has a responsibility to establish participative structures, such as school or class councils, and students should be encouraged to consider decisions that affect them.

7. Work to eliminate corruption

Most schools are financed with public or community funds and those ultimately responsible for the institution must be accountable for the use of those funds. Democracy implies transparency in the use of resources and any use of the funds for purposes incompatible with the goals of the institution may be considered corrupt.

All members of the institution, staff and students, should be aware of the possibility of corruption and know what steps are open to them if corruption is suspected. As with issues of security, measures of prevention should be in place.

V. EVALUATING THE CULTURE OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN SCHOOLS

Given the importance of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which is by far the most widely ratified human rights convention, and given its particular relevance for schools, we have developed an instrument entitled: Does your school environment give everyone a chance to enjoy their rights? (Osler & Starkey, 1998). Pupils, teachers, head-teachers, parents and governors are provided with twenty-three statements and invited to respond by 'always', 'sometimes' or 'never'. These are arranged in three sections according to their relevance to the three broad themes of the Convention, namely provision, protection and participation. Each statement is followed by a list of the main articles of the Convention to which it relates. For example:

- *Provision:* In the teaching of national history, due weight is given to women and minorities and to their versions of history (CRC, Articles 2, 13, 28, 29.1 c & d, 30).
- *Protection:* A student accused of breaking the rules is presumed innocent until proven guilty and carries on with classes (CRC, Article 28.2, 40).
- *Participation:* Students and adults (including parents, teachers and administrative staff) are consulted about the quality of the teaching in the school (CRC, Article S, 12, 18).

The questionnaire also draws on descriptions of pedagogic principles derived from the Convention (Osler & Starkey, 1996, p. 153-56). This questionnaire (see Table 1 below) is a draft instrument that can be adapted by schools for their own use. It is indicative of an approach to school self-evaluation within a human rights framework. The aim is to contribute to the development of a culture of self-evaluation for human rights rather than provide a definitive measure. It is presented in that spirit.

TABLE 1. Questionnaire on human rights at school

Does your school environment give everyone a chance to enjoy their rights?

Young people and adults can both experience the denial of their rights and freedoms. The list below will enable you to judge whether the spirit of the Convention on the Rights of the Child is followed in a variety of situations in your school.

PROVISION	Always	Sometimes	Never
1. Girls and boys have equal access to all subjects and lessons (Articles 2, 28, 29)			
2. Any intelligence or skills tests administered by the school authorities take account of cultural differences in minority populations (Articles 2, 28, 29.1 c, 30)			
3. In the teaching of national history, due weight is given to women and minorities and to their versions of history (Articles 2, 13, 28, 29.1 c & d, 30).			
4. Resources for sport (including equipment, activities, times of use) are equally accessible to girls and to boys (Articles 2, 28, 31).			
5. Extra-curricular activities organised by the school are available to all regardless of ability to pay (Articles 2, 28, 31).			
6. The school is accessible to people with disabilities (Articles 2, 23, 28).			
7. The curriculum is organized so that students may opt out of religious education and this possibility is made known (Article 14).			
PROTECTION			
8. People are careful not to cause physical harm (articles 19, 28.2). For example: (a) adults are not allowed to hit young people; (b) young people are not allowed to hit adults; (c) young people are not allowed to hit each other.			
9. Students' lockers are considered to be private property (Article 16).			
10. Any personal files on a student kept by the school can be inspected by the student whose file it is and the parents, if appropriate. The file can be checked and corrected if necessary (Articles 5, 16, 17, 18).			
11. The contents of any files, whether personal or vocational may not be communicated to a third party without the permission of the student and her or his parents if appropriate (Articles 15, 16, 18).			
12. Any person receiving information from a school file accepts that they are bound by confidentiality (Article 16).			
13. No posters, images or drawings of a racist, sexist or discriminatory kind may be displayed anywhere on school premises (Articles 2, 17, 29.1b, c, d)			
14. People encourage each other to be tolerant, particularly of those who appear different (Article 29).			
15. When there is an incident that may lead to the exclusion of a student or disciplinary action, an impartial hearing is organized. In other words, all those involved get a hearing (Articles 28.2, 40).			
16. A student accused of breaking the rules is presumed innocent until proven guilty and carries on with classes (Articles 28.2, 40).			
17. Where a student has infringed someone's rights—student or adult—reparation is expected (Articles 2, 19).			

18. Adults infringing on students' rights are also expected to make reparations (Articles 2, 19).			
PARTICIPATION			
19. In their schoolwork, students have the freedom to express their own political views or other opinions, regardless of the opinions of the teacher (Articles 12, 13, 14, 17).			
20. The student newspaper is treated like any other publication and is not censored in any way (Article 13).			
21. Young people have created or can create an independent students' union, recognized by the school authorities as representing all students in the school (Article 15).			
22. Young people have as much right to respect as adults (Articles 12, 19, 29.1c).			
23. Students and adults (including parents, teachers and administrative staff) are consulted about the quality of teaching in the school (Articles 5, 12, 18).			

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Curriculum and languages: teaching in African languages and learning strategies

Jens Naumann

I. INTRODUCTION

I think that it is useful to note some salient global trends in a twenty- to thirty-year perspective with regard to language policies in general and more specifically to issues of language(s) of instruction, language teaching, and language learning in formal and informal educational settings:

- Over the last twenty to thirty years, linguistics as an academic discipline has made great advances in overcoming its traditional focus on Indo-European languages (with its very often pronounced racialist assumptions and conclusions).
- All of the industrialized, rich, ‘Western’ countries have considerably changed their language policy and philosophy during the last thirty years, moving away from the conception of rigid national linguistic homogeneity to a more-or-less pronounced acceptance of multi-cultural (multi-linguistic) openness and plurality, accompanied by conscious educational strategies of ‘building linguistic bridges’.
- The disintegration of the Soviet bloc has usually implied the revival of competing linguistic, religious, ethnic-cultural plurality in the countries affected, leading in some cases to disastrous attempts at culturally, linguistically, ethnically homogenized and purified ‘nation-building’.
- In the countries of the South, most of which obtained their ‘political independence’ during the last twenty to forty years, the linguistic reality was and is characterized by the co-existence of an official (mostly European) language alongside local languages. The co-existing language is often spoken as a mother-tongue by a (tiny) minority of the inhabitants and yet it is the dominant if not the sole language used in teaching. Nevertheless, important minorities if not the vast majority of the inhabitants use the widespread indigenous vehicular languages and dozens (if not hundreds) of local languages, but these languages play a limited or no role at all in (formal) education. So far, efforts to change this situation radically and fast in favour of substantially enhancing the role of (some, the most important) local and/or vehicular languages in education have been rare and usually unsuccessful.
- However, a slowly working trend towards the step-wise acceptance of the legitimacy, rationality, desirability and practicability of a strengthened use of vehicular and local languages in public life and in formal and informal education is clearly discernible. Because this trend is supported by NGOs and some

multilateral and bilateral donor agencies (or at least, minority undercurrents within them), and is in line with the ideology of (individual and collective) human rights, it is likely to continue.

The Jomtien World Conference on Education for All (1990) led to a variety of efforts to boost activities and measures to improve and expand formal and informal basic/primary education. Special emphasis was placed on the improved participation and performance of previously neglected social groups (such as the (very) poor, among them girls and women), which often represent—as a national aggregate—not only a substantial minority, but sometimes the (large) majority of the populations. The linguistic characteristics of these marginalized social groups are usually neither discussed nor analysed.

This has—although mostly covertly and indirectly—affected and enhanced the analytical and political prominence of the old problems of language learning and teaching, i.e. the acquisition of comprehension and speaking, of reading and writing skills in both the African mother-tongue and in African vehicular and/or official (mostly European) languages. I am not aware of the existence of recent professional and systematic accounts and appraisals in an international comparative perspective of efforts to enhance ‘teaching in African languages’ or ‘learning language skills with the background of an African mother-tongue’.

During the last ten years, UNICEF, UNDP, WHO and—very importantly—the World Bank (as the consortial leader of bi- and multilateral efforts in the field of formal and informal ‘education sector projects’) have initiated or supported a wide variety of national African educational efforts, which directly or indirectly fostered the use of African languages (mostly, in non-formal literacy and adult education). In addition, the World Bank and a number of bilateral donors have sponsored about thirty large-scale empirical surveys of educational achievement/proficiency in formal primary education, which did not, however, study in sufficient detail the relevance of the ‘language of origin’ of the learners. The same holds true for World Bank studies on poverty. No up-to-date comprehensive comparative accounts and assessments with an analytical focus on the relationship between African languages spoken at home and African or non-African languages used, taught and learned in educational settings seem to be available.¹

II. SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT AND PROFICIENCY

Ever since, some thirty years ago, the beginning of internationally comparable, large-scale, empirical surveys on school achievement and proficiency, which most of the time focus on language skills and arithmetic, the results have suggested that the average achievement level/level of proficiency of pupils in developing countries was very much lower than the average level of their peers in the respective primary or secondary grades in the industrialized (Western) countries of the North. Today, after a number of research cycles with dozens of additional Third World nations joining the few cases of the earlier studies, this is a well-proven fact.

The main reason for this structural achievement gap appears to be the fact that in the northern industrialized countries—after 100 to 200 years of traditional nationalism and the extension of ‘modern education’—the language of instruction is the same as the language spoken at home by a dominant proportion of the pupils. In contrast to that situation, in most countries of the ‘rest of the world’, the normal situation is the opposite: the co-existence of dozens, if not hundreds, of different languages together with one or more vehicular languages (indigenous and/or the language of the respective European colonial power). For practical reasons, the language(s) of instruction have to be confined to a single (or a few) vehicular language(s). These languages are often confined to, mostly including, the European (ex-colonial) ‘official language’. This, however, means that the language of instruction and learning is only for a (very) small proportion of the pupils identical with their strong language, their mother-tongue, while for the majority the ‘official (often European) language’ (and other African vehicular languages) are foreign languages. These languages are very often not used in the natural linguistic environment of the family or local community.

TABLE 1. Official (mostly European) language as language of instruction and dominant language(s) spoken at home of the illiterate learner

I	II
L ₁ (or at least ‘strong L ₂ ’) = Official language	L ₁ (L ₂ or L ₃) = Non-vehicular (African)
language(s)	
<p>The illiterate learner is a ‘competent speaker.’ He/she understands not only other speakers of the same language on the basis of his/her familiarity with the typical sounds and intonations of the language (‘phonemes’), the meaning of various combinations of sounds into words (‘lexemes’), and—using basic grammatical rules—the combination of words into meaningful sentences, but he/she can also actively and autonomously create comprehensible verbal utterances. In range and complexity these are always smaller than his/her listening comprehension, but still relatively large.</p> <p>The illiterate learner has a high oral proficiency in the language of instruction. He has no difficulties in understanding the verbal utterances of the teacher in the language of instruction, in using and expanding his lexicon, in using grammatical rules, and in performing language drills.</p>	<p>The illiterate learner can initially neither ‘passively’ understand, nor ‘actively’ create verbal utterances in the language of instruction. Some phonemes of the language of instruction may be identical or similar to those of the mother tongue of the illiterate learner, but many phonemes may be different (and, perhaps, difficult to replicate).</p> <p>The illiterate learner has practically no familiarity with the meaning of words (no knowledge of lexemes or of lexicon) and no knowledge of grammatical rules.</p> <p>The illiterate learner has no oral proficiency in the language of instruction. He does not understand most of the verbal utterances of the teacher in the language of instruction and his lexicon of the language of instruction is extremely limited. Moreover, he does not know the grammatical rules, and he has difficulties in imitating or replicating phonemes, lexemes, and drills (without comprehension of the implied pragmatical meaning).</p>

Thus, pupils naturally growing up with the ‘official language’ as their first or second language at home, which is used exclusively or dominantly in education, should have a structural advantage in comparison to the rest of their peers (no matter, whether the official language is French, English, Portuguese, Kiswaheli, Malgache, etc.). The next less-advantaged group should include all those pupils who happen to speak indigenous vehicular languages as their first language (L₁) at home, as long as most teachers know and use (officially or unofficially) this language to communicate with most of their pupils socially and academically. This category would most likely be followed by all those pupils who grow up in a familiar and communal environment where they ‘naturally’ learn as L₁ a small, local language, but they learn, as second or third language (L₂, L₃), the vehicular (African) language used (if only informally) by their teachers. And, finally, should come those learners who naturally learn one or more language as L₁, L₂, which are neither official, nor vehicular and thus play (virtually) no role in the educational process.

III. OFFICIAL LANGUAGE VERSUS HOME LANGUAGE

Schematically, Tables 1 to 5 illustrate the relationship between the languages of the learners spoken at home, language(s) of instruction/official language(s) and established indicators of school system performance.²

It should be noted that—so far—the differentiation of achievement/proficiency level by language of instruction and background of dominant language(s) spoken at home is not at all customary (professional) practice, neither in countries using French, Portuguese or Spanish, nor in those with an English colonial past.

What seem to be the important psycho—and didactical—linguistic reasons for the noted differences

in learning results? In the following, I shall characterize some aspects of the stepwise teaching and learning strategies to improve language skills of illiterate learners (children aged 6 to 8 years or illiterate adults beginning primary or basic education with the aim of attaining literacy and numeracy). I shall contrast important aspects of the sequence of teaching and learning steps or phases for learners whose L₁ (or at least ‘strong L₂’) also happens to be the language of instruction (typically the official (mostly European) language) with those of learners whose languages spoken at home is neither the official language of instruction nor a vehicular African language used informally by many teachers and peers (without being a language of instruction). While the former learners enjoy a structural advantage with regard to learning results, the latter experience a pronounced disadvantage. Those learners with combinations of African languages spoken at home, including vehicular African languages, occupy intermediate positions.

IV. STEPS IN ‘LEARNING TO READ’

1. *Phonemes and graphemes*

The graphical signs used to represent spoken languages are, to a large extent, identical in the sense that practically the same characters of the Latin alphabet are used for the graphemes of the European language of the former colonial powers. In addition, the African languages, for which a standard transcription has been developed in recent decades, also predominately use characters of the Latin alphabet.

Sounds and intonations vary somewhat between individual European, between individual European and African, and between individual African languages. Although (most of) these languages predominately use identical characters of the Latin alphabet to construct their ‘graphemes’ (of individual characters of the alphabet or combinations thereof), the relationship of phonemes to graphemes usually differs somewhat, and sometimes quite substantially from language to language.

TABLE 2. The relationship between phonemes and graphemes

<p>Learning the relationship between phonemes and graphemes is facilitated by the circumstances that both (sounds and their graphic representation) are easily linked to known and familiar words (lexemes) and even sentences. Establishing, learning, and remembering the hitherto unknown links between phonemes and graphemes is thus facilitated by cognitively linking them up to a body of passively and actively mastered and remembered oral proficiency (knowledge of vocabulary and comprehension of sentences).</p>	<p>Learning the relationship between phonemes and graphemes (and lexemes) in the language of instruction is necessarily very abstract because it is unrelated to a sufficiently large body of mastered and understood vocabulary and basic grammatical rules. The learner tries to ‘memorize’ without comprehension.</p>
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TABLE 3. Reading proficiency at a level equal to listening proficiency

<p>With repetition, drills and experience, the deciphering of grapheme, lexemes and sentences comes to a point where reading comprehension becomes virtually identical with the comparatively high level of listening/oral comprehension. This is possible because of the fairly extensive vocabulary known and the mastery of basic grammatical rules.</p>	<p>Reading proficiency at a level equal to listening proficiency is impossible because of a too limited knowledge of vocabulary in the language of instruction and an insufficient mastery of its grammatical rules. There is limited memorizing without comprehension.</p>
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TABLE 4. Literacy and numeracy

<p>The illiterate beginning learner (but fairly competent speaker) has considerably improved and expanded his literacy and number skills..</p>	<p>The gap between the actual and the expected ‘normal’ level of proficiency in language and numeracy skills has widened from grade 1 to grade 4 to the point that the majority of the learners have dropped out.</p>
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V. STEPS IN LEARNING TO WRITE

Some theoreticians of the stepwise development of literacy proficiency hold that the acquisition of writing skills is more complex and demanding than that of the basic skills to decode graphemes and to correctly relate them to phonemes and lexemes as parts of sentences. Others hold that the development of (hand)writing skills cannot and should not be separated from the development of reading skills; in other words, that they do and should go hand-in-hand. One thing is sure and empirically very evident: the illiterate learner (even if an adult) has to learn the requisite senso-motoric capabilities of co-ordination for handwriting, because they simply are not a function of biological age. Beyond that, once again, the level of oral language proficiency to start with seems to determine to a large extent achievement in both the domain of reading and that of writing.

VI. LANGUAGE POLICIES

Important studies have been realized during that last twenty to thirty years to overcome the traditionalist Euro-centric and colonialist premises of language policies in general and, more specifically, language teaching and learning in formal and informal education. Thus:

- Schoolbooks have been ‘Africanized’ in content and presentation.
- A fair number of teaching materials have been developed for adult literacy in African national languages.
- It is no longer common practice to punish pupils speaking African languages during breaks in the schoolyard.
- It is more and more accepted, in some countries even expected, that teachers and pupils use (vehicular) African languages to ask questions or to explain difficult issues (although the practice of ‘awarding’ a donkey’s hat to pupils not sufficiently versed in using French is not yet extinct in private Senegalese schools).

Yet there remains a lot to be done to strike a new balance between the psycho- and socio-linguistic needs to take account of the large number of dominant African languages spoken at home and the usually European language of instruction.

Pupils for whom the official (European) language is not their L_1 or a ‘strong L_2 ’ spoken at home will experience—during most of their school career—what is shown in Table 5 (from about grade three to at least grade ten in secondary school, assuming, of course, that they do not drop out).

It does not matter whether the official European language is also the language of instruction from grade one on or is taught as a foreign language before becoming the language of instruction some grades later. This situation applies to the large majority of pupils in all sub-Saharan African countries.

For all of these pupils it is true that their learning success of and in the European language could be enhanced and improved if their superior listening and speaking proficiency in their strong(er) African language(s) could be tapped to support the teaching and learning of the official European language.

I suggest that there is a feasible and probably efficient ‘didactical strategy’, which in most African countries has not yet been institutionalized on a large scale. It would consist of:

- The production of dictionaries of about 20,000 to 40,000 entries per language (African language X-Official European language/Official European language-African language X) for all major/national African languages used in a given country. These books are to be made available to all schools (if possible, classes) according to the language mix of their pupils.
- In addition (possibly alternatively), printed ‘supplements’ in the African national languages should be produced for the existing schoolbooks in the official European language. These ‘supplements’ should contain word lists of the most important lexemes used in the respective schoolbook (African language X-Official European language of the schoolbook, and vice versa) and should be distributed/sold to the pupils according to their individual affinity to the respective national language.

Such ‘supplements’ should be produced for all schoolbooks in print and in use (for all subjects and grades up to about grade ten), but priority should be given to books for language and mathematics lessons, particularly for the upper classes of the primary level (since these books are the ones most widely distributed/bought and used, and the ranks of the pupils are not yet heavily reduced by dropping out leaving only those students predominantly

TABLE 5. Pupils for whom the official language is not their L_1 or strong L_2

their listening comprehension and speaking proficiency of their non-vehicular L_1	>	their listening comprehension and speaking proficiency of an African vehicular as their L_1 or L_2	≥	their listening comprehension and speaking proficiency of the European official language as language of instruction on the way to be mastered (or not) as their L_2 , L_3 , or L_4
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belonging to socially and linguistically privileged tiny minorities).

Yet, such a didactical strategy addresses only those pupils who have already mastered basic literacy by grade three or grade four, i.e. those that have already learned how to read fairly well in the European language of instruction (perhaps 20 to 40% of the pupils in these grades). They will be able to transfer their knowledge of the characters of the alphabet and of graphemes independently to the lexemes and different phonemes of their strong African language with very little initial help. These stronger students would benefit a lot from this type of material for the rest of their school careers; for the weaker ones, it probably cannot be a late substitute for initial literacy in their strong language. (It should be noted that all the arguments presented so far with regard to the problems emerging between a European language as official language and language of instruction seem to be equally relevant for the cases where an African vehicular language is 'official' and serves as the language of instruction, while most pupils do not learn it as L_1 or strong L_2 .)

In spite of the obvious limitations of the 'dictionary/supplements'-strategy with regard to enhancing the learning opportunities of the majority of primary level beginning pupils and, especially, the marginalized 'basic education target groups', its relative advantages should be noted: it is politically and financially 'cost-effective' in the sense that the investment in linguistic-didactical development work would produce physically visible results with substantial medium-term achievement results for an important minority of students.

Regional co-operation between several African countries could make sure that such a strategy could, in fact, be realised in a comparatively short time (some five to ten years) for a large number or all 'national language'-groups in the co-operating countries, thus reducing the political risk of opposition on the part of linguistic minority groups fearing to be dominated by stronger groups.

In spite of possible charges of utopian optimism, I would like to conclude by pointing out that the most promising teaching and learning strategy for literacy continues to be the idea of first and basic literacy in the strong language of the learners, to be followed by learning strategies for additional languages.

It is, however, neither possible to educate or socialize all (or even the majority) of the beginning learners into 'competent speakers' of the official European language before teaching them to read and write, nor is it practically feasible to make all (or even, the majority) of beginners literate in their mother-tongue, given that dozens, if not hundreds, of mother-tongues (L_1) co-exist in African countries.

Realistically, then, we will continue to muddle through with hybrid strategies (incidentally, not only in Africa, but also increasingly so in the Northern countries). Perhaps an adaptation of the 'supplements' strategy is feasible for all those countries, where the

political resistance to a transition to the use of national languages for initial literacy is still important. For the beginning two or three grades of the primary cycle, this would imply:

- to accept the continued existence and use of official (European) language schoolbooks (and their progression of graphemes/phonemes, grammar; the same would hold for mathematics books);
- to develop and produce parallel 'initiating schoolbooks' in the national languages, essentially following the European-language schoolbook page-by-page;
- trying, and here is the big challenge, to introduce and explain in the national languages, what is supposed to happen in the foreign language. The working hypothesis is, of course, that the parallel 'national language book', in tapping the strength of the better oral comprehension and speaking proficiency in 'national languages', can help the majority of learners (their family members) and their teachers to better master the challenges of the European languages.

Notes

1. The Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) is currently analysing the achievement data of large empirical surveys of grade 6 pupils from fourteen southern African countries (in the first round, some years ago, surveys from seven countries were analysed). An analysis of the achievement level of the pupils by language background is, however, impossible because the questionnaire did not include relevant items.

L'Institut national d'études et d'action pour le développement de l'éducation (INEADE), located in Dakar, Senegal, has undertaken an empirical study on the achievement level of pupils in the third, fourth and sixth grades in French and mathematics. The study, undertaken in 1996, was called *Système national d'évaluation du rendement scolaire* (SNERS). Since no data on the language background of the pupils had been generated by the study, a respective statistical analysis was not possible. Nevertheless, because of the extremely poor achievements of the pupils, the final report pleads for the need to switch to basic literacy in African languages.

In 1993, the *Programme d'analyse des systèmes d'éducation de la CONFEMEN* (PASEC) began large-scale surveys of the primary school systems in countries participating in the *Conférence des ministres de l'éducation ayant en commun l'usage du français* (CONFEMEN). By the end of the decade, studies had been conducted in nine African countries; mostly a cross section of the somewhat dated studies published in the 1970s and 1980s.

2. The background of these schematic representations is my interest and involvement in education and language problems in Senegal:
 - a comparative empirical analysis of language and mathematical proficiency of pupils in different basic educational settings (formal public schools, traditional Koranic schools, modern Arabic schools) and of adult participants in literacy courses: Jens Naumann & Ulrike Wiegelmann, *Analyse pour améliorer: nouvelles recherches sur les défis de l'édu-*

- cation de base au Sénégal, in: *Tertium comparationis*. (<http://www.waxmann.com/index2.html?zs/tc.html>), vol. 5, no. 1, 1999, p. 72-97; Ulrike Wiegelmann, *Alphabetising and Grundbildung in Senegal*, Frankfurt/M.: Iko-Verlag, 1999;
- the re-analysis of PASEC data on Senegalese primary education (including the overestimated role in language issues played by traditional French language school-books): Jens Naumann & Peter Wolf, The performance of African primary education systems: critique and new analysis of PASEC data for Senegal, *Prospects* (Paris, UNESCO), vol. 31, no. 3, 2001;
 - my familiarity with the Senegalese SNERS, the (World Bank initiated) evaluation of an on-going 'literacy campaign' in Senegalese national languages;
 - my efforts to mobilize scientific and political support for the development and production of a Wolof-French/French-Wolof dictionary with some 35,000 entries for each language aid 'Supplements for French-language Senegalese schoolbooks'.

Post-conflict situations: some useful perspectives from Africa

Mudiappasa Devadoss

I. INTRODUCTION

An interagency team of experts has been meeting since 1999 to examine education in situations of emergency and crisis. Their findings were subsequently presented at the Dakar World Education Forum (2000). The emerging clarity, consensus, concerns, issues and lessons learned so far can be summarized as follows:

- The types of emergencies recognized are: conflicts, natural disasters and silent emergencies, such as HIV/AIDS. Not only the refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs), but all affected populations, including those in the immediate vicinity of refugee and IDP camps, need assistance.
- Education is increasingly being recognized as an integral part of the humanitarian response to emergencies. A shift has taken place from justifying education in emergencies in terms of 'normalization' and healing traumatized children/teachers to seeing education as a right. However, education in emergencies is under-funded at present and is not able to compete for scarce resources with vital concerns, such as food, shelter and health.
- The educational response must be suited to the different phases of the emergency (immediate response, reconstruction and subsequent system development). Intervention must start early (within weeks), not as one-time, stop-gap responses but all along the 'relief-to-development continuum', ensuring continuity between emergency and reconstruction/development planning.
- The educational responses must use appropriate delivery methods. The 'Teacher Emergency Package' (TEP) and other education kits are often referred to as a 'school-in-box' because they contain all the supplies for a teacher and a class of forty or fifty students. They can be used even where school buildings do not exist. They have been put together by UNESCO's Programme of Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER), UNICEF, and other agencies and can be sent within weeks to where they are needed. While this makes for a rapid response, local or regional procurement/assembling of these kits is to be encouraged in order to keep intact the existing supply lines and keep in business suppliers who may ensure continuity of educational materials once the emergency is over.
- Emergencies lead not only to the collapse of the education system, but also present an opportunity for renovation, reform and innovation insofar as the education system itself at times has been unjust and may

have contributed in no small measure to the conflict.

- There must be community participation and ownership. Changes must be introduced on the basis of consultation, involving all stakeholders to the extent possible. Local capacities in the provision of educational assistance must be used and ownership of education by affected people must be ensured.
- Sustainability is a major concern when developed countries intervene in complex emergencies. The rapid re-establishment of basic education must be undertaken with sustainable salary scales, use of appropriate technology, low-cost production of teaching/learning materials, ever-increasing levels of community support and building up the capacity of local education authorities so that everything does not come to a grinding halt when foreign assistance stops. Training must go hand-in-hand with other necessary educational interventions. Everybody needs training: teachers, head-teachers, supervisors, local communities and educational authorities.
- The educational response must cater to the needs of the most vulnerable of the affected populations: girls, child soldiers and women.
- Demobilization and the imparting of vocational skills to young people are urgent priorities and essential components of an educational response to emergencies.
- Only an estimated 3% of refugees in developing countries have access to secondary education. The importance of access to post-primary education is not generally recognized, and there is a need for advocacy on a global level to convince donor nations of the importance of post-primary education.
- Certifying the achievement of those studying under difficult circumstances is an urgent priority and should be addressed through inter-agency and inter-governmental co-operation.
- Alongside emergency response, emphasis must also be placed on emergency preparedness (foreseeing risks and being prepared) and prevention. Peace education and civic education have a role to play in emergency response, as well as in the prevention of emergencies.
- There should be supplementary/complementary curriculum materials for education in emergency and crisis. In the changed circumstances after a conflict or war, formal education must not be resumed as if nothing had happened. Often there is a need for inputs in the areas of health education, mine awareness, peace education, environmental education, etc. Affected populations need skills in

survival, psycho-social development, employability, etc. Generic supplementary/complementary curriculum materials in all these areas are needed. Annotated lists of available materials and information as to where these could be ordered from must be available. Also needed are international and national experts who can be deployed at short notice to adapt these materials for use in specific contexts.

- While skills needed by the affected populations have to form part of the curriculum, the real danger of overloading the curriculum must not be ignored. The child has a right to childhood; therefore, bringing the various elements needed into a well-integrated, manageable and child-friendly curricular package is necessary. For example, a lot of learning to live together can take place as part of physical education. UNESCO-PEER, in all its curriculum development projects, provides for an interaction between curriculum and textbook developers and a group of monitors for cross-cutting issues, such as gender, environment, mine awareness, health, water and sanitation, peace education, etc. This ensures a coherent development of relevant themes right through the school curriculum.
- Even during the emergency phase, norms and standards should be maintained (e.g. classroom size, furniture, etc.). If we go beyond the minimum standards, there is the concept of child-friendly spaces promoted by UNICEF and its partner NGOs, which provides for a play area, a well-baby area, a water point, and a small 'adult' area in addition to classrooms.
- Refugees can be resettled in the country of refuge, a third country or be repatriated back to their country of origin. While not foreclosing any of these options, preference should always be for voluntary repatriation to the home country. Adoption of the medium of instruction (language of study), the curriculum, textbooks, assessment and certification of the country of origin serves as a strong pull factor and, wherever possible, education for repatriation (education that facilitates rather than hinders repatriation) should be promoted by adopting a cross-border approach to the provision of education.
- Building field-level partnerships is of high importance. More often than not, in the aftermath of an emergency, national, regional or local education authorities lack the basic human, financial and organizational requirements for re-establishing the education system. The Jomtien World Conference on Education For All (1990) emphasized the need for 'new and revitalized partnerships at all levels.' Co-ordination (inter-agency collaboration as opposed to competition) is essential and should be ensured in the development of materials, manuals, etc.
- Education is important for reconciliation and peace building. At times, dialogue on educational issues could be the starting point for a more comprehensive dialogue on the political plane.

II. THE PROBLEM OF SOCIAL COHESION

The United Nations General Assembly proclaimed the year 2000 as the International Year for a Culture of Peace (fifty-second session, resolution 52/15). By another measure (fifty-third session, resolution 53/25), it also declared the period from 2001 to 2010 as the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-violence for the Children of the World.

Since its inception in 1993, the UNESCO-PEER programme has been engaged in action for education and peace building in the conflict-impacted countries of the Horn of Africa and the Great Lakes regions. It has squarely faced the problem of social cohesion, and its experiences may be useful with respect to approaches and principles, means, activities and lessons learned.

1. *Peace education*

All forms of education, particularly formal education and the opportunities it provides to individuals to realize their full potential, contribute to peace. An unjust education system and unfair distribution of educational opportunities lead to disaffection.

Related to education for peace, but quite distinct from it, is peace education which seeks specifically to promote knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to bring about behavioural changes that will enable children, youth and adults to prevent conflict and violence, both overt and structural. UNESCO-PEER's PEP (Peace Education Programme), which in its Somali, Arabic and French versions has been used in several African countries, teaches students to resolve peacefully conflicts that arise and to create conditions conducive to peace at the intra-personal, inter-personal, inter-group, national and international levels.

In Somalia, under President Siad Barre the slogan 'Tribalism divides; Socialism unites' was used to promote unity and national integration. The attempt failed because denying differences (confusing a strong clan identity with tribalism) is no way of promoting unity and social cohesion. The peace education that UNESCO and its partners advocate teaches pupils to live together despite their differences by owning them and accepting the tensions inherent in their society. A strong identity (knowing who one is) is a help and not a hindrance for accepting the otherness of others and valuing interdependence, which makes the world of today a global village, where networking, mobility and multi-culturalism are the very means of survival and progress of peoples.

The lessons learned by PEER and its partners in implementing peace education are the following:

- With respect to peace education, there is a need for both a formal education component and a community component, which should actively reinforce each other.
- Attitudes are to be developed from the 'entering behaviour' of the participants (both school and community).
- Elements of peace education are to be introduced in an intrinsic way into the schooling system, which is

very formal in many countries.

- Despite the difficulty of introducing peace education in the lower grades, there is a need for it to be adapted for different age-groups in a graded fashion and provided at all levels. In this connection, each individual activity must be carefully examined as it relates to the target audience.
- There is a need to develop materials on conflict transformation and peace building that would make the teachers realise the need to talk about their own conflicts before they are able to instruct the pupils.
- While drawing inspiration from the best peace education practices of other countries and cultural contexts, it is also advisable to take note of and use mechanisms for righting wrongs and restoring peace that are available within the community itself.
- Opportunities must be provided for children to put peace-building into practice both in and out of school.
- On-going training in this area must be made available to teachers.

While a concentrated dose of peace education is a desirable component of education for emergencies, peace education should also be an integral part of quality basic education. In most countries, school syllabi feature objectives in the domain of social relations. Concepts, such as human rights, social justice, equality, co-operation, partnership, team spirit, tolerance of diversity, mutual respect, social service, integration, etc., are included, but no provision is made for curriculum developers working together to integrate these concepts in different subjects in a coherent fashion. Added to that, no training in this regard is given to teachers.

If truth and reconciliation are needed for re-building society in post-conflict situations, school textbooks cannot obscure, much less deliberately hide, unpleasant matters or unfortunate happenings, particularly in recent history.

In many countries, there is a need for revising school textbooks. During the 161st session of the UNESCO Executive Board, the Director-General of UNESCO, Koïchiro Matsuura, announced the Organization's support for a joint revision of Israeli and Palestinian school textbooks, which was accepted by both parties. UNESCO announced that it was prepared to provide the framework for this initiative.

In addition to such specific interventions, the school itself should be a zone of peace and safety. The curriculum and the hidden curriculum must promote co-operation and 'esprit de corps' rather than competition in the classrooms as well as in the playgrounds. Teaching/learning methods that promote participatory and child-centred learning, co-operation and problem-solving should be adopted in place of the traditional 'chalk-and-talk' method widely used in classrooms in many parts of the world.

2. Civic education

As a means of promoting social cohesion, since 1998 UNESCO-PEER has been running a civic education programme in Somalia. It has established ten peace resource centres (PRCs) across Somalia, which serve about 180 community groups at the grassroots level. The community groups have established a cross-zonal or regional communication network where they communicate through the PRCs and share their positive experiences in local peace promotion, culture-of-peace activities, etc. The PRCs assist the community groups to share peace materials and initiatives happening in their respective localities with other PRCs and community groups in other localities. The project produces two issue-based radio programmes. So far, 200 radio soap-opera and 200 radio magazine programmes have been produced, aired on several radios (including the BBC), and are made available on tapes for listening and discussion by groups at their convenience. The soap-opera dramatizes issues identified by the community groups and presents them in a manner that is both educational as well as entertaining, while the radio magazine presents the real voices of the grassroots people in different parts of Somalia. A printed monthly magazine summarizes and presents in a concise format the episodes of the soap-opera and, in each issue, six pages are devoted to the local community groups in order to share their ideas and experiences. The project organizes quarterly workshops that bring together all project staff. To enhance the interaction and integration of Somali people, these workshops are scrupulously rotated around the country. Furthermore, the PRCs offer quarterly training to collaborating community groups, covering such themes as a culture of peace, human rights, community and resource mobilization, community participation, a community information system, community radio and media pluralism, networking for development, data collection, etc.

UNESCO-PEER has learned the following lessons from its civic education programme:

- Radio can be a very effective means to inform and educate people.
- There is a great potential for the grassroots local communities to participate and contribute to bottom-up peace promotion and national integration.
- Grassroots community groups are capable of giving in-depth and critical analysis of interventions affecting their lives, provided that they are given the opportunity to do so.
- There are many civil society groups emerging in Africa, and there is a potential for establishing close linkages among them.
- People-driven interventions can work better and have a more positive impact than programmes conceived and executed by outside experts. The civic education project started with participatory research identifying what the people wanted to hear, and that helped to establish a close linkage with the grassroots local community groups, traditional leaders and local administrative structures.

- When people see that their views are taken into consideration, they tend to be very co-operative and supportive. The project's radio programmes depend heavily on feedback from local community groups and the programmes take into consideration the people's views. Hence, community groups send regular feedback on a voluntary basis. Community-based training of trainers can have a multiplier effect where each community member trained can train others. Alongside peace initiatives on the political front, people-driven peace interventions work really well and, consequently, there is a need to empower groups and encourage them to build peace using indigenous practices of conflict prevention/management/transformation.

Peace itself is no longer negatively defined as 'the absence of conflict, war and violence'. Promotion of a culture of peace encompasses a whole range of issues, including the rule of law, justice, good governance, human rights, democracy, solidarity, reconciliation, gender equality, protection of the environment, etc.

III. CONCLUSION

'Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed.' This conviction, expressed in UNESCO's Constitution, has led the organization to build peace through education, science, culture and communication. The mission of the organization, challenging as it was in the post-Second World War years, has become more focused than ever before at the dawn of the new millennium. Creating and maintaining social cohesion has become more of a challenge in a world characterized by globalization on the one hand, but ripped apart because of real or perceived injustices leading to civil strife, ethnic and religious conflicts, and social disintegration. Building on the four pillars of education—learning to be, learning to know, learning to do and learning to live together—UNESCO urges all societies to renounce war and violence and move towards a utopia in which none of the talents that lie buried in every person like a hidden treasure are left untapped.

PART IV:
NATIONAL REPORTS

PARTIE IV :
RAPPORTS NATIONAUX

Guidelines (see Annex II) were provided to the participants on how to prepare their country presentations around the following main issues: (i) problems of the national education system affecting the school system in general and those related to curricula; (ii) solutions to the problems concerning the education system and the curriculum; (iii) history, basic characteristics, and analysis of the text of the current reform, and the linkages between curriculum reform and curriculum development. The countries that participated in this seminar were Burundi, Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea (did not submit a written presentation), Ethiopia, Kenya, Mauritius, Nigeria, Rwanda, Seychelles and Somalia. More information on the educational profiles of each of these countries can be found on the IBE website: <http://www.ibe.unesco.org>

1. Burundi¹

I. LES PROBLÈMES DU SYSTÈME ÉDUCATIF

Il y a beaucoup de points communs aux problèmes rencontrés dans les différents systèmes éducatifs des pays d'Afrique subsaharienne. Les problèmes que connaît le système éducatif du Burundi se présentent généralement comme une confirmation de cette donnée. Néanmoins, force est d'indiquer que la crise socio-politique qu'a connu ce pays en 1993 a aggravé ou provoqué certains de ses problèmes éducatifs. D'une façon générale, parmi les problèmes de l'éducation au Burundi, on peut citer la baisse des performances, le faible développement de l'enseignement technique, l'insuffisance des infrastructures, le tâtonnement de la politique de formation de formateurs, l'absence d'une politique consistante de formation continue des enseignants en cours d'emploi, le caractère socialement défavorisé de la carrière enseignante, la faiblesse du niveau de planification, le caractère limité et inégal de l'accès à l'éducation.

En effet, le taux de réussite au Burundi est faible. L'enseignement technique, peu développé, est concentré dans les centres urbains (Bujumbura et Gitega). Le taux d'occupation des salles de classe est très élevé. Au primaire, il était de 65 élèves par classe en 1995-96 et de 60 élèves par classe en 1996-97. Au secondaire, on compte de 45 à 100 élèves par classe dans le premier cycle et de 35 à 80 dans le second cycle.

Les enseignants actifs ont tendance à désertir l'enseignement pour d'autres secteurs plus attrayants, tandis que les jeunes ne sont plus attirés par l'enseignement. Pour pallier cela, on assiste à un recrutement de personnes non qualifiées. Par exemple, dans le primaire 2000 enseignants sur 12000 sont non qualifiés. Dans le premier cycle du secondaire, 2/3 des enseignants étaient non qualifiés en 1997. Au primaire, le taux brut de scolarisation étaient 70 % (45 % de filles) avant 1992. Il est tombé à 43 % en 1995. En 2001, il est à 68,7 %, au primaire, 7,2 % dont 26 % de filles au secondaire, et de 0,8 % au supérieur. Le taux d'alphabétisation des adultes est 34 % dont 26 % pour les femmes.

Par rapport aux curricula, il convient de signaler que les concepteurs et les gestionnaires des programmes, c'est-à-dire les conseillers pédagogiques, ne répondent pas à un profil précis de formation initiale. La

compétence de certains d'entre eux ne reposent que sur leur expérience d'enseignement. La plupart n'ont pas l'opportunité d'avoir une formation en cours d'emploi dans le domaine de l'élaboration des curricula. Le problème de qualification des conseillers pédagogiques est encore plus grave pour l'enseignement technique. L'enseignement technique ne dispose pas d'une structure d'inspection. Faute de ressources humaines, matérielles et financières, le suivi des programmes sur le terrain est irrégulier.

Ces problèmes ont été aggravés par la crise qu'a connue le pays en 1993. La suspension de la coopération internationale consécutive à cette crise a affecté le développement des curricula et la production de matériels pédagogiques. Les perturbations de la sécurité, la destruction de matériels didactiques, des équipements et des supports pédagogiques, l'exil intérieur ou extérieur du personnel enseignant ont entraîné une non couverture des programmes et un cumul de retards chez les élèves dans l'accomplissement de la scolarité et la maîtrise des programmes.

II. LES SOLUTIONS OU LES TENTATIVES DES SOLUTIONS AUX PROBLÈMES.

Face à ces problèmes, le Gouvernement a pris des mesures qui peuvent être regroupées de la façon suivante. Une première série de mesures vise l'implication des collectivités locales dans la mise en place des infrastructures scolaires et l'appui aux infrastructures des collèges communaux, la mobilisation des responsables scolaires pour des campagnes de scolarisation. Une autre catégorie de mesures vise la création de structures déconcentrées pour l'encadrement administratif et pédagogique des écoles, la formation des inspecteurs et des conseillers pédagogiques, surtout de l'enseignement technique, la formation des enseignants, l'ouverture d'une école normale supérieure de formation accélérée des enseignants du secondaire (1999), l'institution d'une agrégation postlicence pour les enseignants du secondaire, le démarrage d'un programme de formation qualifiante des enseignants non qualifiés du primaire (1998), la création de centres pour l'évaluation ou pour la maintenance et la production de matériel didactique. Une autre série de mesures vise à encourager les enseignants par l'amélioration de leur condition de vie et de travail. La prime d'enseignement a été augmentée, une politique d'accès au crédit logement pour le personnel enseignant a été mise en œuvre. La

dernière série de mesures porte directement sur le contenu de l'enseignement. Un programme d'éducation à la paix a été initié dans l'enseignement primaire. Il s'intitule « Projet Bâtissons la Paix de l'UNICEF ». Pour le secondaire, a été élaboré un programme de civisme intégrant l'éducation à la paix, aux droits de l'homme, à la démocratie, les problèmes de l'environnement, de lutte contre le SIDA et d'égalité des genres.

III. LES RÉFORMES

Le système éducatif du Burundi a connu une réforme fondamentale en 1973. Celle-ci a été suivie d'un colloque sur les programmes d'enseignement du primaire et du secondaire en 1989 qui aura permis de réorganiser les orientations de la réforme de 1973. Un autre colloque est en cours de préparation. Son objectif est d'apporter des ajustements aux programmes issus du colloque de 1989.

La réforme de 1973 était caractérisée par les idées directrices suivantes : la ruralisation de l'enseignement primaire (adoption du kirundi, langue maternelle comme langue d'enseignement durant tout le cycle, c'est-à-dire pendant 6 ans, introduction du français comme langue enseignée à partir de la 3^e année et comme langue d'enseignement à partir de la 5^e année ; familiarisation avec les travaux agricoles et la vie des communautés rurales) ; la diversification et la professionnalisation de l'enseignement secondaire, mise en place de l'enseignement universitaire à travers les instituts spécialisés. Cette réforme a été accompagnée par des organes suivants : le bureau d'éducation rurale (BER), la régie des productions pédagogiques (RPP), la coopérative des parents d'élèves, les écoles de formation des instituteurs (EFI).

Le colloque de 1989 a permis de faire un examen critique de la réforme de 1973. Il a permis par exemple de constater que la double vacation pose des problèmes d'encadrement, de surcharge des enseignants, de baisse des heures de cours, des difficultés liées à la « kirundisation », à l'usage du français comme langue d'enseignement à partir de la 5^e année. Il a conduit par exemple à proposer pour le cours primaire, une nouvelle grille horaire de cours, l'introduction du français dès le 2^e trimestre de la première année, celle de la lecture et de l'écriture du français dès la 2^e année, à favoriser chez les enseignants l'initiative de la fabrication de matériel didactique, à la mise en place d'une structure d'évaluation de la ruralisation et de la kirundisation. Pour l'enseignement secondaire il a conduit au renforcement de l'enseignement du français, à l'élaboration des manuels qui tiennent compte des acquis lexicaux des élèves, à la dotation des écoles en laboratoires et en matériels scientifiques en vue de rendre l'enseignement scientifique plus pratique, au renforcement des cours de technologie et d'agriculture, à la mise en place des structures de récupération des pertes constatées, à la création d'urgence d'une section commerciale et d'une section d'opérateurs informatiques, à la généralisation de l'apprentissage de l'infor-

matique et à l'introduction de l'éducation à la vie familiale et en matière de population dans les cours qui s'y prêtent. Il a aussi permis un réaménagement des horaires et un renforcement des inspections et des bureaux pédagogiques en moyens logistiques et humains.

Les changements intervenus depuis 1989 justifient le colloque qui se prépare. A partir d'une analyse critique des programmes en vigueur, ce colloque va viser à proposer un nouvel aménagement des programmes. Il va permettre de mettre un accent particulier sur l'éducation à la paix, aux droits de l'homme, à la démocratie, à la protection de l'environnement, à la lutte contre le SIDA, à l'égalité des genres, à la santé et à la reproduction, aux nouvelles technologies de l'information et de la communication.

2. Comores¹

I. LES PROBLÈMES DU SYSTÈME EDUCATIF

Les problèmes de l'éducation aux Comores concernent l'accueil des élèves, la formation des maîtres, l'insuffisance des inspections, du contrôle et de l'encadrement pédagogique, les fournitures scolaires et les manuels scolaires, l'exécution des programmes scolaires, le rendement scolaire et les structures d'accueil postbaccalauréat.

Aux Comores, l'école coranique et l'école officielle cohabitent. La première est une institution entièrement autonome. Elle est une initiative du maître qui fixe lui-même son organisation en dehors de toute hiérarchie. Celui-ci ne reçoit aucune formation préalable, il enseigne selon son programme et n'est soumis à aucun contrôle. L'école officielle est une institution inspirée du modèle français, placée sous la tutelle du Ministère de l'éducation nationale à l'exception du préscolaire qui est à ce jour entièrement communautaire et privé. Il n'existe aucune continuité dans la formation entre ces deux institutions. L'école officielle semble ignorer le contenu des enseignements de l'école coranique et ne prend pas en compte les prérequis de ce niveau d'enseignement.

L'avènement de la démocratie au début des années 1990 a bouleversé le système d'enseignement sur le plan organisationnel et pédagogique. Les grèves répétées des enseignants ont conduit à des années scolaires non valides (1990, 1992, 1994, 1998). Les changements fréquents perpétrés à la tête du Ministère de l'éducation (en l'espace de 10 ans, 14 ministres et 4 secrétaires généraux se sont succédés dans ce Ministère) n'ont pas permis d'engager et de faire aboutir les réformes du système éducatif envisagé.

L'insuffisance des locaux, malgré l'utilisation optimale de ces derniers (double, parfois triple vacation, classe multigrade), fait qu'environ 25 % des enfants en âge d'être scolarisés n'ont pas accès à l'école. Le nombre d'élèves par maître est d'environ 40. On observe un départ massif des enseignants vers d'autres secteurs de l'administration et un manque des structures d'accueil dans l'institut qui assure la formation des maîtres.

Au niveau du secondaire, les enseignants ont le diplôme requis mais n'ont pas reçu de formation pédagogique préalable.

Au manque de ressources humaines s'ajoute le manque chronique des moyens de travail. On enregistre en moyenne deux rapports d'inspection et quatre rapports d'encadrement pédagogique par inspecteur et par an.

Les fournitures scolaires pour les élèves sont entièrement à la charge des parents, ce qui crée des disparités entre les enfants. Les manuels scolaires sont en nombre insuffisants à tous les niveaux, surtout dans les lycées. Du fait que les manuels ne soient pas conçus et édités sur place, ils ne répondent pas aux finalités et aux orientations du système éducatif.

La moitié des programmes scolaires n'est pas traitée en raison des perturbations incessantes des cours, mais surtout à cause de l'absentéisme des enseignants qui choisissent de consacrer l'essentiel de leur temps de travail dans les établissements privés où ils sont beaucoup plus contrôlés que dans le public où le système de contrôle est presque inexistant.

Au niveau du primaire, le taux de redoublement est d'environ 25 %.

Le tableau 1 résume le pourcentage des élèves qui ont réussi aux différents examens des sessions 1999 et 2000.

Les programmes actuellement en vigueur ne sont pas du tout élaborés selon l'approche curriculaire. Ils se contentent d'énumérer les connaissances à acquérir à chaque niveau d'enseignement en prenant soin d'énoncer les objectifs spécifiques visés dans chaque chapitre à étudier et de déterminer le temps à consacrer à chacun d'eux. Les manuels de référence sont également indiqués, mais ils ne sont pas dans leur grande majorité conformes aux programmes tant dans leur contenu que dans l'approche méthodologique.

II. LES SOLUTIONS OU LES TENTATIVES DE

TABLEAU 1. Le pourcentage des élèves qui réussissent

Type d'examen	Session 1999	Session 2000
CAE	27,27	46,34
CAP	46,66	40
Culture Générale	52,94	52,17
C.E.P.E	7,44	5,09
Concours d'Entrée en 6ème	21,86	22,88
BEPC	14,22	13,08
BAC A1	21,6	31,62
BAC C	62,5	75,82
BAC D	30,93	26,84

SOLUTIONS

La réforme du système éducatif en cours de préparation se propose d'intégrer l'institution coranique et l'école officielle. Les mesures sont prises pour l'amélioration des conditions d'accueil des élèves et de la qualité de l'enseignement.

Au niveau du primaire, il est nécessaire de rendre prioritaire la formation initiale et continue des maîtres, de produire des manuels scolaires destinés aux élèves et aux maîtres conformes aux programmes officiels et de redynamiser les activités de contrôle et d'encadrement du personnel enseignant. A ces mesures s'ajoutent pour le niveau du secondaire, la mise en place des commissions disciplinaires des programmes à toutes les années d'enseignement, la formation des membres de ces commissions sur les aspects de l'approche curriculaire à prendre en considération dans l'élaboration des programmes et des moyens matériels et financiers devant lui permettre d'assurer sa mission dans les meilleures conditions possibles.

III. LES RÉFORMES

Trois périodes essentielles marquent l'histoire des réformes de la République fédérale islamique des Comores.

La période postindépendance (1976 – 1984). Elle donnait la priorité à la formation des cadres moyens nécessaires à l'administration. Elle était caractérisée par une très grande volonté de sélection, des écoles primaires localisées essentiellement dans les grandes villes, trois collèges d'enseignement général et un seul lycée qui accueillait l'ensemble des élèves des quatre îles. Il n'existait aucun établissement d'enseignement technique et professionnel propre à accueillir les élèves exclus du

système éducatif. Ce système a été remplacé par un autre qui a donné la priorité à la formation technique et professionnelle (bâtiment, électricité, mécanique auto, techniciens de santé, gestion, comptabilité, etc.) Le retrait progressif de l'assistance bi et multilatérale, ajouté au manque de débouchés, pour les cadres formés, consécutifs à l'absence d'infrastructures industrielles et artisanales a fait abandonner ce système qui répondait aux besoins réels du pays. Le manque de personnel enseignant conduit à faire appel à des bacheliers et à des étudiants en classe terminale pour prendre en charge l'enseignement. La non formation de ces jeunes encadreurs a contribué à rendre moins efficace le système éducatif.

La période allant de 1984 – 1994. La Loi N° 84 007/PR relative à l'Éducation et la création de l'École normale supérieure de Mvouni, l'Institut national de l'éducation et l'École normale de formation d'instituteurs met l'accent sur la participation communautaire, l'ouverture de l'école sur le milieu, sur l'école comme facteur essentiel du développement, sur maîtres, élèves, familles et organisations locales comme des artisans de l'épanouissement et de la promotion de chacun et de tous, et doivent s'associer à l'accomplissement de la mission de l'école.

A part la création des associations parents-maîtres dans les villages qui n'ont pas eu de réels pouvoirs, aucune autre initiative n'a été prise pour rendre effective les orientations définies dans la loi.

Des États généraux sur l'éducation ont été organisés avec implication à tous les niveaux de l'ensemble de la population des trois îles. Les conclusions de ces travaux ont servi de base pour l'élaboration de la loi d'orientation sur l'Éducation Loi N° 94 035/AF du 20 décembre 1994 et d'un plan directeur de l'Éducation et de formation pour cinq ans au mois de mai 1996.

Le plan directeur précise ces options en formulant des objectifs propres à consolider le système dont :

- l'universalisation de l'enseignement primaire qui vise à faire passer le taux net de scolarisation de 64% à 78 % ;
- l'amélioration des résultats de l'apprentissage à travers la qualification des enseignants par la formation et la valorisation et par la mise en place des programmes scolaires d'enseignement révisés pour rendre possible l'épanouissement des aptitudes individuelles et des personnes capables grâce à leurs compétences de participer au développement économique et social du pays. L'objectif visé étant de faire passer le taux de promotion interne de 60 % à 87 % et le taux de redoublement de 30 % à 10 % ;
- La restructuration et le renforcement de la formation professionnelle et technique en la mettant au service du développement économique et social ;
- La réhabilitation des établissements scolaires.

Les structures prévues pour accompagner la réforme sont : un conseil consultatif de l'éducation chargé de donner des avis sur la pertinence des programmes d'enseignement et de recherche, sur leur adéquation aux besoins du pays et

de faire au Ministre de l'éducation toute proposition d'ajustement qu'il jugera nécessaire ; et une cellule de coordination des stratégies de la politique éducative. Les écoles élémentaires, les collèges et les lycées sont devenus des établissements publics jouissant de l'autonomie financière, administrés par un Conseil d'administration et dirigés par un chef d'établissement. Aucune politique d'édition de livres conforme aux orientations définies n'est évoquée dans la loi.

La période allant de 1994 à ce jour. La mise en place progressive d'une méthodologie de décentralisation effective de l'administration de l'éducation pour qu'enfin les établissements scolaires et les structures régionales de l'éducation puissent jouer pleinement leur rôle.

Les langues d'enseignement, l'arabe et le français, sont toutes des langues étrangères non parlées dans les familles, ce qui constitue un réel obstacle tout au moins dans les premiers apprentissages. Le comorien en tant que langue d'enseignement est surtout pratiqué au niveau du préscolaire, pour les autres niveaux, il est simplement toléré.

La réforme répond bien aux réalités locales et aux besoins des populations dans la mesure où les décisions qu'elle envisage sont issues d'une concertation impliquant de près la communauté de base jusqu'au sommet de l'appareil étatique.

Les textes en vigueur recommandent la mise en oeuvre des méthodes actives, d'une pédagogie coopérative et différenciée, mais le système ne s'est pas donné les moyens matériels et humains nécessaires pour les rendre effectives dans les classes.

Comores: Le développement curriculaire : qui fait quels choix ?

	Niveaux central	Niveaux régional, départemental et municipal	Niveau établissement scolaire
Finalités et objectifs	Le gouvernement et l'assemblée nationale.		
Programme d'enseignement	La commission générale des programmes		
Méthodes et stratégies d'apprentissage		Les écoles normales implantées dans les îles.	Les équipes pédagogiques disciplinaires dans les établissements
Matériels didactiques	Ministère de l'éducation nationale	Les associations communautaires et les parents d'élèves	Le chef d'établissement.
Évaluation	Inspection générale de l'éducation - système éducatif - CIPR	Coordination des inspections (primaire et secondaire)	

3. République démocratique du Congo

I. LES PROBLÈMES DU SYSTÈME ÉDUCATIF

Les problèmes qui affectent le système éducatif congolais sont la sous-qualification des enseignements, l'insuffisance d'infrastructures et de mobilier adéquat, l'insuffisance de manuels scolaires, le manque de matériel didactique, le manque de planification scolaire, le non-paiement des salaires. En effet, bien qu'ayant obtenu un diplôme de l'option pédagogique, beaucoup d'enseignants ne sont plus capables de s'imprégner de nouvelles méthodes d'apprentissage à cause de l'âge, d'autres n'ont jamais suivi les humanités pédagogiques, d'autres encore n'ont pas de grade requis pour donner des cours dans les écoles secondaires. Du fait de l'explosion démographique, les responsables scolaires sont obligés d'accueillir les enfants sans tenir compte de la capacité d'accueil de leurs institutions. Dans la plupart des écoles rurales, les élèves sont assis à même le sol. Les pupitres existant dans certaines écoles ne respectent pas les dimensions requises pour les différents degrés du cycle primaire. Les maisons d'édition des manuels ont cessé de fonctionner ou alors fonctionnent par-à-coup faute de directives de la part du ministère de tutelle. Le matériel didactique, nécessaire à tous les niveaux d'enseignement fait défaut dans les écoles publiques. Face au manque d'établissements, certains particuliers de bonne volonté ont créé des écoles. Nombreuses sont les écoles privées qui ne respectent pas la législation scolaire en vigueur. Certaines de ces écoles fonctionnent dans des maisons en location ou les salles des classes sont en somme des chambres à coucher. Les problèmes de salaire des enseignants remontent à plus de 10 ans. L'État n'arrivant plus à payer les enseignants, ceux-ci se sont rabattus sur les parents pour l'enseignement qu'ils dispensent à leurs enfants. Les parents eux-mêmes démunis, sont de plus en plus incapables de s'acquitter de leurs obligations. La conséquence de cette sit-

uation est simple et inévitable. Les enfants des plus démunis sont privés de l'éducation et de l'instruction.

Parmi les problèmes relatifs aux curricula, on peut citer l'insuffisance des programmes d'enseignement, la non-couverture du programme existant, la non-exploitation des programmes par les utilisateurs, l'inadéquation entre les programmes et la vie pratique. En effet, plusieurs de nos écoles fonctionnent sans programme d'enseignement. Il arrive souvent que certaines écoles publiques et agréées n'achèvent pas le programme scolaire tel que stipulé dans la législation scolaire, le calendrier allant de 220 jours maximum à 180 jours minimum. Les chefs d'établissement ne donnent pas l'occasion aux enseignants de s'imprégner des contenus notionnels et méthodologiques des programmes étant donné que ce sont eux les premiers utilisateurs de ces documents. L'enseignement met l'accent sur la mémorisation et le bourrage de crâne. Les écoles techniques et de métier ne sont fréquentées que par une infime minorité d'élèves.

II. LES SOLUTIONS ET LES TENTATIVES DE SOLUTIONS

Face à ces problèmes, des solutions ont été adoptées. L'État a créé le Service national de formation (SERNAFOR) au sein de l'Inspectorat de l'enseignement primaire, secondaire et professionnel, pour encadrer efficacement les enseignants sous-qualifiés. Certains organismes non gouvernementaux prêtent main forte aux écoles publiques en réhabilitant les plus démunies et les plus pléthoriques. L'UNICEF veille sur l'appui logistique pour quelques écoles publiques ; les chefs d'établissements dont les écoles ne sont pas concernées par cet appui, utilisent les moyens de bord pour équiper progressivement leurs écoles respectives. L'État a accordé un délai aux gestionnaires des écoles dont les conditions de fonctionnement ne sont pas réunies pour se mettre en conformité sous peine de voir leurs institutions fermées.

Par rapport aux curricula, l'État, par le truchement des ONG, doit multiplier les programmes en vigueur au

niveau tant primaire que secondaire, les mettre à la disposition des écoles et veiller à leur application. La révalorisation de l'inspecteur d'enseignement s'avère impérieuse. Les disciplines ne figurant pas aux programmes, telles que l'anglais et l'informatique seront versées dans l'enseignement non formel. Les inspecteurs devront initier les chefs d'établissements et les enseignants à l'exploitation des programmes en vigueur. Le test de fin d'études primaires (TFEP) ainsi que l'examen d'État contribuent à l'uniformisation du programme car les gestionnaires craignent des échecs qui découleraient de non-respect du programme national étant donné que ce genre d'évaluation est dévoué à l'État.

III. LES RÉFORMES

L'histoire éducative du Congo est jalonnée de plusieurs périodes. La période précoloniale (1890–1906) est caractérisée par l'organisation des colonies scolaires où l'encadrement des enfants était assuré par les missionnaires et les militaires, la création des écoles libres et la signature d'une convention entre l'État et le Vatican. La finalité de l'école pendant cette période était la formation des auxiliaires catéchistes, des auxiliaires commis de l'État et des soldats lettrés; le développement des aptitudes des enfants au travail manuel et à la connaissance de la langue vernaculaire. La période coloniale (1908 – 1958) est caractérisée par la réforme de 1948 (création des écoles moyennes avec comme objectif la formation des cadres subalternes de l'administration) et la réforme de 1958 (accompagnant le courant d'émancipation politique au Congo). Elle a fait la première tentative d'unifier le programme d'enseignement en imposant le programme métropolitain dans toutes les écoles. La période (1960 – 1981) est caractérisée par la réforme de 1961 concrétisant l'unification des régimes qui appliquaient aux uns, le programme congolais à caractère sélectif et aux autres, le programme métropolitain. La réforme de 1962 s'intéresse davantage à l'enfant. Elle prône un enseignement fonctionnel ayant l'enfant au centre de toutes ses préoccupations. La réforme de 1963 a accouché d'un programme national de l'enseignement primaire qui adaptait au contexte congolais le programme métropolitain avec l'imposition du français comme langue d'enseignement. A partir de 1965, la tendance est de finaliser l'enseignement primaire en l'orientant vers les activités agricoles. Les programmes qui se sont succédés par la suite sont inspirés par celui de 1963. La réforme de 1984 a lancé un programme national de l'enseignement primaire intitulé « Vade-mecum des maîtres » qui a fait l'objet d'une expérimentation dans les écoles de Kinshasa et de Kisangani. La réforme de 1997 est la plus récente. Elle a été conçue pour le cycle primaire. Elle a adopté le programme triennal minimum (1997 – 1999), fixé des priorités pour l'éducation nationale, promu une formation de qualité pour tous dans le but d'assurer à chacun la maîtrise des instruments indispensables à son développe-

ment intégral. Elle a adopté les structures de gestion de l'éducation à plusieurs niveaux. Au niveau central on note : le Ministère de l'éducation nationale, l'inspection générale de l'E.P.S.P, la direction des programmes scolaires et de matériel didactique. Au niveau provincial, on a la Division de l'E.P.S.P., l'inspection principale provinciale, les services pédagogiques. Au niveau local, l'on dispose de la sous-division, de l'inspecteur chef de pool, des gestionnaires, des inspecteurs itinérants, du conseiller d'enseignement et du chef d'établissement enseignant.

D'après cette réforme, le français est la langue d'enseignement. Cependant au degré élémentaire, il est enseigné comme langue seconde et non comme langue maternelle. Les langues nationales congolaises servent de prérequis dans l'enseignement du français.

La réforme en vigueur s'appuie sur les finalités de l'enseignement national définies par la Loi-cadre no.86/005 du 22/09/1986 et par la Charte de l'Éducation, CNS, 1992.

Les disciplines, comme les thèmes rencontrent les orientations socio-économiques du pays pour qu'à la fin de l'apprentissage, l'enfant puisse être capable d'être utile à lui-même et à la société. Un enseignement par objectifs, un apprentissage actif, savoirs, des savoir-faire et de savoir-être sont des stratégies en étroite relation avec les objectifs, des contenus et les méthodes prévus au programme. En définitive, l'enfant doit rester au centre de l'enseignement. Ainsi toutes les perspectives de formation doivent concourir à la réalisation d'un seul objectif final à savoir la formation intégrale de l'enfant.

4. Eritrea

Tefsamicael Gerahtu

After thirty years of war, Eritrea is trying to rebuild its education system with the intention of favouring national unity and identity, social justice and with the intention of educating citizens with progressive morality. The new education system is based on the following policies: (i) uniformity among cultural and ethnic diversity; (ii) promotion of local languages in education by using eight of the nine local languages as a medium of instruction at primary level; (iii) alignment of the teaching and learning processes (content) with the children's upbringing; (iv) community participation and capacity-building for democratic schooling whereby ethnic minorities and girls are given first priority; and (v) institutionalization of schools, which involves local monitoring and empowerment of schools.

I. PROBLEMS AFFECTING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

In Eritrea, there has been a quest for a relevant curriculum that addresses the needs of the people, and promotes equality, access and quality. So far, the curriculum has been plagued with the following problems: (i) it lacks the subjects that are required for life

in the twenty-first century, like science and technology; (ii) there is too much emphasis on academic theory, and the curriculum is heavily overloaded with content which is unrelated to reality in the country; (iii) new policy initiatives have not been completely assimilated by the teachers—some of them still use the old curriculum and methods of teaching; (iv) and the professional level of the teachers is very low. At school level, the following problems have been identified: (i) a systematic and didactic approach to the curriculum is lacking; (ii) also missing is a lack of content on proper theory to justify the basic philosophy and objectives; (iii) the school syllabus lacks structural unity and continuity; (iv) an interdisciplinary approach to teaching does not exist; and (v) textbooks are of poor quality and teacher training is inadequate.

II. SOLUTIONS

In Eritrea, people believe that the role of the curriculum is to raise productivity and improve the social structure. It is important for the curriculum to promote society's wishes by making education more equitable. The curriculum should be focused on the betterment of human society through local and internal diversification and local variations—thus, there is a need for the structure of the school system to be unified. The democratization of the curriculum will help to secure community participation; for instance, the use of local languages at primary level is a way of encouraging people to support education and schooling. As far as textbook production is concerned, authorship of books has to be opened up to universities and individual academics. There is also a need for more emphasis on school-based examinations and continuous assessment rather than external examinations. Another solution would be to have national assessments based on competence tests in targeted areas.

5. Ethiopia

Dereje Terefe Gemechu

The Ethiopian education system is characterized by the lowest access to education in sub-Saharan Africa. The enrolment ratio for girls is 40.7%, while for boys it is 60.9%. Participation rates vary significantly between regions. The country has developed an Education Sector Development Programme covering a period of twenty years, by which time universal primary education should have been achieved. Performance targets for the short-, medium- and long-term scale have also been set.

I. PROBLEMS AFFECTING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

First of all, the education sector in Ethiopia is characterized by low enrolment at all levels. For instance, only 51% of the school-age population attend primary school, whilst secondary education is accessible

to only 10% of the age group. Thus, higher education is only available to a small fraction of those who manage to complete secondary schooling successfully. Secondly, the low and declining quality of education at various levels has led to high drop-out and repetition rates, especially for girls. This poor quality is influenced by a lack of adequate teaching materials, inadequate teacher training, and curricula that do not respond to regional, cultural and linguistic diversity. Thirdly, schools are unevenly distributed among different regions and rural/urban areas. Hence, there are inevitable disparities among regions, between genders and levels of schooling. Fourthly, the schools have the following outstanding problems: (i) poor infrastructure; (ii) delayed distribution of teaching and learning materials; (iii) slow dissemination of new ideas and educational innovations; and (iv) out-of-date attitudes to monitoring schools' performance, while professional management strategies are lacking.

There are also some problems related to the curricula because they have undergone a series of changes. During these changes, the following problems have come to the surface: (i) due to the decentralization process, there has been a lack of professional expertise in curriculum design, materials development, monitoring and evaluation; (ii) the newly adopted media of instruction have little or no literary stocks, such as dictionaries, glossaries and other printed literature; (iii) the recent curriculum is more demanding on both teachers and students, while teachers and school administrators have received little support from the central services; (iv) teachers are resistant to the new changes; (v) school timetables have become over-loaded, particularly with the arrival of new concepts to be taught, e.g. HIV/AIDS, gender issues, etc.; (vi) there is minimal co-operation and participation by parents in schooling; and (vii) financing is very poor for schools.

II. SOLUTIONS

Solutions to these problems require continuous research, planning and determined execution of planned activities. The Education Sector Development Programme could be a strategic solution for most of the problems, since it addresses the human, professional, material financial and managerial demands and expectations at all levels. Another strategy would be to raise public awareness, in order to mobilize the support of the people in ensuring the success of education and training programmes. There is also a need to create a common mindset among professionals and the teaching force. Problems regarding the curriculum can be counteracted as follows: (i) continuous capacity-building at regional, local and school levels; (ii) preparing teacher to introduce curricular innovations; (iii) improvement in the schools' infrastructure; (iv) improvements to the school timetable, the pupil/teacher ratio and the distribution of teaching materials; and (v) continuous evaluation and review concerning the implementation of the curriculum.

III. EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Ethiopia carried out its most recent educational reform in the 1990s, which introduced two major developments: (a) the education system has been decentralized; and (b) responsibility for the curriculum has been decentralized, particularly to primary schools. The medium of instruction at the primary level has become the local language(s) that each regional/zonal council approves. The federal language, Amharic, is introduced as a subject at grade three in non-Amharic zones or regions, while English is used as a medium of instruction from secondary education onwards. The education and training policy reforms have also presented an implementation strategy known as the Education Sector Development Programme. However, it immediately became clear that there is a lack of reading materials in local languages and a shortage of teaching staff. The use of local languages is an attempt by the government to recognize the rights of different ethnic groups since it will help them to develop their culture. This political initiative has created an impression of cultural restoration and of national identity among the wider public. It has had a positive effect on school participation rates in all primary schools and has increased community participation, as well as contributing to a sense of partnership and of school ownership.

Nevertheless, there is a need for more studies, research and capacity-building measures in the area of language instruction. The learners' competence and mastery of the English language still leaves much to be desired. Textbook production is also a major problem in terms of quality, timely distribution, the number of textbooks per student and the availability of a fully fledged publishing policy. Some problems have also been experienced with the implementation of the reforms since: (i) the curriculum has been reviewed several times, and the textbooks have also been reviewed and reprinted; and (ii) there is a need for in-service training so that teachers may move away from teacher-centred learning strategies; and (iii) the school timetable is heavily overloaded a situation that could be avoided through interdisciplinarity.

IV. SPECIAL ISSUES

Ethiopia has the second largest population in sub-Saharan Africa, yet access to education is one of the lowest in the region. The education sector is characterized by low enrolment at all levels; as mentioned, only 51% of the school-age population receives primary education. The recent curriculum reforms introduced a situation in which twenty national languages became the media for instruction either in lower primary (grades 1 to 4 or 1 to 6) or in full primary (grades 1 to 8) schools. The problems related to the use of so many languages include the standardization of the languages themselves, the availability of printed materials and sometimes a lack of teaching staff. Nonetheless, the government hopes that this policy will

result in some form of cultural restoration and recognition for national identities among the wider public.

6. Kenya

J. Kiptoon

Kenya, like any other developing country, faces the challenge of providing quality education to its growing population against the backdrop of dwindling resources. The problems and the challenges are mainly related to issues of access, equity, quality and relevance of education. Kenya's people belong to different tribes. Thus, the Kenyan education system has been designed to cater for and foster national unity and development, economic and social needs through individual development and self-development, social equality, respect and development of a cultural heritage, as well as raising awareness of an international consciousness. However, like most African countries, Kenya has educational problems that are listed below.

I. PROBLEMS WITH THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

One of the major problems facing the school system and curricula is related to access to formal education, whose problems revolve around enrolment, retention, transition, completion, drop-out and repetition rates. To illustrate this point, in 1990, the gross enrolment rate at primary level was 101%, as opposed to 86.9% in 1999. Out of 8 million children aged between 6 and 13 years, only 5 million were enrolled in primary schools in 1999. Another problem results from the fact that the community is responsible for the recruitment and payment of teachers, most of whom are not well trained and are relatively poorly paid. Further problems include the following: (i) education is expensive, hence some households cannot afford to send their children to school, while in some schools facilities are limited; (ii) the inflexibility of the education system and the curriculum; (iii) the impact of poverty, HIV/AIDS and drug abuse; (iv) insecurity in some areas where children may be attacked on their way to school; (v) poor access to educational services in remote areas; and (v) inequitable distribution of learning and instructional materials throughout the country.

Before the implementation of the 8+4+4 curriculum, the previous 7+4+2+3 curriculum had become irrelevant and inappropriate to the needs of learners and society. If we look at the quality of education in the 8+4+4 curriculum, the following problems have been identified: (i) the practical, skills-based curriculum is too expensive for the government, parents and communities to maintain; (ii) inadequate teacher training and poor facilities, equipment and teaching/learning materials; (iii) weak resource management; and (iv) poor monitoring and evaluation of the new curricula. There are also some problems related to the relevance of the education provided to the Kenyans, which include a mismatch

between the knowledge and skills acquired, limited research and evaluation, national goals not yet revised to take account of recent technological and industrial innovations, and too much emphasis on the cognitive domain and on certification.

II. SOLUTIONS

Some of the solutions to overcome the problems listed above include the following: (i) there are policies to ensure provision of early childhood education that may serve to improve access to primary education; (ii) the use of existing educational facilities should be maximized; (iii) for the tertiary level, maximum use of all facilities should also be promoted; (iv) special needs education has to be promoted; (v) educational managers should be provided with training; (vi) there is a need to increase the supply of textbooks, educational materials and specialized facilities; and (vii) teacher development and support need to be enhanced and many others.

III. EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Curriculum reform means accepting the fact that no curriculum is static, since the social, political and economic realities of different societies are constantly changing. Reforms in Kenya began with the English-medium project, which was launched in 1957 with the aim of introducing English as a medium of instruction starting from grade one. In the long run, the project, which was later called the New Primary Approach, failed because it was too expensive and unattainable because schools needed more trained teachers, textbooks and other materials. The second reform took place in 1970 with the adoption of the Kenya Mathematics Project. This programme had been introduced in the United States of America in 1955 and later in the United Kingdom. When it reached Africa, Kenya joined the other African countries. The 'new mathematics' project changed the curriculum structure of mathematics, the content and methods of teaching it. Some problems arose at primary school due to the abstract nature of some mathematics topics (sets, probability, bases, etc.); the language used was alien to both the teachers and learners. These obstacles combined with large classes, lack of facilities and inadequate teacher training led to the failure of this project.

The third reform was launched in 1978 through the primary education project. Subjects were reorganized in some curricular areas in order to help achieve the aims of primary education. However, the project also faced two major problems in the areas of finances, which were supplied by the World Bank, and in the co-ordination of the project. There was a lack of co-ordination between the project implementers and the Teachers Service Commission.

The last reform to-date was implemented in 1985 when the 8+4+4 system of education was introduced. This new system was expected to address the failures of the 7+4+2+3 system and lead to an improvement of

curriculum content with more emphasis on technical education, and a marked departure from the previously examination-centred curricula. Broad guidelines and objectives were set, and the medium of instruction (English) in both primary and secondary schools was determined. At primary level, the subjects were divided into five broad fields: communication, mathematics, science, humanities and applied education.

The major problem with this reform has been that the subjects are too numerous and the scope is too wide to be covered during the normal school working day. The Ministry of Education reduced the subjects from eleven to six, and some of these subjects were made non-examinable. The result was that, due to pressure of time, teachers abandoned those subjects that were non-examinable. At secondary level, students may sit for as many as nine subjects, but will be graded in only seven of them. For practical subjects requiring more time to carry out projects, the teachers resorted to theoretical teaching only with little or no practical lessons. The third problem is concerned with the lack of a standardized format to carry out continuous assessment. Thus, individual teachers apply assessment differently, with the result that some students are likely to be more favoured than others.

IV. SPECIAL ISSUES

Kenya is the only country in East African using the 8+4+4 structure of education, whilst the other countries, like the United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda, still follow the 7+4+2+3 system. This poses a problem in the area of student exchange and transfer when Kenyan students want to study in other countries. At school level, a common complaint is that too many subjects have to be covered within a very short space of time. Hence learners may have to come to school as early as 6 a.m. and cannot go to bed before 11 p.m., including being obliged to study on Saturdays and during school holidays. In a way, this is robbing children of their childhood, as there is no time for them to play and learn informally in their own environment. The problem of access to education is exacerbated by socio-cultural customs whose practices include early marriage—mostly affecting girls. For instance, when resources are limited, parents prefer to send boys to schools. This has led to a gender disparity in terms of access to education.

7. Mauritius

Hirinand Dansingani

Education in Mauritius is free of charge and a right from primary through to tertiary level, while a system of grants exists for the pre-primary level. Structurally, the system operates according to the 6+5+2 principle. Nevertheless, various problems exist in the education system regarding access and equity, the qualitative dimension and management.

I. PROBLEMS AFFECTING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

While there is almost universal schooling from the age of 5 at the primary level, one out of every three pupils has dropped out by the end of the primary cycle, and only one out of twenty-nine pupils successfully reaches the end of the secondary system. Only 3% of all students who pass the Higher School Certificate at the secondary level gain access to the University of Mauritius, thus jeopardizing the opportunity for the proper development of each person.

Pre-service training is offered to primary teachers much more frequently than for secondary teachers because of a belief that primary schooling is the foundation for education. Thus, teachers at the secondary level could benefit from more intensive training. Some schools are ranked higher than others, although there is no official quality assurance or benchmarking system because of the absence of a well-structured inspectorate system. Some schools are poorly managed and there is a lack of motivation among teachers because of limited prospects for promotion. Another problem is that the system is highly centralized and schools are given very little financial autonomy.

Curricula suffer from the following problems: (i) the inability of the school to help learners adapt to and meet the socio-economic needs; (ii) over-emphasis on discipline-orientation at the expense of skills and competency orientation; and (iii) too much emphasis on summative assessment and not enough on formative assessment, since too much emphasis is placed on the outcomes of end-of-year and end-of-cycle examinations.

II. SOLUTIONS

The Mauritius Government has focused mainly on the structural change in the education system and curriculum renewal in the primary sector. The structural transformation will aim at the achievement of universal, free and compulsory schooling lasting for eleven years and put more emphasis on construction of new secondary schools so that student in each region can be admitted to them. The best ('star') schools will become sixth-form colleges (i.e. upper secondary level). The new secondary curriculum, quality assurance and standard setting are projects that are still in the pipeline.

III. EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The major reform dates back to the 1980s with the introduction of the Certificate of Primary Education (CPE), which was an endeavour to move away from the previous curriculum geared towards producing clerks for the civil service. Transformations and reforms attempted to 'Mauritianize' the curriculum by making it more child-centred and interdisciplinary. The CPE used ranking as a basis for admission into secondary schools, thus the curricular goals ended up being more teacher-centred, favouring rote memorization and 'narrow thinking', since the objective seemed to be improving learner performance in the examinations.

In 1993, a curriculum renewal project was embarked on at primary and lower secondary levels. At primary level, the Essential Learning Competencies (testing the minimal degree of learning competencies) and Desirable Learning Competencies (DLC) (testing higher-order competencies) were introduced. One of the major problems experienced during the reform was that there was a massive failure rate (one out of every three pupils), which had a disastrous effect in terms of human resources, since learners were not able to continue with their studies.

The current reforms at primary level have helped to eliminate the ranking exercise and now focus exclusively on academic subjects with the primary goal of assessing the 'star' schools. There is also a need to give a broad-based education to children that will promote their mental, physical, aesthetic, spiritual and cultural development. The curriculum also introduces awareness of rights and duties among children, the richness of living together and adaptation to the era of the globalization. The new curriculum uses English as a medium of instruction in schools, with French being taught as a subject. It has been commonly felt that the education system must pursue dissemination of both French and English in order to meet the challenges of globalization and technical progress. The local Creole is used as a learning support, and is often resorted to in the classroom to facilitate the assimilation of difficult concepts.

Furthermore, the current reform ensures that a pre-vocational stream and a suitable curriculum will be introduced in all State secondary and private schools so as to cater for those learners who have failed twice at the primary level because of the examination system (CPE). This pre-vocational curriculum will concentrate on six learning areas: communication skills; functional mathematics; environment; science and technology; creative and performing arts; and self-development. Information and technology (IT) has been introduced as a subject in all schools throughout the country. Teacher training in all of these areas is already in progress. The formulation of the new primary curriculum focuses on key survival skills that include problem-solving, group learning, creativity and flexibility. The reform project has involved the mobilization of large financial resources, a massive recruitment of IT and arts teachers,

and a reorganization of the administration in order to ensure the sustainability of the reform.

Some problems have been identified during the implementation process including the following: (i) teacher resistance regarding the introduction of new subjects, such as citizenship education and the arts; (ii) an overloaded timetable through the addition of extra subjects (teachers have resisted the extension of working hours, even though they were offered extra pay); (iii) there is an ongoing debate as to whether IT should be used across the curriculum as a tool to reinforce teaching or whether it should be taught as a subject, as is currently the case; and (iv) a shortage of both physical and human resources for the production of quality teaching, learning materials and other aids.

IV. SPECIAL ISSUES

As was mentioned earlier, Mauritius enjoys free and full coverage at primary education level, and democratic and economic stability. Paradoxically, due to the bottleneck situation occurring at the transition to secondary education, there is a heavy drop-out rate among children who have repeated a primary class twice. Another important innovation includes the introduction of information technology (IT) and the setting up of computer laboratories in each of the 278 primary schools across the country. The country has also embarked on training programmes to provide existing and new teachers with citizenship education, IT, arts, sports and health education. Teaching and learning materials, such as textbooks, are properly tested before being freely distributed to schools. Finally, the new curriculum aims at fostering sound relationships of peaceful co-existence and interactions in a multicultural society, such as that of Mauritius, through the teaching of subjects like citizenship education, which includes human values, cultural heritage and diversity, natural heritage and national unity.

8. Nigeria

Ebele Maduewesi

Nigeria has participated in all deliberations concerning education for living together in a global world and is committed to the goals of Education for All, which are reflected in national education policies and programmes. The introduction of Universal Primary Education in 1976 and the publication of the National Policy on Education (NPE, 1977, revised in 1981 and 1998) are among the major national initiatives that were aimed at universalizing access to education in Nigeria. The NPE provides a framework within which all planned programmes and activities for basic education are implemented.

I. PROBLEMS WITHIN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Curricular contents and educational policies have not enjoyed the same level of confidence and diligence in their implementation as in their design and conceptualization. As a result, the education system is plagued by the following problems: (i) inadequate funding which manifests itself through a lack of teaching and learning materials and resources, the non-payment of teachers salaries, etc.; (ii) poor planning that puts further pressure on the budget because of the need to cater to high enrolment rates; (iii) highly centralized management of education through the federal government; (iv) mismatch between the values of schooling and what the parents and community want; and (v) clashes between the child's familial obligations and schooling. The following problems are particularly related to the curriculum: (i) there are hardly any funds available to buy materials and to expand the educational infrastructure; (ii) no school inspections are carried out to monitor curriculum implementation; (iii) instructional materials are poorly developed and supplies are inadequate; (iv) teacher morale is poor and their competence is insufficient to deliver the new curriculum; (v) low student achievement, especially in science subjects due to overloaded content, lack of teacher competence, an inadequate supply of teaching materials, and a faulty mechanism for assessment that creates an unfair reward system.

II. SOLUTIONS

The following solutions have been suggested in order to address the problems experienced with the education system in general and the curriculum in particular: (i) greater decentralization of education in a true sense; (ii) increased funding of education so that educational plans may be achieved; and (iii) the creation of entry and exit points for older children flexible enough to accommodate those who missed enrolment at age 6 and yet are still young enough to benefit from basic education. To achieve these educational goals and policies it is essential that the country experiences social and political stability.

III. EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The 6+3+3+4 education system emanated from the National Curriculum Conference in 1969 as a major attempt to reform the existing curriculum. Within this system, the secondary school curriculum in all subjects was expanded in both breadth and depth in order to cater for what would otherwise have been lost through the scrapping of the upper secondary school. Other changes included: (a) the fact that basic education became vocational and academic and was free and compulsory; (b) the introduction of pre-vocational subjects (technology, business studies, home economics); (c) a shift from content-based to process-based learning in sciences; (d) the introduction of social studies and citizenship education; (e) the use of the mother-tongue as

a medium of instruction in the early years of primary education; and (f) continual and cumulative assessment of learning. The Primary Education Improvement Project (1970) and the Bendel Primary Science Project (1996) were also introduced during these reforms.

Nigeria has taken some initiatives that have had a beneficial effect on and guided activities in favour of Education for All. These include: (i) the expansion of access to formal education; (ii) the setting up of government agencies to cater for disadvantaged groups, drop-outs and the disabled; (iii) placing education on the shortlist for legislative action so that the government shall direct its policies towards ensuring that there is equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels, and (iv) the government has financed all curricular development efforts at primary, junior secondary and teacher-training education. Finally, based on the experiences acquired over the years, and feedback from the national curriculum conference of 1991 and 1995, as well as subsequent appraisal of the education system to fit the dynamics of socio-cultural and global economy, the curricula for basic education is undergoing revision.

IV. SPECIAL ISSUES

In Nigeria, measures are being considered to bring about complementarity and integration between the Koranic and official schools that have existed up to now along parallel lines. Since, 1999, Nigeria has also embarked on a nine-year Universal Basic Education programme. The country uses the 6+3+3+4 education system.

9. Rwanda

I. LES PROBLÈMES DU SYSTÈME ÉDUCATIF

Une vue globale sur les problèmes que connaît le système éducatif rwandais indique que l'objectif de démocratisation de l'éducation n'est pas atteint, que les taux de scolarisation restent faibles, qu'il y a une baisse de la qualité de l'enseignement, un manque d'efficacité et une mauvaise gestion du système.

En effet, le système éducatif rwandais est confronté à l'insuffisance du personnel d'enseignement et d'encadrement administratif à la fois en nombre et en qualité, un abaissement de la motivation des enseignants lié à leurs salaires bas, à des taux (bruts) de scolarisation très bas (22 % des lauréats du primaire sont admis dans les établissements secondaires publics et 10 % dans les écoles privées), l'insuffisance d'infrastructures d'accueil, la mauvaise répartition de la carte scolaire, aux infrastructures détruites ou défectueuses et non encore réhabilitées, l'insuffisance et l'inadaptation du mobilier scolaire et du matériel didactique approprié surtout pour l'enseignement des sciences et de la technologie, l'instabilité et l'inadaptation de la structure de l'enseignement, l'absence ou le dépassement par endroit de la législation scolaire, l'inadéquation entre les besoins du

marché de l'emploi et la formation dispensée.

La dimension curriculaire des problèmes de l'éducation se présente avec l'année 1994 comme un repère important. Avant 1994, « les programmes d'enseignement élaborés suivaient une structure inadaptée ». Les contenus des programmes ne répondaient pas à la réalité socio-économique et culturelle du pays : contenus des programmes calqués sur les modèles étrangers. Les filières et les options d'enseignement définies arbitrairement et non conformes aux réalités du pays et ne respectant pas le principe de l'adéquation formation-emploi. Les programmes correspondant aux filières et options retenues sont surchargés. Les programmes de l'enseignement primaire et secondaire conçus respectivement pour préparer l'enfant à affronter le secondaire et le supérieur et non pour participer à la résolution des problèmes de la vie, au développement national et à la formation des cadres moyens spécialisés répondant aux besoins du développement du pays. Les contenus des programmes n'intégraient pas une éducation à la paix et aux droits de l'homme.

« Le contexte socio-politique du Rwanda après 1994 exigeait que les programmes d'enseignement soient revus et harmonisés pour permettre aux enfants provenant de différents systèmes éducatifs d'être instruits en suivant les mêmes normes d'éducation. »

« La révision des programmes a suivi l'ajustement de la réforme qui a instauré une structure de six ans au lieu de huit ans au primaire, deux cycles au secondaire (un tronc commun de trois ans et un deuxième cycle de deux ou trois ans selon les options) au lieu d'un cycle unique de six ans pour le secondaire ».

Parmi les critiques adressées aux nouveaux programmes on peut citer : « l'incohérence de contenus pour certains curricula ; le manque de suite logique au niveau des prérequis ; le niveau trop élevé de quelques contenus ; la surcharge de certains enseignements ; la difficulté d'apprentissage des langues ; le manque de manuels scolaires conformes à ces curricula, le manque de suivi des curricula élaborés à cause de l'effectif très réduit des concepteurs des programmes sur les plans quantitatif et qualitatif et à cause du problème lié à la logistique et aux finances ».

A ces différents problèmes, des solutions ont été adressées.

II. LES SOLUTIONS ET LES TENTATIVES DE SOLUTIONS

Face à ces problèmes, le Ministère de l'Éducation s'est assigné une mission importante avec des objectifs précis dont la réalisation passe par de mesures concrètes. L'une de ces mesures est la formation des enseignants de qualité et en nombre suffisant pour tous les niveaux d'enseignement. Le ministère a procédé à la création de centres de formation des enseignants au niveau de l'enseignement secondaire, des TTC (teacher training centers), dans lesquels on forme des enseignants pour le niveau primaire, d'un institut supérieur pédagogique

pour la formation des enseignants du secondaire, du KIE (Kigali Institute of Education). Des mesures ont été adoptées en vue d'assurer la formation continue et un appui pédagogique aux enseignants, de créer un environnement favorisant leur motivation, de réviser leur plan de carrière, et d'améliorer leurs conditions de travail.

Un effort remarquable a été fait dans le sens du renforcement du soutien pédagogique, du système d'information et de communication. Cela a permis d'accroître la capacité d'accueil à tous les niveaux d'enseignement en construisant de nouvelles infrastructures d'accueil, en mettant sur pied une carte scolaire rationnelle, en mettant en place une structure d'enseignement stable et adaptée au contexte du moment. La formation et l'affectation du personnel qualifié dans les différents services de l'administration centrale et décentralisée a été réorganisée. Il a été procédé aussi à la mise en place d'une législation scolaire solide et adaptée, à la promotion de l'enseignement de la science et de la formation technique et professionnelle, à l'adoption d'un programme d'éducation intégrale, respectueuse des droits de l'homme, de l'éducation à la paix, de la non-violence et adaptée à la situation du pays, à la diversification des sources de financement basées sur de nouveaux principes directeurs tels que le partenariat avec les communautés, ONG, organisations volontaires, églises et associations des parents, l'implication des communautés locales dans la construction, la gestion et la supervision de leurs propres écoles, l'encouragement du secteur privé, et l'introduction des mesures de recouvrement des coûts et en encourageant des institutions privées d'enseignement supérieur.

Il y a des solutions qui concernent les curricula. Il s'agit entre autres de l'évaluation des programmes. L'évaluation des curricula en expérimentation suppose une enquête auprès des utilisateurs (élèves, enseignants, directeurs d'écoles, inspecteurs) pour bien identifier les problèmes rencontrés, les confirmer ou les infirmer, la détermination des aspects sur lesquels des améliorations peuvent être apportées aux curricula et la révision et l'adoption définitive des curricula. Il a été aussi question de procéder à l'élaboration de manuels scolaires conformes aux nouveaux programmes en vue de faciliter le processus d'apprentissage des enseignants et des élèves. Pour les programmes de l'enseignement technique et professionnel, les mesures visent à aller dans le sens de l'assouplissement des structures de formation afin de mieux pouvoir s'adapter aux besoins des utilisateurs. Cela suppose des formations modulaires, des recyclages et stages dans les entreprises privées, un renforcement des compétences et une participation accrue des établissements et des entreprises dans la conception des programmes, une suppression des cours généraux non indispensables dans le cas où on garderait la formation de six ans au secondaire, la spécialisation des apprenants en fonction des besoins réels du marché de travail.

III. LES RÉFORMES

L'histoire de l'éducation scolaire au Rwanda est caractérisée par cinq périodes ayant chacune sa spécificité.

La période coloniale allemande (1900-1917) au cours de laquelle l'école initiée par les missionnaires visait une formation religieuse, l'alphabétisation et l'apprentissage de quelques métiers. La période coloniale belge (1920-1962) correspondait à un enseignement libre subsidié confié aux congrégations religieuses et ayant des programmes d'enseignement calqués à partir de 1948 sur le système éducatif belge doublé d'un enseignement religieux. La période allant de 1962 à 1973 (première République) sera consacrée par la loi scolaire du 27 août 1966 proposée par le gouvernement de la première République et qui s'inspire largement du Plan d'Addis-Abeba (mai 1961) consistant à doter de nouveaux États africains de cadres de différents niveaux pour leur développement. Elle correspond à l'institution de l'enseignement officiel en plus des écoles libres subventionnées et privées et de l'enseignement primaire universel, gratuit et obligatoire de six ans pour tous les enfants de 7 à 12 ans avec un système de double vacation au premier cycle de quatre ans, l'enseignement post-primaire de trois ans sous forme d'écoles ménagères et centres de métiers en vue de l'éducation des jeunes à la vie familiale et rurale améliorée, l'enseignement secondaire en deux cycles, (après un tronc commun de trois ans, les élèves sont orientés dans les sections normale, agricole, médicale, administrative et commerciale ; les sections techniques (quatre à six ans) et les sections d'enseignement général gréco-latines et latin-sciences gardent un cycle unique), l'enseignement supérieur est ouvert en 1963 avec la création de l'Université nationale du Rwanda et celle de l'Institut pédagogique national en 1966 respectivement avec l'appui du Canada et de l'UNESCO.

La période de 1973 à 1994 (la deuxième République) est caractérisée par la réforme scolaire de 1978/1979 et un réajustement intervenu en 1991. D'après la loi n°048/91 du 25 octobre 1991, l'enseignement primaire dure désormais six ans et comprend deux cycles. L'enseignement secondaire dure également six ans et est également subdivisé en deux cycles. La période de 1995 à nos jours est caractérisée par une nouvelle réorganisation du système éducatif, la mise en place de nouvelles structures au niveau du Ministère de l'éducation (le centre national de développement des programmes, Le conseil national des examens, l'inspection générale de l'éducation, les divisions chargées de l'éducation continue et spéciale, la direction chargée de la gestion et du développement du personnel enseignant), la création de nouvelles institutions d'enseignement supérieur spécialisé en sciences et technologie, en sciences de la santé et en pédagogie (KIST, KHI, KIE en plus des établissements publics existants : (UNR et ISAE), avec un accent particulier sur l'enseignement des sciences et technologie, du primaire au supérieur., l'utilisation de deux langues d'enseignement l'anglais et le français, l'intégration des valeurs

fondamentales (droits de l'homme et de la femme, culture de la paix, tolérance et unité nationale) dans les contenus des programmes d'enseignement. Un accent particulier est porté à l'éducation des filles et des femmes à tous les niveaux d'enseignement. Les curricula de l'enseignement primaire, secondaire général, pédagogique et une partie du domaine technique sont élaborés suivant la démarche de la pédagogie par objectifs alors ceux de l'enseignement technique et plus particulièrement des options relatives aux techniques industrielles sont élaborés suivant l'approche modulaire.

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10. Seychelles

Marie-Therese Purvis

The Seychelles education system is characterized by a comprehensive co-educational system which is available free of charge for a period of thirteen years, and a system of further and higher education available to those students who meet the selection criteria appropriate to a particular course of study or training on offer. Pre-school education is not compulsory, but almost all children from 3 to 6 years attend. Primary schooling is compulsory for children from age 6 years upwards, and there are twenty-four district primary schools. Secondary education is compulsory up to completion of level 4 (S4) and there are eleven regional schools. The final years of secondary education are modified to accommodate an option system that includes core academic and technical education. There are a number of full-time further education and training institutions, but there are no universities in the Seychelles. In order to cater for this lack of a university, a number of linkage programmes

have been arranged with the Edith Cowan University in Australia and Manchester University in the United Kingdom.

I. PROBLEMS IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Like many other countries in the world, the Seychelles education system is caught up in the international movement for reform in education in response to the demands of rapid technological change, the information age and globalization. Nonetheless, like some of the other countries discussed earlier on, the following problems affect the school system: (i) very limited financial, material and human resources, a situation complicated by the fact that several new initiatives are being pushed through at once; (ii) a school system still based on the colonial past which has failed to adapt to current ideas and expectations; (iii) initiatives for improvement are borrowed and adapted from more 'mature' education systems, but are seen as abrupt, fragmented and too demanding for most African countries like the Seychelles; and (iv) teachers' involvement in the formulation of educational objectives is limited, they thus feel insufficiently consulted and valued. The following problems relate specifically to the curriculum: (i) curriculum models are academically oriented, especially at the secondary level which continues to emphasize the requirements of international examinations; (ii) there is limited training for subject leaders in schools, which means that they are unable to provide support to fellow teachers and monitor curriculum implementation; (iii) perceptions of students' ability are conditioned by rigid streaming from the fourth year of primary school; (iv) teachers have been enjoying greater autonomy in school-based curriculum planning and design, but they have difficulty balancing this new role alongside many others expected of them; (v) there are shortages of teaching and learning materials and equipment, and also financial constraints which have limited the implementation of the revised curricula; (vi) teachers resist the use of innovatory teaching styles; and (viii) too much time is spent on teaching languages, thus sidelining other subjects.

II. SOLUTIONS

A number of initiatives aimed at bringing about qualitative improvement in the education system have been taken over the past few years. These include: (i) the introduction of school development planning in all State schools; (ii) a review and reorganization of school management structures; (iii) the setting up of a quality assurance service for schools; (iv) strengthening of parental involvement in school life and the establishment of national consultation structures between students, teachers, parents and other stakeholders; and (v) the establishment of a National Institute of Education to ensure a more co-ordinated approach to teacher education and training, and an overall review of the national curriculum. A general review of the curriculum

is currently in progress, and many teachers have been involved in this process that has facilitated and contributed to the question of ownership. Among other strategies that have attempted to combat the curricular problems experienced include the following: (i) teacher in-service and subject leader training related to the revised curriculum is in progress; (ii) technical education is also under review; and (iii) the School Improvement Programme, which promotes students' achievements and school empowerment, is being carried out at different levels of schooling and within various subjects.

III. EDUCATIONAL REFORMS

The Catholic Church established formal schooling in 1841 and for many years it ended after six years of primary schooling, but in 1902 two religious secondary schools were established. Both were affiliated to the Cambridge Examinations syndicate that still prevails today. Secondary schools offering three-year courses were established by the 1960s. From the 1980s the following changes were introduced: a new system of nine years of free basic primary education; two years of National Youth Service which started in 1982 up to 1998; and two or more years of post-secondary education and training offered free of charge and on a competitive basis.

Since the 1990s, new secondary schools have been built in all ten regions. The primary school curriculum has been revised and made more relevant to the local context, while the secondary school curriculum now includes training in applied vocational skills. A joint Bachelor of Education scheme in collaboration with Sussex University in the United Kingdom has been established, and the Seychelles Polytechnic provides business, tourism, technical and vocational courses. The School of Continuing Education promotes adult learning and helps to reduce illiteracy, not only among adults but also for those out-of-school children who are beyond school-going years. Having adjusted to the more general, worldwide trends in educational provision, a process of consolidation, with a clear focus on the enhancement of quality education throughout the education system, has been followed in the reforms of the 1990s.

IV. SPECIAL ISSUES

The turning point in the democratization of education took place in 1977 with the introduction of national goals guided by the principles of 'education for life', 'education for all' and 'education for personal and national development'. This entailed a shift away from the British model of education. These principles, which underline the significance of education for living together in all societies, have been part of and guided the formation of a new curriculum in the Seychelles.

11. Somalia

Mohamed Abdulkadir Nur

Before independence, Somalia was divided into two parts—the Italian 'Trust Territory' and the British protectorate—which later merged to form the Somali Republic. Thus, areas under the Italian colony followed a curriculum whose medium of instruction was Italian, while English was used in the British protectorate. After independence, the new republic inherited 233 primary and twelve secondary schools of different origins and philosophies from the colonial powers. Somalia gained its independence in 1960, and ten years later the country was plagued by a civil war that lasted for twenty-one years. By 1991, this war had ceased, but the education system had disintegrated beyond repair.

I. PROBLEMS WITH THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Some of the most serious problems include the following: (i) before the civil war, the problem was inadequate financing, but now there is no financing at all; (ii) even before the war the quality of teacher education had deteriorated as recruitment at that time required political correctness; (iii) a whole Somali generation has lost the chance for quality education during the twenty-one years of war; (iv) there are no educational facilities, textbooks and instructional materials; (v) there is no unified curriculum; (vi) there is no standardized assessment system and certification; and (vii) school administrative and management skills are very weak. Problems that are particularly concerned with the curriculum include: (i) the former curriculum document of 1986 was not specific on curriculum content and objectives; (ii) the textbooks written in Somali for the subjects of Arabic and Islam do not reach beyond grade 4; and (iii) parents appear to have lost their confidence in primary education due to the fact that almost 50% of teachers have never received any pre-service training and textbooks are very scarce.

II. SOLUTIONS

One of the natural requirements for the new education system was people's desire to regain what had been lost—the old system, and particularly the sight of children in school uniforms going to school with books happily determined to work towards their future. Thus, a school system similar to the old one has been recreated—eight years of primary education and four years of secondary education. The new development of community ownership of schools is still regarded with suspicion by government officials. Other needs include: (i) second chance education for over-age students; (ii) remuneration for teachers commensurate with their skills provided by either the government or by donor agencies; (iii) pre-service teacher training, as well as in-service training for those teachers who need it; (iv) schools should be rebuilt and refurnished, and textbooks and teachers' guides printed according to the revised national curriculum; (v) principals and management staff

should receive proper training; and (vi) standardized assessment procedures should be introduced and certification for grade eight examinations.

III. EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The first educational reform adopted was the introduction of co-education in 1963 whereby the existing separate schools for boys and girls were merged. In 1965, the two systems inherited from the colonial states were unified and a 4+4+4 system adopted. The medium of instruction at primary level is Arabic, while English is used for the intermediate and secondary levels. In 1972, the first Somali alphabet using Latin script was introduced. A year later, the then government ordered the nationalization of all private schools that had previously followed different curricula and used various media of instruction. The Somali language became a medium of instruction first in the lower and later in the higher classes for all public schools. In 1975, free and compulsory education was introduced with the objective of attaining universal primary education. In 1986, another reform took place whereby a decree was promulgated allowing privatization of schools and the national curriculum was revised. The government policy towards education has been to extend education to all sectors of society and to all areas, to expand and improve teacher training, to provide facilities for primary

education, to open new schools and to upgrade the existing ones.

IV. SPECIAL ISSUES

When the civil war in Somalia stopped in 1991, almost all public schools were either destroyed or had been seized by militiamen, whilst some had become graveyards or camps for displaced persons. As a result, the problems facing education in Somalia have multiplied after the civil war. The main problem was that the war practically wiped out the whole system and all educational materials were looted—doors and roofing materials were taken and printed materials lost. The rebuilding of the Somali education has depended upon foreign aid from international organizations such as UNESCO, the United Nations, UNICEF, the European Commission, and numerous international and local NGOs. As the years go by, the country will be faced with the responsibility of funding its own educational initiatives and slowly reducing its dependence on donors and foreign aid.

Notes

1. Ces documents résultent d'une contraction du texte présenté par le participant national au séminaire-atelier.

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ANNEX II:

Guidelines for the preparation of contributions

The *information note* accompanying this document provides the general context for the contributions. Written contributions should essentially be based on *point (a) of section I* (entitled *Objectives*) and should take into consideration the fact that we are basically interested in national experiences of curriculum reform and the description of strategies developed to overcome the problems encountered by the education system.

In some countries, the conduct of reforms and their introduction is carried out in a more or less systematic manner, often following a plan, which can be described in a seminar/workshop.

The existence of such a plan can only make it easier to describe. Nevertheless, with or without such a structure, it will be necessary to concentrate on or emphasize the following points:

I. The main lines of the reform, by giving:

1. A brief description of the basic characteristics of the present reform:
 - its assumptions;
 - its objectives;
 - the reasons for it (in relation to preceding reforms or the prior situation);
 - those involved (their freedom of manoeuvre; in other words, their relationship with the central, local, municipal, departmental or regional governments).
2. A short analysis of the text of the current reform, particularly concerning its objectives:
 - Identifying:
 - its structure (the structures introduced or foreseen by the text and forming part of the reform);
 - the teaching language(s);
 - the curriculum (the teaching programmes described or foreseen by the text and supporting the reform);
 - the publications to be produced (creating them, printing them, etc.).
 - Stressing:
 - the strengths and weaknesses of the reform text;
 - the difficulties encountered or the problems observed during its implementation.
 - Indicating:
 - the strategies and methods adopted to implement the text or to overcome the problems encountered;
 - the measures adopted or the concrete actions taken or foreseen in the text to improve, modify or correct its shortcomings, or to overcome the problems encountered or the failures that have occurred;
 - the measures adopted or the actions taken to support or promote its strong points.
3. A short analysis of the text of the current reform concerning:
 - the local situation and the needs of the people;
 - any reflection of the major trends taking place on a global level;
 - the challenges resulting from these trends.
 - The comparison of the measures foreseen in the reform with the actual situation on the ground, asking, for example:
 - if these measures were of a “managerial” nature, in other words, were they directed by the concept of “modernization” or of leading the population towards a better social and economic reality, but without paying much attention to their actual requirements; or
 - on the contrary, were these measures specifically designed to satisfy the people’s actual expectations and requirements, in other words, did they attempt to reflect the socio-cultural environment of the people and provide them with the material and intellectual means enabling them to master their own destiny;
 - In examining the extent to which the text of the reform took into account the new world situation, the challenges it poses and the values to be taught to confront them.

II. The linkages between curriculum reform and curriculum development

This involves making a short presentation of the curriculum development process compared to the objectives laid down in the official texts on education. Your answers might attempt to respond to the following questions:

- What are the objectives of the basic State texts devoted to education?
- To what extent do the curriculum and the textbooks prepared enable these objectives to be reached? What are the problems?
- What teaching methods are employed? Is it teaching by objectives? By competence? Active? Co-operative? Differentiated? Intercultural? Pupil-centred? Etc.
- What outcomes are expected to be reached by the teaching methods employed?

- What methods and strategies have been introduced to develop the curricula?
- What organizational method has been foreseen for learning?
 - Is it the traditional method using the principle of isomorphism in which teaching reflects each discipline?
 - Or does it adopt an interdisciplinary approach?
- How much attention is devoted to the interdisciplinary approach in each subject?

These are a few guidelines that may serve in the preparation of your contribution. These are only proposals to be modified as you see fit.

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