

**Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations  
(FAO)  
Sustainable Development Department**

# **Education for Rural People**

## **Aid Agencies Workshop**

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## Preface

The workshop that we report here was one of the first activities of the newest of the Education for All (EFA) flagship initiatives. This flagship, focusing on “Education For Rural People” (ERP), was launched by the Directors General of FAO and UNESCO in September 2002, during the World Summit on Sustainable Development, in Johannesburg, South Africa, to help achieve the goals of EFA and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG)<sup>1</sup>.

The event is also a follow up to discussions that began at the World Bank in Washington in December 1999, during a workshop addressing the need to shift from “agriculture education” to “education for rural development”. It was a meeting of a group of bilateral and multilateral agencies, which were anxious to see some action on ending, or at least drastically reducing, the disadvantages, which rural people, and especially the rural poor, chronically suffer. The participants recognised that, despite several decades of experience in educational programmes for rural people, there was still a need for a special and concerted effort to draw together into accessible forms the many insights that those experiences had generated. Even more important, of course, was the need to make sure that the people, who should use the insights -- policy makers, people who influence the allocation of financial and human resources, programme designers-- actually knew about them and could access them.

FAO has entrusted the ERP flagship to its Sustainable Development Department and in particular the Extension, Education and Communication Service. We have the mission to mobilize the partners, without whom the flagship cannot sail, and with them to support action for more and better education programmes for disadvantaged rural women, men, girls and boys. Our most important partners are of course the governments of countries, where rural people are at the severest educational disadvantages. But they are also the partners most in need allies beyond their borders.

This workshop brought together some of those allies and potential partners to appraise the tasks that have to be undertaken. We are delighted and encouraged that about 30 governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations sent representatives to assist the workshop here in Rome. As the record shows, they have helped clarify how best to move forward the mission of the ERP flagship.

An important partner for this workshop has been the Government of Italy through its Ministry of Foreign Affairs and General Directorate for Development Cooperation. It has borne the major portion of the costs. We were very pleased to welcome Mr. Raffaele de Benedictis from the Ministry, who underlined Italy’s commitment to reducing poverty in the world and supporting the education necessary for the purpose, especially in regard to rural people.

We are grateful to our colleagues in the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and in UNESCO’s Division of Basic Education, who not only helped us organize the workshop but also contributed so substantially to the

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<sup>1</sup> [The eight Millennium Development Goals are broadly: 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. 2. Achieve Universal Primary Education. 3. Promote gender equality. 4. Reduce child mortality. 5. Improve maternal health. 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. 7. Ensure environmental sustainability. 8. Global Partnership for Development. Each goal has time-bound targets attached.](#)

discussions. We look forward to continuous close collaboration with them, as we press forward to fulfil the mission of the flagship.

Ester Zulberti  
Chief  
Extension, Education and Communication Service  
Sustainable Development Department  
Food and Agricultural Organization

## Abbreviations

ACCU	Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO, Tokyo
ADB	Asian Development Bank
EFA	Education for All
ERP	Education for Rural People
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
MANGO	Map-based Analysis for Non-formal Education Goals and Outcomes
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Support Programme
SDRE	Extension, Education and Communication Service, Sustainable Development Department , FAO
SWAp	Sector Wide Approaches
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
<b>UPC</b>	<b>Universal Primary Completion (MDG for 2015)</b>

## Summary

### **Purpose of the Flagship “Education for Rural People” (ERP)**

Within the framework of the drive for Education For All, the flagship programme “Education for Rural People” (ERP) will advocate due priority and resources for the educational interests of the girls, boys, women and men who live in rural communities. Within the communities, the ERP flagship will advocate due attention to educational opportunities for the poor, for females and for minority ethnic and vulnerable social groups, such as HIV/AIDS orphans.

### **Purposes of the Aid Agencies Workshop**

The Aid Agencies Workshop convened 30 voluntary, bilateral and multilateral international agencies. It aimed to generate ideas and support to make the ERP flagship an effective instrument in promoting education and development for rural people. It also aimed to enable the agencies to inform each other more fully on the current status of their policies, financing, programmes, practices and outcomes.

### **Issues Covered**

#### *The Challenges Outstanding*

Despite decades of effort to improve education and development for rural people, especially the poor, the broad picture remains as follows.

First, some three billion people live in rural communities, mainly in countries with low per capita incomes and high rates of poverty. Most make their small incomes from small-scale agriculture and forms of self-employment, and many need the assistance of their children in sustaining their households.

Second, nearly a billion people --two-thirds of them women and most rural-- are unschooled and unable to access information for development. In several countries, rural illiteracy rates are two to three times higher than urban rates.

Third, 130 million children are not in school. Most are rural.

Fourth, dropout rates from rural primary schools remain unacceptably high. Large proportions of dropouts have not mastered basic skills sufficiently for daily use and further development.

Fifth, 211 million children and adolescents are in forms of child labour that will lead to large proportions of them becoming illiterate adults.

The EFA Global Monitoring Report of 2002 points out that fully 28 countries are at serious risk of not achieving the educational goals agreed at Dakar Forum by the dates set. In short, hundreds of millions of rural people are unable to access their right to education. From the point of view of resource-poor governments, they represent the frustration of investments in efforts to develop human capital for all forms of development. Education then is not only a human right, it is also a social necessity.

The main challenge facing EFA is strengthening the capacities of the countries with the most needs and least resources. The interest, commitment and energy of these governments and societies in formulating credible plans for EFA will be crucial for

mobilising the support of the international community. New plans will need to generate joint ownership by both governments and donors, while flagships such as ERP will need to make sure that their initiatives retain the confidence and support of both the governments and the donors.

### *Education in Poverty Reduction and Rural Development*

A new FAO/IIEP study, “Education for Rural Development: Towards New Policy Responses”, reviews the current relationship between education, rural development and the reduction of poverty. It concludes that, for rural development, a more holistic and comprehensive approach is needed than has been achieved through strategies of ‘integrated rural development’ and their like. A parallel approach is needed for education for rural people, which has too often been equated with agricultural education.

In regard to elementary schooling<sup>2</sup>, the study identified sixteen factors that persist in hindering progress towards EFA. Seven of these factors lie on the supply or access side, four on the demand side, while the remaining five concern the quality of education. Although these factors are clearly identified, many countries have still not dealt with them adequately. Nevertheless, the study also documents ranges of measures to counter them<sup>3</sup>.

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<sup>2</sup> Elementary education includes five or six years of primary schooling, followed by up to three years of middle school, lower secondary or some equivalent.

### <sup>3</sup> **Measures suggested for Increasing access:**

expanding and improving:

- school network (infrastructure)
- school feeding programmes
- non formal education (e.g. adult literacy, extension etc)
- alternative delivery systems including distance education
- early childhood development programs
- girls’ enrollment (by increasing female teachers, scholarships, etc)

targeting specific groups such as:

- Working children
- Remote populations (e.g. mountain areas, small islands)
- Nomadic populations
- Refugees and internally displaced people
- Disabled people
- Marginalized groups

### **Measures suggested for Improving quality:**

improving:

- Teacher training and incentives
- Active teaching and learning techniques
- Curriculum relevance, valuing also local knowledge and experience and addressing local needs (including in agriculture, nutrition, health and other basic skills)
- Teaching/learning materials
- Community involvement in participatory school governance/management
- Information and communication technologies (especially radio)
- Mother tongue as language of instruction
- Accurate assessment of learning outcomes (knowledge, skills attitudes and values)



For adolescents, the study suggests closer attention to the kinds of skills required to cope with constantly changing rural and other labour markets. Education for rural people now needs to connote skills for diversified rural development.

The study shows that traditional vocational agricultural secondary education has not adjusted to rural development needs, so that reforms will be required. It discusses several possibilities.

Much tertiary or higher education has also failed to adjust to new needs in rural development. However, some institutions do now include areas like natural resources management and rural development with off-farm employment, and enable their graduates and others to keep abreast of advances.

The study suggests that among the conditions for a successful regeneration of agricultural higher education are needs to address the issues within the framework of a comprehensive higher education policy, to offer incentives for institutions to assume leadership in the change process, and to establish a range of interfaces between the demand for rural development specialists and their supply. The institutions also need to diversify their funding and generate their own incomes.

#### *Intervention Frameworks and Mechanisms*

The first requirement for the flagship is to identify precisely where it fits into the many current international initiatives. The second requirement is that it should take full note of the history of efforts to make educational programmes in both schools and other arenas relevant for rural children, adolescents and adults. However, the fact that very few current education plans focus specifically on rural people indicates that the flagship will need to be proactive in demanding attention to the issues.

The flagship's strength should be advocacy, developed through two main capacities: [1] monitoring trends and plans and [2] convening appropriate forums to keep issues of education for rural people before policy makers, practitioners and general public. The flagship should use the processes of the Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSP) and Sector Wide Approaches (SWAp) to press for the proper representation of rural people.

#### *Monitoring mechanisms and indicators*

The kind of information required to steer a strategy for education for rural development is not readily available or easily generated in most countries that need one. A fresh effort to generate it uses three foundation concepts: "basic education", indicating actual programmes; "basic learning needs" or necessary content; and "education for rural people" envisaging a broad educational approach in the perspective of enhancing rural development and reducing rural poverty. The analytical scheme adopted examines each component from six perspectives: [1] supply of educational opportunity, [2] actual access to opportunity by population groups, [3] demand expressed through enrolments, [4] quality as embodied in curriculum content and instructional materials, [5] quality as exhibited through attendance, completion and graduation rates, and [6] institutional capacity at every level and component of the education support system. In addition, each indicator systematically compares national and rural ratios and provisions.

While this approach addresses the schools, a prototype methodology aims to monitor and evaluate the non-formal educational activities that occur in rural communities across several development sectors. The methodology --MANGO, Map-based Analysis of Non-formal Education Goals and Outcomes-- combines a participatory community-based approach with quantitative statistics. Early indications from the test sites suggest that, when local people understand the data and their usefulness, they will exert themselves to help collect them. A further point is such local databases facilitate linking educational development more completely with the wider spectrum of local rural development.

Two of the Millennium Development Goals for primary education are gender parity by 2005 and universal primary completion (UPC) by 2015. The completion ratio, distinct from the gross and net enrolment ratios, implies a recognition that only completing the full primary course can ensure that young people have equipped themselves with enough skills to function fully as citizens. Maintaining a special focus on rural people is an essential ingredient of UPC, for most of the progress needs to be made with very poor rural families. Countries now have the data that could generate the required current information, but very few of them have the capacity to capitalise on this potential for better management, planning and reform. Management Information Systems need to be strengthened, along with a streamlining of indicators and the data required to generate them. However, any streamlining should take care to include indicators not only of inputs and outcomes, but also of process, to enable the monitoring of political changes and reforms.

Within a given country, data would be needed to measure how specific areas or population groups were faring in regard to specific objectives. It should also be possible for local people to see how their own localities were doing. That would of course entail developing local databases and nurturing local capabilities to interpret them, along the lines of MANGO.

#### *Coordination for Effective Aid Policies and Practices*

Coordination between development agencies is acknowledged to be particularly important for rural development, which is multi-sectoral in nature but depends on a mono-sectoral division of labour almost everywhere. Effective coordination requires a sense of partnership plus the support of networks. Clearly, too, the scope of coordination, partnership and networking needs to be widely cast to include not only donors and governments, but also all the many levels of stakeholders from central ministries through the leaderships of local communities to the prospective beneficiaries themselves. Also, potential partners that are often overlooked are local NGOs, the academic community and the private sector.

In the light of these challenges, the ERP flagship should be a light mechanism of advocacy and coordination, shake itself free from bureaucratic constraints and dare to behave as a pioneering, activist, lobbying mechanism.

#### *Summary of Concrete Measures*

The discussions produced a number of guiding points for FAO and the IIEP/UNESCO to follow in setting the direction for the ERP flagship and getting it off the ground as an effective advocate.

1. On the international level, the ERP flagship should foster partnerships, networks and coordination. In this connection, the universal compartmentalization of specialist ministries, departments and agencies at all levels militates against holistic approaches to education and to rural development. The flagship could explore tools of institutional reform to promote communication and synergy between agencies. It could also prompt its partners to assess the extent to which their internal patterns of incentives for career advancement promote an orientation to partnerships, networks and coordination. It should also be on the lookout for exemplary initiatives in partnerships and use them to develop guidelines on how governments might incorporate partnerships for education for rural people --and particularly vulnerable rural groups like HIV/AIDS orphans--into their plans for EFA.
2. The flagship should use the insights accumulated from past and current efforts at education for rural people to develop guidelines on effective strategies in a range of cultural, political and ecological contexts. Such guidelines may be particularly useful for FAO and UNESCO regional offices.
3. It should also help to develop specific guidance on indicators of progress and the options for simple but reliable monitoring mechanisms.
4. The flagship should compile a “service package” of knowledge, tools, concepts and specialists to serve not only ministries of education, but also all the sectoral development agencies, which need rural people to undertake some systematic learning.
5. The flagship should develop guidelines for assessing the costs of ensuring educational opportunities for rural groups in differing circumstances.
6. The flagship should monitor the priority really assigned by governments and other national and international agencies to the education and development of rural people and undertake appropriate advocacy.
7. Because of the likely demand for its services, the flagship should prioritise countries in terms of the educational needs of their rural peoples.
8. It should identify and target specific influential clientele within those countries and use all available media --e.g. the World Bank’s network of videoconference facilities in its country offices-- to acquaint them with the insights accumulated from worldwide experiences in education for rural people and rural development.
9. At country level, the ERP flagship should monitor the provision for different rural groups in plans for meeting both EFA and the MDG. The analysis of plans should enable the flagship to identify missing elements and advocate their inclusion.

*Next Meeting*

The next meeting of the ERP flagship should follow the completion of the suggested service package. It should involve both user governments and aid agencies.

## Introductory Notes

The workshop, which this document reports, aimed mainly to pave the way for a wider and stronger set of international partners to promote education for rural people. Its format then had three parts: [1] information about a partnership initiative by UNESCO and FAO, [2] information from participating organizations about their current efforts in education for rural people and [3] discussions on three sets of issues affecting the joint initiative. While the three parts took place in the order given above, this report attempts to facilitate reading by presenting first the information from FAO and UNESCO to set the stage, then moving to the discussions of the three sets of issues and finally describing the work of the participating organizations.

The following notes aim to clarify a few points that may not be familiar to some readers.

### *What are Flagships in “Education For All”?*

Originally, a flagship was a ship of war, which flew the flag of the commander of either a large fleet or a smaller squadron with a specific mission. “Education For All”, under the leadership of UNESCO, is the great flagship for the war against the constraints that still bar a billion human beings from taking up their rights to an adequate education. Sharing the tasks of “Education For All” (EFA) are a number of specialized flagships. Each carries the flag of a specific concern within the range of educational priorities. It aims to sustain attention for that concern through ensuring that all stakeholders across the world have the best information on good policies, good practices and the necessary supporting conditions, as well as the means to evaluate what is most appropriate for particular groups of people in particular circumstances at particular moments in time.

Currently, nine specialized flagships have been launched: Early Childhood Development; Literacy; Girls’ Education; Education in Emergency Situations; School Health; HIV/AIDS; Teachers and the Quality of Education; Education and Disability; Education for Rural People.

The reasons, leadership and scope of the last flagship in the list, “Education for Rural People” (ERP), are discussed in this report.

### *Why organize a Workshop for Aid Agencies only?*

The chief and heaviest responsibility for achieving education for all lies with the governments of the world. For that very reason, the first event for the new flagship was a regional workshop with nine governments in Asia<sup>4</sup>. However, many governments and especially those furthest from achieving education for all rely on numbers of external agencies to assist them in the task. UNESCO is of course the prime agency, but the list of other agencies, bilateral, multilateral, non-governmental and private is long indeed: the list of participants in this workshop provides an

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<sup>4</sup> “*Education for Rural Development*”, Bangkok, Thailand, 5 - 7 November 2002, jointly organized by FAO, UNESCO and IIEP. The workshop brought together ministries of education and of agriculture.

excellent example (see Annex 1). One of the problems that governments encounter, when dealing with this range of helpers, is that different helpers sometimes advocate different approaches to dealing with particular issues and these differences can be more hindrance than help.

Efforts are needed then to bring all the agencies concerned to a common and shared treasury of information, a common understanding and agreement on the kinds of help that would be most useful to particular governments and peoples for particular purposes at particular times. The workshop under report is a step towards forming this common ground among international agencies focused on education for rural people.

## Setting The Stage

The workshop opened with three presentations elaborating the reasons for mounting a special effort in the interests of education for rural people. This chapter summarizes the facts underlying the need, the reason why FAO is leading the flagship and the priorities that the flagship should serve.

### *The Need*

The two welcome addresses by Ms. Sissel Ekaas<sup>5</sup> and Mr. Gudmund Hernes<sup>6</sup> sketched two situations in education for rural children. One exists currently in northern Mozambique on the shores of Lake Nyasa, the other happened in Mid-Norway in the mid-twentieth century. In Mozambique, extreme deprivation reigned: the village was poor, living mainly on subsistence agriculture and fishing, with just one shop, which stocked neither soap, salt, sugar nor even matches. Its primary school had only one teacher, who had himself completed just four grades of primary school and was trying to conduct a multi-grade school with no books or other teaching materials. His pupils chanted drills after him and practised writing in the sand. As most of the adult community were themselves unschooled, there seemed to be no interaction between the daily life of the village and what went on in the school.

In Mid-Norway, the primary school was also in a fairly isolated agricultural and forestry community. It, too, was multi-grade and met only every other day. But its teacher was well qualified and its pupils were well equipped with reading and writing materials. In addition, they had a range of practical activities -gardening, carpentry, sewing, knitting- that required them to put their reading, writing, counting and measuring skills to work. From time to time, the school was closed, not for holidays, but to release its pupils to work with and under the guidance of their parents and other adults in the fields. There was much learning by doing and much interaction between the daily life of the village and the routines of the school.

The two schools illustrate what basic education for rural children too often still is and what it could be, if only the right policies, resources and community support were in place and properly applied.

However, the fact is that in too many countries the right policies, resources and community support are not yet in place. For decades, governments have recognized that, although rural people form the majority of their population, they and their children get a rough deal, when it comes to educational opportunities and provision. Despite this recognition, the broad picture remains as follows.

First, just over half of the world's population remain rural and, despite strong trends of urbanization, will remain rural for at least three more decades. These three billion or so people are to be found mainly in the less industrialized countries of the world, that is to say in countries with relatively low per capita incomes and high rates of poverty and malnutrition<sup>7</sup>. Most of these people make their small incomes from small-

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<sup>5</sup> Director of the Sustainable Development Department, FAO (see Annex 4)

<sup>6</sup> Director of the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), UNESCO (see Annex 5)

<sup>7</sup> See Annex 6 for some statistics presented by Ms. Lavinia Gasperini

scale agriculture and forms of casual, family or self-employment, and many need the assistance of their children in sustaining their households.

Second, nearly a billion people -two-thirds of them women- are reckoned to be unschooled, illiterate and unable to access the information that could help transform their lives and the lives of their children. Most of them live in rural communities. Most have no opportunity even for adult basic education. Not surprisingly, the gap between rural and urban illiteracy rates is widening, so that in several countries illiteracy in rural populations is two to three times higher than in the urban centres.

Third, 130 million school-age children are reckoned not to be in school, partly because there are no schools available, partly because those that are available are badly run, partly because their families cannot afford the costs, partly because they need their children's labour to keep the family going, and partly because some families cannot see what use schooling will be to their children. Most of these children are in rural families.

Fourth, dropout rates from the rural primary schools of many countries are still high - indeed, in some countries most of the children have dropped out by the age when they should have started in the fifth grade. High proportions of them will not have mastered the skills of reading, writing and counting sufficiently to retain and use them for a lifetime.

Fifth, 211 million children and adolescents need to earn money by working on cocoa, tobacco, banana or other plantations, which are all rural undertakings. However, unlike the pupils in Norway, their doing is not combined or alternated with learning. On the contrary, many are forced to work at mind-numbing tasks for more than 12 hours per day in conditions bordering on slavery. No educational opportunities are organized for them either at work or afterwards. Large proportions of these young people will join the ranks of the next generation of illiterate adults.

These facts signal that hundreds of millions of rural people are unable to access one of their fundamental human rights, the right to education. From the point of view of resource-poor governments, they also signal the frustration of investments. For a main reason for spending public money on schools and educational programmes is to invest in human capital that will promote and accelerate the economic, social, cultural and political development of a country. People, who have not been able to gain a proper schooling, are disabled from capitalizing on the information and opportunities for improving their standards of living. Education then is not only a human right, it is also a social necessity.

Listing these current facts does not detract from the educational achievements of the past half century. Since the declaration of the right to free, universal and compulsory education, the numbers of children who enter primary school every year have been tripled, the numbers entering secondary school have increased tenfold, while the numbers who enter higher education have grown by an even greater factor. Rural populations have certainly benefited from these efforts. But the list above does underline that the tasks remaining are formidable. As the Education For All forums at Jomtien and Dakar have made all too clear, these tasks demand renewed, stronger and persevering efforts, if the goals of universal primary education and virtually universal



adult literacy are to be attained. In addition, the EFA Global Monitoring Report of 2002 has heightened the urgency by pointing out that fully 28 countries are at serious risk of not achieving either the required net enrolments, levels of adult literacy or gender parity by the dates agreed at Dakar. Further, as the efforts to serve rural people have so far fallen short of what is needed, a special focus or ‘flagship’ must strive to ensure that rural boys, girls, adolescents and adult men and women secure their due place in development and education plans.

#### *FAO and the flagship “Education For Rural People”*

FAO is the United Nations agency most concerned with rural people -its very name suggests that. Promoting better agriculture, better food security, better nutrition and better natural resources and environmental management requires not only promoting all the necessary supporting institutions and infrastructure, but also -and perhaps even more so- organizing appropriate education for all the people involved. FAO has engaged in educating boys and girls through school gardens and men and women through cooperatives, farmers’ field schools and broader extension programmes. It has also long cooperated with UNESCO and IFAD in promoting functional literacy for agricultural and other rural groups. FAO is then a natural partner for UNESCO in leading a flagship to sustain the interests of rural people at all levels of education for the entire age range in human society. An additional point is that this kind of partnership between ‘education’ and ‘agriculture’ serves to promote holistic thinking and interdisciplinary exchange and to mitigate the all too frequent tendencies to compartmentalization. The Directors-General of UNESCO and FAO<sup>8</sup> recognized this, when they jointly launched the ninth flagship in the EFA initiative, “Education for Rural People”, during the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in September 2002.

Within two months of the launch, 22 organizations, governmental, non-governmental and international, had pledged themselves to work with FAO and UNESCO in pushing forward the programmes of the flagship.

This workshop is already the third initiative of the flagship. The first was a regional workshop for policy makers in agriculture and education from nine Asian governments. The second is a book, “*Education for Rural Development: towards new policy responses*”, which is the outcome of a set of studies and will be published shortly. The next chapter offers a summary of its content. Both initiatives were joint efforts of FAO, UNESCO and its IIEP.

#### *Next Steps*

The Director-General of FAO has emphasized four priorities for the new flagship<sup>9</sup>.

The first is to ensure that **national plans for EFA have the education of rural people at their core and that institutional capacities to plan and manage effectively are strengthened.**

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<sup>8</sup> Respectively, Messrs. Matsuura and Diouf

<sup>9</sup> Director-General’s speech at the launching of the FAO/UNESCO Flagship Programme on “Education for Rural People” (September 2002) - [http://www.fao.org/sd/2002/kn0904\\_en.htm](http://www.fao.org/sd/2002/kn0904_en.htm)

The second is to **promote and support initiatives both to expand rural people's access to education and to increase their attendance and completion rates** through enhanced quality and ranges of measures appropriate to particular communities.

The third is to **improve the relevance of educational programmes to rural interests and livelihoods** in ways that both enable people to understand the immediate usefulness of what is to be learned and simultaneously keep open the avenues to other forms of advancement.

The fourth priority is for international aid agencies to work together and **forge closer and more effective partnerships** with national authorities and other bodies in enabling rural people to obtain the kinds of education that will improve their lives.

To implement these priorities, the partners in the flagship will operate at two levels, national and international. At the national level, they will offer governments and other bodies technical support in addressing rural people to ascertain their educational needs and aspirations. They will also offer help in drawing up appropriate sub-plans of action within overall plans to achieve EFA. Work is already under way in several countries: Bosnia, Croatia, Egypt, Kosovo and Serbia.

At the international level, the flagship will undertake advocacy for ERP through convening workshops, seminars, conferences and Internet forums to analyse and clarify the issues and to keep members abreast of progress and obstacles. It will also promote and facilitate the exchange of good practices through all the available media. Further, the flagship will be alert to identify existing capacity and the emergence of new capacity for different components of ERP within partner institutions, and will work to make it available to countries that need it.

### *Discussion*

Concern was voiced that the concept of flagships seemed to parallel initiatives that several governments had already set in train. Given the international support for the flagships, would they not risk overshadowing such initiatives, marginalizing a government's own overall strategies and jeopardizing a government's ownership of any effort under the flagship? Second, the flagship involved a broad range of activities. Undertaking them could well be within the capacity of participating international organizations and of most governments and their societies. However, they may well be beyond the capacity of the countries most in need of them. How would an initiative like the ERP flagship focus on the most needy?

Offsetting the first concern was the fact that the 180 governments that had set the Millennium Development Goals<sup>10</sup> had themselves established the parallel structures with specially focused functions, like flagships, to help ensure the achievement of the goals. UNESCO, which the governments had invited to take up, on their behalf, general leadership in Education For All, was aware of the risks and would be careful to avoid either parallel plans of action or displacing action already in train.

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<sup>10</sup> The eight Millennium Development Goals are broadly: 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger. 2. Achieve Universal Primary Education. 3. Promote gender equality. 4. Reduce child mortality. 5. Improve maternal health. 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. 7. Ensure environmental sustainability. 8. Global Partnership for Development. Each goal has time-bound targets attached.

Supplementing and strengthening the capacities of the countries with the most needs and least resources are indeed the most strenuous challenges facing EFA in general and will certainly tax the creativity and resourcefulness of the flagships in particular. However, much will depend on the interests, commitment and energy of the governments and societies of the neediest countries themselves. If they do exert themselves to formulate credible plans for EFA for their peoples, the flagships and the international community as a whole are committed to making sure that they do not lack the resources required.

The issue of 'ownership' in initiatives and plans for EFA has two sides. Many countries possess the capacity to undertake the broad range of activities that one or several flagship initiatives could involve and would need little outside help to do so. However, for those countries, which would need substantial international help to make decent progress towards EFA, 'ownership' needs to be felt both by them and by the donors assisting them. The erosion in the funds available for international cooperation had its source in a record of non-return to investments in development cooperation. Initiatives and plans needed then to generate joint ownership by both governments and donors. At the same time, the international organizations leading the flagships --in this case, FAO and UNESCO-- need to make sure that their initiatives retain the confidence and support of both the governments and the donors.

## Education in Poverty Reduction and Rural Development

Prior to the formation of the ERP flagship, FAO and UNESCO/IIEP launched a broad international study reviewing the current relationship between education, rural development and the reduction of poverty<sup>11</sup>. Concern with countering the endemic disadvantages that beset educational programmes for rural people has a long history. So has concern with countering the disadvantages that beset and continue to beset rural people in matters of the quality of life: safe water supplies, infant mortality, life expectancy, health services, communications and the like. Alongside has been the concern with raising the incomes and standards of living of the rural poor. These concerns have jointly generated numbers of ideas, experiments, projects and programmes to get education to support the acceleration of rural development and the reduction of poverty. The study surveyed the state of the art in addressing these concerns. It pursued a number of themes and buttressed them with country and institution cases. It has thus helped to bring knowledge of the situation up to the present date. The study also revisited the concepts that link education and rural development and concludes that several shifts in thinking are required.

For rural development, an approach needs to be fashioned that is more holistic than has so far been achieved through strategies of ‘integrated rural development’, ‘district development teams’ or even ‘ministries of rural development’. The approach needs to take account of the changing patterns of national and local economies, and to encompass not only agricultural farm employment, but also ranges of off-farm employments. In addition, social, cultural and political factors, such as the relationships between community groups, have to enter the calculations for planning.

A parallel approach is needed in considering education. Education for rural people has too often been equated with agricultural education, while the primary, secondary and tertiary stages of the schools tend to be treated as separate and independent entities, rather than as a true system, in which one component supports another rather than causes it to malfunction. There also needs to be a recovery of the concept of education as a means for human development and a lessening of the emphasis on education simply as a tool to develop human capital.

In regard to elementary schooling<sup>12</sup>, the study identified sixteen factors that persist in constraining the education of younger rural children and thus hindering progress towards EFA at the very basic level. Seven of these factors lie on the supply or access side: insufficient numbers of elementary schools, entailing excessive distances for many children; a lack of boarding facilities; incomplete schools; lack of teachers; lack of flexibility in delivery mechanisms; a variety of administrative obstacles; policies privileging schools for urban populations. A further four factors lie on the demand or take-up side: the direct costs of schooling; the opportunity costs of children’s labour; gender discrimination; irregular attendance, leading to repetition, dropout and low completion rates. The final five factors have to do with the quality of education: infrastructure inadequate to support learning; non-availability and inadequacy of teaching and learning tools; unsuitable curricula; language of instruction; absenteeism

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<sup>11</sup> Ms. Lavinia Gasperini (FAO) and Mr. David Atchoarena (IIEP) presented the findings of the study (see Annex 7, “Education for Rural Development: Towards new policy responses”).

<sup>12</sup> Elementary education includes five or six years of primary schooling, followed by up to three years of middle school, lower secondary or some equivalent.

and high turnover among teachers. Although these factors are clearly identified, many countries have still not dealt with them adequately, so that they remain obstacles to EFA.

Nevertheless, the study also documents how many countries have developed ranges of measures to counter and mitigate these factors<sup>13</sup>. Expanding access, encouraging and supporting enrolments and enhancing quality in schooling and basic education have all been addressed in various ways. Experience with each of these measures can of course point the way to improvements and the scope for adaptation to other circumstances and other countries.

When the study moves from elementary education for younger children to examining the education of adolescents for their own as well as rural development, it suggests that closer attention will be necessary to the kinds of skills required to cope with rural and other labour markets in a process of constant transformation. As most rural adolescents may still aspire to salaried employment, second-stage education for rural people must not be perceived as an obstacle to or a diversion from it. The challenge is ensure that young rural people graduate equipped equally to take up a salaried job, or to develop some form of self or family employment that will yield them an adequate living. Non-farm employment has been expanding steadily -in South Asia some 30 to 40 per cent of the income of rural households is earned off the farm- and the forms of such employment are diversifying. Further, education itself influences the kinds of employment strategies that young people adopt. Rural households with more education tend to generate larger proportions of their incomes off the farm. In short, whereas education for rural people once connoted education for agriculture, it now needs to connote skills for diversified rural development.

The study shows that traditional vocational agricultural education at the secondary level of schooling has not adjusted with the changing times and with rural development needs. Quite apart from persistent poor quality, it has focused excessively on fitting its graduates for public sector -i.e. salaried- jobs and for farm employment. It has either not noticed or neglected the emergence of needs and demands for skills in new areas such as environment and natural resources management, biotechnology, agribusiness and other issues related to enhancing rural livelihoods such as population growth, health, HIV/AIDS and others.

The apparent implications of the study are that several reforms will be required of traditional agricultural education at the secondary level, if it is to contribute to rural development. Possible avenues are to strengthen linkages between the schools and rural employers, who are looking for a range of skills in and beyond agriculture. Partnership in governance, adoption and expansion of dual forms of training, through work-based training or work-experience programmes, community-based programmes in the broader context of poverty reduction strategies, more autonomy for institutions to respond to changes in local demand are all options that need to be explored. Possibly, too, new forms of financing will need to be devised, both to ensure adequate support for programmes to be effective and sustainable, and from the standpoint of equity, to enable resources to be directed towards groups otherwise unable to utilise the education on offer.

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<sup>13</sup> See slides 9 - 11 of Annex 7 for a list of well known examples.

What is true for the secondary level is generally true also for tertiary or higher education. In many countries, most courses are still in agriculture, rather than in rural or environmental management and development. Curricula are often outdated, denoting weak relationships with the labour market and leading to high rates of unemployment among graduates with agricultural diplomas and degrees. At the same time, support from governments and external donors has been decreasing, which has led to declines in quality. Further, agricultural colleges tend to be isolated from the rest of the higher education sector and to suffer from fragmented patterns of management. The combination of these weaknesses has meant that agricultural colleges are finding it harder to compete with the rest of the higher education sector for high quality faculty and students.

Counterbalancing these generally negative trends are institutions, which are expanding their focus to include areas like natural resources management and rural development with off-farm employment. They are also broadening their range to include not only pre-employment training but also patterns of lifelong learning to enable their graduates and others to keep abreast of advances in science, technology, land management, environmental management and business management.

The study suggests that among the conditions for a successful regeneration of agricultural higher education are needs to address the issues within the framework of a comprehensive higher education policy, to offer incentives for institutions to assume leadership in the change process, and to establish and sustain a range of interfaces between the demand for rural development specialists and their supply. Existing institutions will need to accept expanded missions, which will involve their commitment to their local communities as well as to rural in addition to agricultural development. They will need not only to update and reform their curricula, but also to adopt new ways and newly available media for delivering them, possibly in partnership with employers. They will need, too, to take into account the likely impacts of globalisation on patterns of production and on labour markets: for this they will need to cultivate international linkages much more actively than seems to be the case at present. Finally, they will likely need to diversify their sources of funding, possibly through outreach activities that will generate income.

In sum, the study issues these messages for education systems:

- For basic education for both children and adults, doing more of the same is not enough. More efforts have to be made to take account of the specific conditions of particular rural populations, so as to expand access, promote take up and raise quality and effectiveness.
- For the secondary stages of schooling and adult vocational training, there has to be a more thorough spread of effort from agricultural education to skills for the many dimensions of rural development.
- For the tertiary or higher stages of education and training, reorientation, restructuring and reform are needed to reverse the marginalisation of existing institutions.

If these are the messages for education systems, what messages should an initiative like the ERP flagship read? By its very composition, the flagship would have to address the question on two levels, the international and the national.

From an international perspective, the flagship would need to draw attention to changing patterns of production, processing and marketing, their impact on different rural populations and labour markets and the implications for education programmes for adults and children. The decline in international support for agriculture and rural development in non-OECD countries and its impact on the rural poor, who form large proportions of their populations, also constitute a major contextual factor and an additional challenge to meet their educational needs.

Investigating these factors would likely enable the flagship to bring to the attention of OECD donor countries opportunities to use current Poverty Reduction Support Programmes (PRSP) and Sector Wide Approaches (SWAp) to address rural development and education issues holistically<sup>14</sup>. Given the pressures competing for the attention of donor governments, partners in the flagship may well have to adopt energetic measures of advocacy to have these insights incorporated into the policies and practices of international cooperation.

Advocacy and lobbying may also be necessary at the national level of governments that need to promote rural development and education for poor rural people. The study signals that the ERP flagship should put the weight of its efforts into making the staff of ministries of education much more aware of and sensitive to the concerns of education for rural development within the drive for education for all<sup>15</sup>. It should strive to ensure that national plans for EFA include a special focus on serving rural children and adults. This could well necessitate identifying and raising awareness of urban bias in plans and allocations of expenditures, and, in some cases, pressing for the bias to be addressed.

In addition to sharpening sensitivity, the flagship should emphatically support efforts to build the capacities of ministry staff from the centre down to the smallest school district to plan and actually to implement measures appropriate for education in particular rural localities and communities. This would of course involve promoting better analyses of contexts and needs, in place of relying on a single pattern to satisfy all possible situations. Decentralization is clearly implied, but decentralization without sufficient appropriate capacity would likely fail.

Sustaining such dialogue and support for governments and other country bodies, would involve the ERP flagship in another effort at the international level. It would need to mobilize a substantial set of qualified partners, whose technical expertise can be put at the service of the countries that need it. Using the worldwide web and other media would enable the flagship to sustain forums to exchange evolving information and analyse emerging strategies and policies.

### *Discussion*

The discussion in response to the presentation of the study made a number of points. These are recorded in the following thematic order: the scope of the ERP flagship, rural development and agriculture, the content of education, factors in access to and take up of educational opportunities, priorities within education, implementing the

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<sup>14</sup> Strictly speaking, rural populations and areas are not a 'sector' in the sense that education is: rather, they constitute a 'space' within which several sectors like education, health or transport are at work.

<sup>15</sup> The workshop in Bangkok in November 2002 found that the national education plans of only one of nine governments in Asia had paid specific attention to the situations of rural children and adults.

holistic approach to ERP, and finally, compartmentalization between institutions and decentralization.

The study goes beyond the concerns of EFA and reaches into issues of how to reduce poverty, how to respond to globalisation, how to adapt to the transformation of rural labour markets. EFA is one part of the more encompassing Millennium Development Goals. While the ERP flagship stresses the educational focus of EFA and starts from an educational base, it necessarily also has to incorporate the larger concerns of the MDG.

It is certainly correct to observe that rural development encompasses much more than agriculture. Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that, in most developing countries, farmers, female and male, still constitute a major proportion of the labour force. They also remain very important to the economy and food security of their societies. They therefore must have the education and training to be fully professional and able to appraise and, if appropriate, incorporate new technologies into their production. Further, poor small-scale farmers are often unable to respond to marketing opportunities or to adapt to situations of excessive production because of inadequately comprehensive professional education. This implies that, while agricultural education should indeed be broadened for both adults and children, it must certainly not be discounted or eliminated.

From another angle, it is indeed important to point to the need for education for skills for rural development. At the same time, it is equally important to bear in mind that education for rural or any other people is about more than skills: it also includes the values, attitudes, knowledge and behaviour that support preparation for a full life as parent, community member, citizen and participant in the wider culture.

Although rural development does depend on the presence of people sufficiently educated to use available and evolving information and technology, education in turn depends in two ways for its effectiveness on rural development. On the one hand, it needs development to assist it with access and take up. On the other, it needs development to produce the opportunities on which it can work.

As regards access and take up, the improvement of roads, transport and other infrastructure makes it easier for children to travel to and from school and for adults to use various kinds of learning opportunities. It also makes it easier for teachers and their families, as well as staff of other agencies to accept rural postings. Better incomes from agriculture and new employment opportunities can free families from dependence on their children's labour and enable them to utilise the schools, even to the point of meeting some of the direct costs, like texts and exercise books. They can also enable families to feed their children better, so that hunger does not diminish learning. The implication is that educational planning should take into account and build on the opportunities that are created by other forms of development.

That said, there are some factors that hinder take up that may need to be addressed by educators on their own. Examples are high failure and repetition rates that cause poor families to conclude that there is not much point in sending their children to school, or arrogant attitudes on the part of some teachers towards the poor. Less easy to deal with are the low aspirations that some very poor families have for themselves and



their children, as well as the inability of many families to provide the kinds of moral and pedagogical support that help children do well at school. These are areas where a flagship could help through identifying and disseminating the many quite long-standing efforts to mitigate such factors.

At the output end of education, so to speak, is the productivity of the investments in it. These investments, whether for children or adults, cannot become fully productive, unless the institutional and physical infrastructures generate the opportunities for utilising what has been learned. The many instances of unemployed university, secondary and primary school graduates confirm this in the case of school systems, on the one side. On the other, is the observation that adult education programmes have little effect, where economic development is stagnant. In short, rural development depends on education and education depends on rural development.

The study listed a number of needs for education for rural people, among which was the need to differentiate between different population groups. Yet resources remain scarce, which means that everything cannot be done simultaneously. Prioritisation therefore remains necessary

Although the study recommends holistic approaches to education for rural development, it acknowledges that designing them presents a difficult challenge. The study therefore urges each country to develop its own path to address ERP. The flagship will contribute by convening forums to share and study successful experiences in how such approaches might be organized. The Bangkok workshop in November 2002 brought together ministries of education and agriculture. This kind of occasion needs to be incorporated into a more thoroughly thought out framework with permanent mechanisms to help elaborate and implement holistic strategies.

Connected with this issue is the almost universal compartmentalization of ministries, departments and other agencies. For example, dialogue with ministries of education always seems to be restricted to issues and systems of general education. Enquiries about adult education, agricultural education or environmental education are usually referred elsewhere, as other departments are responsible for them. This type of organization actually militates against holistic or 'joined up' thinking.

One way that has seemed to promise both a corrective to compartmentalization and an avenue for responding to localized needs is decentralization. It has also seemed to offer a substitute for failures by over-centralized states. This is illusory, for decentralized forms of governance depend for their effective functioning and development on support from capable and strong central structures.

## **Intervention Frameworks and Mechanisms: How to focus better on basic education for rural people?**

After considering the findings of the study, the workshop took up the question of the kinds of framework that the ERP flagship should develop in approaching its task and the kinds of mechanism it should use to be effective. Three participants<sup>16</sup> formed a panel to launch the discussion.

The first requirement for the flagship is to identify precisely where it fits into the many current international initiatives. The list is long: the Dakar Framework of Action, the G8 process in 2002, the Fast Track Initiative led by the World Bank and other donors, the PRSP and SWAp frameworks, the UN System Network on Rural Development and Food Security with its 80 national thematic groups. All these initiatives need to be taken into account in delimiting the niche and modus operandi for the ERP flagship. Overlap and duplication are as always to be avoided.

The second requirement is that the flagship bear in mind that, despite the apparent neglect of education for poor rural people, the area is not virgin territory. On the contrary, as Mr. Bergmann's paper makes very clear, efforts to make educational programmes in both schools and other arenas relevant and useful for rural children, adolescents and adults have a long history and some are still current. In whichever country it works, then, the flagship should be sure that it has learned what efforts have already been made or are still in process, which have been relatively successful and why, and which have been disappointing and why.

On the other side of the coin, since almost every country can point to at least one initiative of its own in education for rural people, the facts that only one of nine governments in Asia and, as Mr. Fauliau pointed out, only two in West Africa have put a special focus on rural people, demand investigation country by country. Without that, the flagship may find its work hindered, if not undermined.

Within the guidelines derived from the considerations above, five parameters should steer the efforts of the ERP flagship. The first will be dependable long term support, because any initiative will almost inevitably require additional financial and human resources and, in the nature of rural development, a relatively long time to mature.

Second will be painstaking coordination between the governments and the donors and between the donors themselves. Given the drive for overarching PRSP and within them SWAp for each development sector, neither donors nor the flagship can logically think in terms of isolated projects. They all need to buy into not only an overall development plan for one sector, but in the case of the rural space, also into a set of harmonised plans for several sectors serving a given population. The ERP flagship would have to be willing to join such concerted activities on the basis of what its comparative advantages could contribute to the overall effort.

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<sup>16</sup> In the order of their presentations, Mr. Herbert Bergmann, Senior Education Planner, German Agency for Technical Cooperation, Mr. Christian Fauliau, Senior Economist & Agricultural and Rural Capacity Building Specialist, The World Bank and Ms. Alicia García, UN System Network on Rural Development and Food Security. See Annexes 8, 9 and 10 for their papers.

The third parameter must be an insistence on quality. Past experience has shown clearly that simply increasing the numbers of schools or enrolments is not enough. Whether programmes serve children or adults, poor quality in instruction and support lead to poor attendance, poor learning, repetition and dropout. High quality has the opposite effects and indeed helps generate stronger demand and more enrolments.

The fourth and fifth parameters are coupled: capacity building and sustainability. The drive for decentralization necessitates expanded capacities at all levels of an educational and development system, because high quality planning with remote rural communities will come to nothing, if not backed by high quality support at the central and intervening levels. All countries operate with three interacting sets of institutions, which are not equal in capacity, influence or effectiveness. The weakest in all three dimensions tend to be the rural communities themselves: articulating their development needs and the education to support them requires a range of capacities that need to be deliberately nurtured. The second set of institutions comprises the sectoral ministries and departments, while the third comprises the cross-sector ministries like finance or national planning, which tend to be the most powerful and influential, particularly in framing the PRSP and allocating finance. All three sets obviously need to work together. Enabling them to do so on a more equal footing is a major challenge of capacity building.

Without capacity building, particularly at the decentralized and community levels, the sustainability of development and educational initiatives will be put at risk.

Within such contexts and frameworks, the ERP flagship could assess, country by country, which points on the demand and supply sides of education it might help address most productively. The range of factors behind weak demand and faulty supply are well known in general terms, but their weights and particular causes differ from country to country, so that priorities and strategies for dealing with them should also vary.

The flagship might review what measures have been used to overcome the universal compartmentalization of specialist ministries, departments and agencies at central, middle and local levels; and explore whether fresh avenues could be opened. Could tools of institutional reform be fashioned to promote and reward more active communication and stronger synergy between agencies concerned with education for rural people and development? Pressing this point further are experiences with primary schools and with adult education programmes. In the Bouaké region of the Côte d'Ivoire, a group of mothers banded together to cultivate a field for profit. Their motive was to raise the money necessary for their children's schooling. To make their enterprise maximally productive --and without assistance from the school or educational authority-- they called on an agricultural trainer to help them obtain the necessary inputs and teach them the necessary skills. In adult programmes, efforts to combine literacy instruction with training in improved agriculture, small businesses and income generating activities have foundered, because they could not obtain the help of the appropriate technical staff. Could the flagship not help design measures to support educational, agricultural and off-farm business development agencies in collaborating to promote the sorts of enterprise undertaken by the women of Bouaké?

In contrast to the task of determining just how the ERP flagship should reinforce education for rural people, identifying what it should decidedly not attempt is relatively simple. In the matter of objectives, long and varied experience has demonstrated that fostering positive attitudes towards agriculture and manual labour and to reducing rural-urban migration are beyond the power of educational programmes. They are much more under the influence of the economy and its income structure. Related to this is the observation that separate systems or curricula for rural populations are usually rejected by their intended beneficiaries, simply because they appear to cut off avenues to higher status wage and salary employment, while programmes of prevocational training for primary and elementary schools do not yield the expected results.

### *Discussion*

The discussion, which followed the three presentations, ranged over a gamut of issues, from parental control of local schools and teachers to ensuring that PRSP were genuinely “country driven” and not the preserve of macroeconomists from ministries of finance or economic planning. It reflected the complex nexus of issues involved in education for rural people, as well as the numerous cultural and institutional contexts to which policies need to be adapted. The conclusion was that the ERP flagship should accord priority to a limited number of broad goals. It should in addition help to adapt strategies and measures towards those goals to specific contexts. For example, the topics usually covered by what is commonly known as “family life education” can contribute to understanding concerns about gender, equality, equity, rural-urban differences, poverty, health and nutrition, so that its promotion could be a goal of the flagship. Clearly, however, no single curriculum in the subject could satisfy the many cultures and religions around the world, while states differ in their arrangements for selecting and developing curricula. Therefore, how the flagship approached this goal would have to be careful, specific and adaptive. Alongside this, the flagship would need to approach issues like institutional reform and decentralisation with a balanced and comprehensive perspective, so as to avoid either creating new and possibly worse problems, while solving old ones, or exacerbating the disruptions that arise from pendulum swings in policy.

The flagship’s strength should be advocacy, developed through two main capacities. First would be the capacity to monitor and review trends and plans. On the one hand, the flagship could monitor factors, patterns and shifts in the demand for education among various rural communities and groups. On the other, it could review relevant plans and budgets to assess whether the educational interests of rural people were adequately served. Second would be the capacity to convene appropriate forums -- whether face-to-face, by radio, Internet, video-conference or other medium-- to keep issues of education for rural people in the consciousness of policy makers, practitioners and general public. As regards PRSP, the flagship should support efforts to ensure that rural people are properly represented in designing the programmes. As regards SWAp, the flagship should promote a holistic approach to assess the implications for the education of rural people in any given sector and possibly across more than one sector. For example, planning for the water sector might include negotiations with the food, health and education sectors on appropriate educational modules for primary, secondary and adult education.

## Monitoring Mechanisms and Indicators

The workshop discussed indicators and mechanisms for monitoring developments and progress in education for rural people. Three participants<sup>17</sup> opened the discussion with presentations, which laid out the issues and some experiences. First came the case of the initiative in Croatia, which began as recently as October 2002. The government is formulating an overall strategy for rural development and requested FAO to assist with a component for education for rural people<sup>18</sup>. In the two months since work began, it has been possible to agree an approach, a framework for analysis and a set of indicators, that would ensure harmonisation with the country's current education policies and strategy, its EFA plan and its policies for rural development and agriculture. Designing mechanisms for implementation will be the next step.

Croatia has around 5 million people, of whom something over 2 million (43 per cent) live in its rural areas, a rural population density of around 37 persons per square kilometre (the European Union deems any population density under 100 persons per square kilometre to be rural). Economically, the country is classed as "upper middle income" with a per capita income of US\$4,520 in 1998. The rural per capita income is likely to be somewhat lower. Most rural households earn their incomes from several farm and off-farm activities. In terms of human development, Croatia ranks high: life expectancy for women is 77 years, the mortality rate for children under the age of 5 is only 10 per 1,000 --compared with 5 per 1,000 in Sweden and 286 per 1,000 in Sierra Leone-- and the female illiteracy rate is only 4 per cent. The net enrolment ratio in primary schools is 82 per cent and both boys and girls are expected to complete 12 years of both primary and secondary courses.

Although these statistics are likely to be less favourable for Croatia's rural people, they would nevertheless suggest that a strategy for education for them would be more in the nature of an operation to mop up pockets of rural disadvantage, rather than an urgent campaign to rectify serious inequities. However, to be soundly designed, any operation requires sufficient relevant and reliable information on what is already in existence, what is missing and what might be improved. The kind of information required to steer a strategy for education for rural development is not readily available or easily generated, even in countries that have reached Croatia's stage of human and economic development. For instance, the data in the country do not distinguish between urban and rural conditions. To identify precisely and with parsimony just what additional information would be needed to proceed, the government and FAO team first established and defined three foundation concepts: "basic education", framed in terms of actual programmes ranging from pre-school through to literacy and occupational training for youths and adults; "basic learning needs" comprising the content of knowledge, values and skills; and "education for rural people" envisaging a broad educational approach for rural children, adolescents and adults in the perspective of enhancing rural development, as requested by the Croatian Government, and reducing rural poverty.

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<sup>17</sup> In order of presentation, Mr. Patrick Gautier, SDRE/FAO, Mr. Shigeru Aoyagi, Literacy and NFE/UNESCO, and Mr. Jean-Claude Balmes, GAFD (See Annexes 11, 12, 13.)

<sup>18</sup> The initiative for the request came from the Ministry of Agriculture. This led to some difficulty in involving the Ministry of Education, on the one hand, and explaining to the Ministry of Agriculture, on the other, the necessity of starting the analysis in the provision and content of primary education.

The next step established an agreed analytical scheme. Each component of education would be examined from six perspectives: [1] supply of educational opportunity, [2] actual access to opportunity by population groups, [3] demand expressed through enrolments, [4] quality as embodied in curriculum content and instructional materials, [5] quality as exhibited through attendance, completion and graduation rates, and [6] institutional capacity in every level and component of the education support system. In addition, for each agreed indicator, there would be a systematic comparison between national and rural ratios and provisions.

Since the conceptual framework for analysis, monitoring and indicators has been agreed, the government of Croatia and FAO are moving forward with designing mechanisms of implementation that will complement the arrangements that now exist for keeping track of supply, access and quality.

The next presentation moved from the case of a single country developing a system-wide monitoring mechanism to the case of a prototype methodology for monitoring and evaluating only non-formal educational activities across several development sectors. The need for a better methodology springs from three sources. The major force is the combined concerns of EFA, the UN Literacy Decade and the drive for poverty reduction. This has led to a deepening recognition that varieties of learning activities take place in most communities and could benefit from being more systematically supported, if the demand for them were better known, along with their contributions, strengths and needs for reinforcement. The third source is the neglect that methods of monitoring and evaluation for non-formal education have suffered during the past quarter of a century, which has led to a loss of credibility.

Financed by UNESCO's Japanese Funds-in-Trust, four sites in three countries<sup>19</sup> are testing the methodology, which aims to combine a participatory community-based approach with the usual quantitative and necessary statistics on supply, demand, take up, completion rates, costs and so on. The community base enables a full picture of the educational opportunities available to and used by specific groups of people. The scope covers learning activities in adult basic education, extension training in agriculture, cattle and other livestock, forestry, fisheries, health, water and the entire range of occupational training, whether by government agencies or other organizations. In addition to the community base, the project attempts to use information technology and specially designed software, MANGO, so as to make the advantages of computers accessible to communities and local educational and training personnel<sup>20</sup>. Testing MANGO began in 2001 and should be completed during 2003.

The third presentation focused on monitoring progress towards the Millennium Development Goals for primary education only: gender parity by 2005 and universal primary completion by 2015. The shift of emphasis from the gross and net enrolment ratios to the completion ratio as the appropriate indicator of universal primary education was a recognition that only completing the full primary course could ensure that young people had equipped themselves with enough skills to function fully as citizens. To bear out this point, statistics from Niger showed that fewer than a quarter of adults who had completed only four of the seven year primary course could read

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<sup>19</sup> Cambodia, India (sites in Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh) and Tanzania

<sup>20</sup> The acronym is MANGO for Map-based Analysis for Non-formal Education Goals and Outcomes

easily, whereas nearly ninety per cent of those who had completed the full seven years could do so<sup>21</sup>. Using examples from several African countries, the presentation documented the disadvantages suffered by rural children --in one case rural boys were only half as likely to enrol in primary school as urban girls. It also highlighted the disparities between boys and girls in both rural and urban areas, and between the richest, the average and the poorest segments of populations, and pointed out that the disparities are to be found at both macro and micro levels. These more disaggregated figures of course bore out the larger scale data presented in the opening addresses. They also highlighted the differences that exist between countries in progress towards EFA and in the tasks that remain to be accomplished.

The collection of school data has seen considerable improvement over the past 10 years or so in a number of countries and central ministries now have databases that could produce detailed disaggregated analyses by regions, provinces and districts. They could generate current information on gender distribution, age distribution, rates of repetition, survival and completion, the incidence of multigrade teaching and biennial enrolment, as well as pupil/teacher ratios and the distribution of textbooks. At present, however, very few countries actually capitalise on this potential for information and management. This could be a point of leverage for the ERP flagship.

For identifying and comparing trends countrywide, updated demographic data are necessary, but expensive to obtain and therefore scarce. Instead, reliance is placed on average inter-census growth rates that tend to ignore migrations, recent changes in the fertility rate or in the spread of HIV/AIDS. However, several countries do conduct periodic household surveys, which can be very helpful in detecting rural/urban and other comparisons and for crosschecking data derived from the school system, particularly from the perspective of poverty alleviation.

Monitoring the quality of achievements and outcomes has for the most part relied on standardised examinations. Despite their limitations in reach --often, pupils thought by their teachers not likely to do well are discouraged from sitting the exams-- and quality in terms of the skills they test, these can be analysed to detect weaknesses in teaching in particular subjects and in particular geographic areas and schools. However, a few countries have gone beyond general examinations and have introduced more probing assessments of knowledge and skills gained, but only on the basis of samples. These of course need to be reiterated periodically, which in turn requires capacity and expense.

Whatever the progress in refining and monitoring indicators, progress towards UPC itself depends on designing and even more on implementing sound education policies. Major gains in efficiency in retaining and actually instructing pupils are imperative, and these can be achieved only through effective reforms in matters like the actual allocation of resources, teachers' terms of service, repetition rates, numbers of hours actually taught in a school year, actual provision of texts and other learning materials. Many of these are of course to be found in the target values of the Fast Track Initiative (FTI). Maintaining a special focus on rural people is an essential ingredient of UPC, for most of the progress needs to be made with poor and very poor rural

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<sup>21</sup> UNESCO originally estimated that four years of effective primary schooling sufficed to enable a child to acquire permanent skills in reading and writing.

families (and also poor urban families). The ERP flagship could help ensure that the favourable contexts provided by SWAp and the FTI are properly utilised, as well as work to develop, establish and sustain workable mechanisms for monitoring, data collection, data analysis and the generation of reliable, up-to-date information.

### *Discussion*

The workshop participants recognised that indicators require data and that data require people with the requisite capacities, time and financial resources to gather, collate, organize and analyse them, and then disseminate the information generated. The fact that most countries have an abundance of data, which they have not analysed for the purposes of policy and management or for tracking disparities between rural and urban populations, suggests that they may well lack the resources or capacity or both to do so, and it is obviously important not to construct monitoring systems that cannot be sustained by local capacities. What seems to be called for is a strengthening of Management Information Systems, along with a streamlining of indicators and the data required to generate them. That would be helpful not only for countries with data overload, but also for those where data are scarce. However, any streamlining should take care to include indicators not only of inputs and outcomes, but also of process, to enable the monitoring of political changes and reforms.

In addition to the concerns about the quantities of data, there was some concern about quality and reliability: for example, school systems where resources are allocated by enrolments have been known to inflate their figures. The issue of devising incentives for the collectors of data to collect carefully and conscientiously had to be considered.

For the national level, the data should be sufficient to indicate overall progress towards EFA. Within the nation, data would be needed to measure how specific areas or population groups were faring in regard to specific objectives. It should also be possible for local people to see how their own localities were doing, which would of course entail developing local databases and nurturing local capabilities to interpret them. This is of course what the MANGO test is seeking to do. Early indications from the three countries testing MANGO suggest that, when local people understand the data and appreciate their usefulness, they can and indeed will exert themselves to help with collecting them.

A further point is that local databases facilitate linking the data from the school system with those from non-formal education activities, which in turn facilitates consistency and complementarity between data and indicators. Indeed, local databases facilitate linking educational development more completely with the wider spectrum of local rural development.



## Coordination for Effective Aid Policies and Practices

The final discussion of this workshop for aid agencies turned to considering issues of coordination between the many agencies involved with different forms of education and training for rural peoples and their development. Four presentations led the discussions<sup>22</sup>. Coordinating external assistance is already an important item on the agenda of both recipient governments and the agencies dealing with financial resources and technical assistance. PRSP, SWAp, ‘sleeping partners’ and ‘basket’ or pooled financing are all examples of initiatives to promote more effective coordination and consistency. In addition, many if not most governments hold annual coordination group meetings, at which they and their partners review relative areas of support and approaches to sector development, and agree on strategies to achieve the goals of the different sectors. The principles of avoiding duplications of effort and over concentrations of resources and seeking how best to invest increasingly scarce externally provided resources to maximise development gains are universally agreed, if not always ideally implemented. Coordination is acknowledged to be particularly important for rural development, which is multi-sectoral in nature but depends on a mono-sectoral division of labour almost everywhere.

Accumulating experience has made it clear that effective coordination between disparate and independent agencies requires at least some sense of partnership. It is also clear that the scope of both coordination and partnership needs to be widely cast to include not only donors and governments, but also all the many levels of stakeholders from central ministries through the leaderships of local communities to the prospective beneficiaries themselves. The question for the workshop was whether the ERP flagship could do anything about facilitating better partnerships and more effective coordination in the service of education and development for rural people.

Eight key principles for successful partnerships were set out. They applied with equal force to partnerships between two individuals, between two or several agencies and between agencies and less formal communities of interest, such as the parents concerned with primary schools or participants in an adult education programme.

### Key Principles for Successful Partnerships

1. Agreeing in detail a common vision, joint objectives and mutual benefits.
2. Identifying complementary contributions that will clearly create new value.
3. Distributing roles in alignment with comparative advantages and without duplication.
4. Openness to learning from each other.
5. Trust and transparency in shared decision-making.
6. Promoting informal personal connections to cement formal institutional links.
7. Fairly sharing work, problems, proceeds, recognition and rewards.
8. Shared monitoring and evaluation of synergy, efficiency, productivity, diversity, openness, flexibility, adaptability, security of relationship and legitimacy.

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<sup>22</sup> In order of presentation: Mr. Tom E. Vandenbosch (see Annex 14), Ms. Sukhdeep Brar (see Annex 15), Ms. Malika Ladjali and Mr. Christian Fauliau (see part 2 of Annex 10).

Working in support of partnerships, and particularly in support of the sixth principle, is the concept of networks. Its aim is to stimulate interaction, sharing information, strengthening professional support and raising awareness of emerging issues and developments among all the stakeholders in a partnership. Although networks can form and develop spontaneously, they, like the partnerships themselves, require deliberate nurturing and support to be fully effective.

In the context of large organizations, especially those with branches spread through several countries around the globe, the leadership's commitment to partnerships needs not only to be explicit and strong, it needs also to permeate every one of its personnel, whose functions affect a partnership. However, without clear incentives to dedicate time and effort to constructing partnerships and making them work, staff can tend to talk the language of partnership, but continue on easier paths of implementation. The ERP flagship could be of use to its many partners by prompting them assess the extent to which their internal patterns of incentives for recognition and career advancement support and even promote an orientation to partnerships and networks.

In education for rural people and in the present push for decentralisation, partnerships and networks can involve eight or more sets of stakeholders on both the national and international planes. As this workshop itself demonstrates, a mechanism like the ERP flagship needs, on the one hand, to work and network with the appropriate personnel of three sets of international stakeholders --governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental-- to create, be sure of and sustain a shared vision in the face of the usual fluidity of careers and policies. On the other hand, when it comes to particular countries, the ERP flagship has a double task. It has not only to check that the local staff of the international stakeholders have been appraised of and share the vision, it has also to forge and negotiate that vision with five or more national sets of stakeholders: the central government agencies involved --in rural development, they could be several-- the local government agencies involved, a number of non-governmental agencies, some of which may operate only within very restricted areas, teachers' unions or associations, and local stakeholders like community leaders, the parents of local school populations or the participants in local education and development programmes. The number of links in the chain of connections that need to be fashioned to achieve sound partnerships in education for rural people may help explain why the terms 'partnership', 'coordination', 'cooperation' and 'collaboration' appear so often in print as aspirations, but less often as fully realised implementation.

However, there are many experiences to show that care, patience and time can make these concepts realities. An example presented to the workshop was the Shiksha Karmi project in the Indian state of Rajasthan. It has a history of 27 years, 1975-2002, during which time it has grown from a pilot of just three village schools to over 4,000 schools in more than 2,000 relatively isolated villages. Although a detailed description of the initiative is not appropriate here, the experience gives several useful signals for policy in education for rural people.

Perhaps the most important for present purposes is that the ERP flagship should be on the lookout for these kinds of initiatives and use them to develop guidelines on how governments might encourage and incorporate partnerships for education for rural people into their plans for EFA.

A second signal is further confirmation that local NGOs can be vital in developing and testing ideas that are directly relevant to poor rural people and fill gaps that the standard government machinery fails to close. Appropriately encouraging and reinforcing their efforts, particularly those which are faith based, would appear to be sound policy. In several countries, however, relations between governments and NGOs have been marked more by mutual wariness than by mutual trust, encouragement and cooperation. Where this remains the case, the ERP flagship might seek opportunities to promote better relations between the two sets of stakeholders for the greater benefit of rural people.

Alongside the NGOs as possibly under-utilised resources are the academic and private sectors. The educational, agricultural, environmental and economic branches of higher education could be encouraged to undertake the kinds of qualitative, quantitative and action research that could uncover opportunities for productive partnerships between community groups, NGOs, government agencies and international supporters. Similarly, those parts of the private sector that have an interest in rural development and prosperity could, where appropriate, be invited to consider partnerships, while its consulting branch might complement the research capacities of the universities.

A third signal from Shiksha Karmi concerns what is called “people’s participation”. The initiating NGO, the Social Work and Research Centre (SWRC), found that the parents of school age children, as well as the leaderships of their communities were willing to accept responsibility for managing and maintaining the schools. In addition to time and effort, this often involved a frequently overlooked type of material resource, namely, contributions in kind --labour, thatching materials, bricks and the like. These forms of contribution are important, if only to give the community some status as an equal, contributing partner, together with a real and palpable stake in the ownership of the products and benefits of the partnership. The ERP flagship should be sure not to allow this aspect of partnership to be neglected.

A further concern was raised in regard to a rural population group that was at risk of being overlooked. This group comprised the orphans created by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. The inability of many families and communities to cope with the orphans meant that the state had to replace the deceased parents in supporting and educating them. Given the usual bias of the state to concern itself more with urban populations, there was a danger that the extent of the rural dimension of the problem could be underestimated and under-served. The ERP flagship will then need to maintain a watching brief in the interests of the rural HIV/AIDS orphans.

A final point in the presentations was that, given the already long and chronically unequal struggle for education and development for rural people and the huge challenge of its task, the ERP flagship should be a light mechanism of advocacy and coordination, shake itself free from bureaucratic constraints and dare to behave as a pioneering, activist, lobbying mechanism.

## Summary of Concrete Measures for the ERP Flagship to Take

The discussions produced a number of guiding points for FAO and the IIEP/UNESCO to follow in setting the direction for the ERP flagship and getting it off the ground. Perhaps the most powerful was that education for rural people and for rural development has a long and varied history of efforts to make educational programmes of all kinds more and more relevant and directly useful. It signified that the ERP flagship should not spend time on reinventing wheels. Instead, it should aim first to *make the accumulated cases and insights known and familiar* to current and succeeding generations of practitioners, decision makers and policy makers in all agencies concerned with promoting learning and education for rural development. For the purpose, it should not only use the media available for general dissemination, like cheap publications or a Web-page with links to all the relevant sources, but should seek to target specific clienteles.

In countries where dialogue on possible assistance to address ERP has started -- Bosnia, Croatia, Egypt, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mozambique, Serbia-- the specific clienteles are relatively clear. However, in countries where the poverty and disadvantages of the rural populations are more severe and more widespread, but where the capacity to articulate them may well be deficient, the flagship should take proactive steps to identify the potential clienteles and bring the information to their notice. To heighten the sense of urgency, brief and inexpensive discussions of that information between the decision makers of several countries could be arranged through the World Bank's network of videoconference facilities.

Second, the ERP flagship should use the insights to *respond to requests for guidelines* on strategies for education for rural people in a range of cultural, political and ecological contexts. Such guidelines may be particularly useful for FAO and UNESCO regional offices.

Third, it should develop specific guidance for *developing indicators of progress and instituting reliable mechanisms for monitoring* the requisite data. While the indicators should be especially useful for governments and other local agencies involved with rural people, they would also serve the international community is assessing movement towards EFA and the MDG.

Fourth, a particularly valuable service by the ERP flagship would be *the assessment of the costs* of ensuring the availability of the range of educational opportunities to rural groups in differing circumstances.

Fifth, at the international level with governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental bodies, the ERP flagship might *assess the weight of priority* that each body really assigns to the education and development of rural people. Where the weight seems lighter than warranted or where opportunities seem to have been overlooked, the flagship might undertake appropriate advocacy --it should certainly not underestimate the power of constructive, effective lobbying. Part of this effort could be assessing the internal incentives in each of these institutions to encourage their staff to work in real partnership with other like-minded agencies.

Sixth, similarly at country level, the ERP flagship should see whether the *different rural groups feature appropriately* in plans for meeting both EFA and the MDG. Where higher priority seems warranted, the flagship could use the convening power that both FAO and UNESCO have acquired to have the issue discussed, along with possible instruments for dealing with it equitably. At the same time, the analysis of plans should enable the flagship to identify missing elements. That should in turn enable the flagship to put together a “service package” of knowledge, tools, concepts and specialists, which it could advertise to countries implementing EFA and aiming for the MDG but not according their rural peoples sufficient attention or resources. In advertising, the flagship should of course address not only ministries of education, but also all the sectoral development ministries and departments, which need rural people to undertake some systematic learning for their programmes to bear full fruit.

Finally, the very size, distributions and current status of rural populations and of their poorer members make it certain that the demand for the ERP flagship’s services will outstrip the currently available supply. Inevitably, then, the flagship will need to determine priorities between regions, between countries and possibly even between sub-populations within countries.

#### *Next Meeting*

The ERP flagship might convene a meeting to follow this one, once it has undertaken an analysis of a number of plans for EFA and MDG and put together the suggested service package. However, while the purpose of the present meeting made it appropriate to convene only aid agencies, the discussion of the analyses and service package should involve forums of both user governments and aid agencies that actually work with them.

## **Current Action by Participating Agencies**

After the introductory sessions, the workshop used a “Show and Tell” session to survey the current policies, programmes and actions of the participating agencies. This section summarises the 25 contributions in the alphabetical order of the names of the agencies, with the names of their representatives following in parentheses. Where the representatives supplied papers describing their organizations’ work, the number of the annex in which the paper appears is also given.

### **Asian Development Bank (Ms. Sukhdeep Brar)**

The Asian Development Bank has of course always supported programmes and projects aimed at improving different dimensions of rural life. That includes projects in education for rural people --examples exist in the most rural countries and among their poorest people, Bangladesh, Nepal, Viet Nam, for instance. Nevertheless, in August 2002, the Bank reformulated its policies on education to emphasize that educational projects must serve the main purpose of reducing poverty. The effects of good education are now well documented and understanding of how best to achieve those effects has evolved out of experience.

The Bank will be supporting efforts to achieve Basic Education for All, not simply Universal Primary Education for All Children. It will join in SWAp and also, after thorough analyses of the sectoral situation, in approaching sub-sectors in a similarly holistic way. In parallel with the sectoral approach, the Bank will exert itself to simplify the design and processing of projects. It will also strive for flexibility in assisting governments to respond to the particular requirements of particular groups of rural people. At the same time, extending the holistic perspective in development, the Bank will pursue and work with governments to promote cross-sectoral liaisons and connections, so that education contributes to and is enriched by agriculture and other branches of food production, forestry and other forms of environmental management, health, water, transport, local government and other forms of social and political development, and small business and other forms of economic development

### **Associates in Research and Education for Development (Ms. Sonja Fagerberg-Diallo) (Annex 16)**

The Associates in Research and Education for Development (ARED) specializes in developing and testing curricula for adults in African languages in both rural and urban areas. The rural groups with whom it has been working for the past ten years are the mobile pastoralists of Senegal. ARED is an organization that puts into actual practice well known concepts about working at the grassroots and hands on and face to face with the learners in view, participatory analysis of local needs and curriculum development, using the language most familiar to the learners --in the case of the pastoralists, Fulfulde, spoken by more than 25 million people across the Sahel. It tries to design an educational system that will fit the people for whom it is intended, rather than attempt to force people to fit a system never intended for them.

Working with pastoralists, a marginalized and relatively vulnerable set of groups, has stimulated ARED to develop methods, processes and materials that can enable people to learn without formal, regular classes or professionally qualified teachers. The status and predicaments of the pastoralists in a larger society, which does not understand their ways of life and labours under prejudices about them, have stimulated ARED to

develop books that help the pastoralists defend their rights. The aim is to help them read to learn, rather than just learn to read. In effect, ARED now promotes community solidarity and development, not just simple tuition.

**Austria, Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Ms. Maria-Waltraud Rabitsch)**  
(Annex 17)

The Government of Austria is in tune with most of the world in regarding education as one of the most effective tools for reducing poverty. It takes a broad view and prefers to work for basic education for all by 2015, rather than only for universal primary schooling by that date. Austria also has a strong interest in rural development, but has not set out a formal policy on the subject. It finds the movement towards inter-sectoral approaches to development encouraging, as well as the movement to promote rural development through feasible forms of decentralisation. To support and promote this, it participates in district development programmes that stress building local capacity in planning, formulating and monitoring standards, and improving curricula for local training.

In education, Austria has noted that, although post-basic and tertiary education are of huge importance for national development, their beneficiaries, even when they hail from a rural background, seldom return to work in a rural area. Austria therefore focuses on reinforcing the earlier bands of schooling, primary, secondary and vocational. Here it helps with improving access to schooling and on enhancing motivation and raising attendance rates. In addition, it supports primary education for youths and adults, which thus involves it in adult literacy with appropriate education.

Since the population of Austria is only about 8 million, the funds available for international cooperation are comparatively small. Therefore, Austria focuses those funds on only 19 partner countries. Eight of them are 'priority' countries that attract the bulk of cooperation, while the other 11 'cooperation countries' are able to propose programmes for which they have urgent needs unmet by other sources of cooperation.

**Belgium, Directorate General for International Cooperation (Mr. Edwin Bourgeois)**

The Government of Belgium has adopted the view that education must have poverty alleviation as one of its principal aims. It recognizes that the urban areas also contain poor people --worldwide, they constitute 30 per cent of the poor, no small proportion. In addition, when the rural poor reach the point of destitution, they migrate to the towns and cities, so that reducing rural poverty would help slow the rate of increase in urban poverty. Therefore, Belgium is helping its partners raise the quality of education in their rural areas. For example, it is assisting Viet Nam, where 80 per cent of the population is rural, with a 4-year programme to place master trainers in seven provinces to train some 700 primary school teachers in making their instruction more effective and more immediately useful in their localities. In China, where two-thirds of the population are rural and where efforts to achieve universal literacy are half a century old, Belgium is contributing to adult literacy combined with practical training in agriculture, horticulture and raising small stock. Similar examples could come from other partners, Cambodia, Laos, Tanzania and others.

**Canada, Canadian International Development Agency (Mr. John F. Morris)**

The present Canadian Minister for International Development is firmly oriented to agriculture and food security and is pressing the agency to formulate a strategy for cooperating with partner countries in promoting rural development. Given the need for consultations within the Canadian government itself, as well as with interested partners, the international community and the research and evaluation community, the strategy paper is likely to require some six months to mature.

More generally, the sector policy priorities of CIDA are decided, with the crosscutting themes of gender and environment affecting all programs. CIDA is preoccupied, too, with the question of delivering its aid more effectively overseas. Resolving to move from projects to programmes and to programmes that are 'country-driven' rather than only 'government-driven' is easy, but implementing the resolve through the various patterns of bureaucratic machinery that exist in each partner country has turned out to be complicated.

Despite this, CIDA has since the Dakar Forum put even more effort into supporting education that supports development. With Canada's quadrupling its allocations for international development, CIDA has committed itself to supporting the countries in the Fast Track Initiative and at the G.8 meeting in June 2002 also committed itself to contributing to the Africa fund. For example, an allocation of \$100 million will buttress basic education in Mozambique and Tanzania.

Finally, since the deficiency of data and information about education still hampers planning and the allocation of resources, CIDA is making grants to UNESCO to strengthen the capabilities of its Institute of Statistics, now based in Montreal.

#### **Commonwealth Secretariat (Mr. Ved Goel)**

The priorities for the Commonwealth Secretariat are the reduction of poverty, the achievement of the MDG, universal access to and completion of the primary education cycle, and equity for both girls and boys. Education in small states, whether island or land-locked, experiences problems peculiar to itself. Therefore, the Commonwealth Secretariat gives priority attention to the small states of the Commonwealth, particularly the small island states of the Caribbean and Pacific.

#### **France, Agence Française de Développement (Mr. Jean-Claude Balmes)**

(Annex 18)

Rural development and infrastructure have for years been the major sectors in the portfolio of the Agence Française de Développement (Afd). Since 1980, the rural development portfolio has included an increasing number of training projects, which aimed to help rural communities articulate their priorities, then build their capacities to achieve their priorities through developing local social and productive infrastructure. In 1999, the Government of France expanded the mission of Afd to include education and health, so the agency created a department of human development. In the three years that have elapsed since then, Afd has funded eight education projects in sub-Saharan Africa, all of them for rural communities.

Most of these projects are components of sector investment programmes, with parallel funding from a number of other sources. In line with the practice of forming consortia with other actors in development cooperation, Afd has committed itself to participation in the Fast Track Initiative. The projects focus on rural communities with



low enrolment rates in primary school and enlist the partnership of NGOs in the social aspects of identifying and dissolving the constraints on enrolments and of building the communities' capacities to manage and monitor the performance of the schools.

Current investment projects align themselves with the MDG and, for education, particularly with universal primary completion and gender parity. They tend to have six core components: [1] school construction, [2] capacity building for teachers, parent-teacher associations, education officers and local government officers, [3] micro-planning to improve school mapping, [4] promoting multi-grade teaching with training and supplying books and teaching aids, [5] social work to foster a community's demand for schooling, especially for the girls, and [6] community involvement in school governance, along with appropriate local projects based on the school.

Financial support for these kinds of projects has been enhanced through bilateral debt relief. For instance, in Mauritania, an amount equivalent to what would normally have been allocated to debt relief is granted to the Treasury as a budgetary resource for the education sector development programme. Although there is an annual assessment of the budget and performance, while outcomes and outcome indicators are monitored, the practical problems of assessing actual progress and in particular the reduction of gender disparity in the rural areas have not yet been fully solved.

**France, Ministry of Agriculture, Food, Fisheries and Rural Affairs (Mr. Alain Maragnani) (Annex 19)**

The French Ministry of Agriculture, Food, Fisheries and Rural Affairs works mainly with the countries of French-speaking West Africa on improving their agriculture. Within the broader context of rural development, two facts about these countries have to be borne in mind. First, most rural households are farming households --some 70 per cent of the labour force are farmers. Second, farming households make their livings not simply from farming, but from diverse sets of complementary activities: there is no strict frontier between the production, processing and marketing of agricultural products or between these and local crafts and other activities. These households subsist in a period of demographic, social and economic change that is probably too rapid for them to produce through the normal empirical procedures the new knowledge necessary for them to adapt. In parallel, the education and training systems set up over the last half century have tended to deteriorate rather than respond to the challenges of change, while small-scale private efforts to cope with the situation have produced a varied and incoherent provision of training.

A factor exacerbating the difficulties of working with farming households is their lack of sufficient literacy and numeracy to access and absorb the technical, legal and commercial information necessary to deal with their situation and to protect their interests.

Therefore, the Ministry supports efforts to establish systems that will provide [1] high quality basic education, and [2] the literacy education for extremely heterogeneous clienteles of youth and adults, as well as the training for extremely heterogeneous and evolving occupational situations through diverse sets of suppliers.

**Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture,**

### **Directorate of Education and Training (Dr. François Dagenais) (Annex 20)**

The Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture (IICA) serves 16 American countries with a range of training in agriculture. With eight of the Caribbean states, it runs a network for distance education and training in agriculture. The IICA also takes part in the World Bank's Global Development Learning Network, through which it organizes global discussions for farmers, agricultural technicians, managers and agro-entrepreneurs through video-conferences, tele-conferences and the Internet.

Through partnership with universities in all parts of the Americas, IICA has constructed 22 courses in agriculture, each in the three languages of English, French and Spanish, along with courses for Masters' degrees. The courses are provided on CD-ROM, backed up by local tutors through computer and e-mail. Close to 1,000 students are enrolled in the Caribbean.

In November 2002, IICA and the Global Development Learning Network contracted to develop a special module in agriculture and rural development in the Americas. It will aim to connect the 34 ministries of agriculture, the 500 schools of agriculture and veterinary sciences, a similar number of technical schools of agriculture and all training centres linked to farmers' and other rural organizations. The aims are to have a distance learning centre in all important rural centres and to establish connections and encourage exchanges between the northern and southern countries of the Americas. Preparing the necessary business plans with all the participating institutions should be completed in 2003.

The IICA offers its courses on a fee-paying basis. However, it also has a scholarship fund, which enables it to provide bursaries of \$ 200 per student per course. Nobody need miss out on an opportunity to learn because of a lack of means.

### **International Centre for Research in Agroforestry (Mr. Tom Vandenbosch)**

The International Centre for Research in Agroforestry (ICRAF) focuses on training trainers in ecological and natural resource management. It uses networks to link colleges and universities across regions and supplements its traditional courses with open and distance learning. One of its strands of work is to study current curricula in primary and secondary education with a view to incorporating natural resource management into them through various devices of adaptation.

Experience has taught ICRAF that training individuals is insufficient to bring about institutional change: it is necessary also to train the institutions in supporting staff so that they are able to put their new learning to use. ICRAF has learned, too, that educational networks are needed not just at the intercontinental level, but at the regional and national levels also.

### **International Labour Office (Ms. Josiane Capt) (Annex 21)**

The International Labour Office (ILO) bears in mind the declaration of Philadelphia in 1944, "Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere." It is concerned, therefore, with poverty reduction, decent work and the protection of basic rights at work, employment promotion, social protection and social dialogue. In recent years, employment has been neglected as a way out of poverty and social exclusion,

so that the ILO wants to reinvigorate an earlier drive for employment promotion and skills development in correspondence with employability. This includes not only the workers in the formal labour markets, but also the informal sector and rural workers, who in many countries constitute the majorities of the labour forces.

However, targeting the under-employed and the unemployed tends to be difficult in most rural areas, and requires the development of detailed knowledge bases. The tools on which the ILO is focusing for development include community based training--a comprehensive system for skills development for wage employment and self-employment for the working poor-- grassroots management training for micro-entrepreneurs and the self-employed, training in the elimination of child labour and capacity building in the gender equality, poverty reduction and employment promotion dimensions.

Some of the many challenges that face the ILO in skills development are;

- Mainstreaming the concerns of the poor into training policies and formal training systems;
- Improving employability and, more importantly, economic opportunities;
- Improving job quality;
- Upgrading training quality and practices in the informal employment sectors;
- Developing flexible and adaptable training practices;
- Linking training to other support services, such as micro-credit or business development advice, that may enable rural workers to break out of the low income trap;
- Addressing the issues of sustainability.

#### **International Plant Genetic Resources Institute (Ms. Elizabeth Doupé Goldberg)**

The International Plant Genetic Resources Institute (IPGRI) works to contribute to the alleviation of hunger and poverty through capitalizing on the potential of the world's plant genetic resources to generate and sustain sufficient supplies of food for the human race. It also works at strengthening the capacities and competence of national institutions to work on the plant genetics of their own countries. As part of this programme, IPGRI identifies and fosters key institutes as magnets for a Master's degree in plant genetics. It also adapts content for existing curricula and is exploring the possibilities of offering courses through distance learning. The major issue it faces is that of the sustainability of the capacities of the centres of excellence, in terms both of the recruitment of students and the retention of professionals.

#### **International Training Centre of the International Labour Organization**

**(Mr. Frans Lenglet)** (Annex 22)

The International Training Centre is the training arm of the International Labour Organization. It therefore works in support of the ILO's goals for decent, adequately remunerative and socially protected work for all, especially the 80 per cent of the world's labour force, the majority women, who work in the informal economy and in the rural areas. The Centre operates on the assumption that improvements in agricultural and rural productivity, health, nutrition and community organization will be strongly facilitated by universal basic and primary education. Based in Turin, Italy, its activities take place mainly at the Centre itself, but also reach out through courses in ILO member countries and through distance learning. In total, the Centre reaches about 9,000 participants annually.

Over time, the Centre has developed a number of approaches, programmes and packages on economic empowerment, poverty eradication and social inclusion. They are designed to assist people working with and in the informal economy and with rural populations in developing and transition economies.

A few examples of the courses and materials available are: “Local Employment Initiatives”, “Women’s Entrepreneurship”, “Micro-finance”

**Iowa State University College of Agriculture (Prof. David Acker)**

The College of Agriculture of Iowa State University undertakes much the same tasks as any other college of agriculture in the U.S.A. It recognizes that agriculture is a central and major part --but only a part-- of rural development and that technical knowledge on its own is a very limited tool in promoting either agricultural or rural development. Skills in teamwork and communications are essential complements. To them must be added ethics, value added processing and learning through service. Its undergraduate and graduate courses all reflect and stress this outlook. The college also encourages its American students to get some international experience, is itself involved in projects in China, Mexico and the Ukraine, and like most American institutes of higher education, welcomes a substantial contingent of international students.

The college has had a long-standing cooperative relationship with FAO, has helped formulate and refine the concept and vision of the ERP flagship, and is committed to promoting its work.

**Italy, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Directorate General for Development Cooperation (Mr. Raffaele de Benedictis)**

The Government of Italy was more than pleased to demonstrate its strong support for and involvement in education for rural people by joining FAO and UNESCO in helping to finance this workshop. As almost one-third of Italy’s population remains rural, the Government has a good understanding of the efforts that it must maintain to ensure equity in education and other aspects of human welfare and development. In pursuance of this concern, Italy has granted UNESCO \$2 million to help promote quality and expansion in education. It has also committed itself whole heartedly to the Fast Track Initiative for EFA and will be increasing its commitments to help ensure that the world meets the MDG.

**Italy, Federation of Christian Organizations for International Voluntary Service (Ms. Giovanna Li Perni)**

Very briefly, the Association of Italian NGOs researches into and advocates for desirable structural changes in development policies, infrastructural reform, food security and the sovereignty of rural communities.

**The Netherlands, Permanent Representation of the Kingdom of the Netherlands to FAO (Mr. Jacco Bos)**

The Royal Netherlands Government has for several years now dedicated 0.8 per cent of the country’s GDP to international cooperation. Its budgetary allocation for the purpose for the current fiscal year is \$3.8 billion. The Millennium Development Goals are central to its policies for international cooperation and it regards basic education

as indispensable for the achievement of the first goal, namely, the reduction of poverty and hunger to half their current levels by 2015. Since rural people still form the majority in most cooperating countries, basic education for them remains a priority for the Dutch government.

The Dutch government has adopted the policy that cooperation should be country-driven and has therefore decentralized the budget for international cooperation. Sixty-six per cent of the annual budget is distributed to the Dutch embassies in the cooperating countries, so that they can negotiate the optimum allocation with the governments and other local stakeholders. However, the Dutch government recognizes that the total budget is small in face of the large number of countries and the magnitude of the needs and has therefore focused on only 19 countries and on only two or three sectors within each. It also encourages SWAp, care that programmes are sustainable within national priorities and coordination between donors. It has a particular concern for the improvement of governance.

Along with its attention to basic education, the Dutch government recognizes, too, that the higher levels of education and post-academic training are vital for rural development and organizes relevant opportunities through centres in Wageningen and Delft in Holland itself. It also supports research: for example, it has recently allocated \$25 million for investigations into water supplies. At the other end of the scale, it supports FAO in the programme for grassroots Farmer Field Schools, which combine agricultural training with coaching in empirical, hands-on scientific experiment and measurement, frequently supplemented with basic literacy and numeracy.

#### **Switzerland, Swiss Development Cooperation (Mr. Ernst Bolliger) (Annex 23)**

Swiss Development Cooperation (SDC) has a special group working on rural development. A 4-year project in Bhutan aims to develop forms of field tuition because of local scepticism about the usefulness of scholastic education through the primary school --a Bhutanese woman farmer, for example, stated flatly that her daughters would learn nothing useful for the farm from the school. The cultural disjunction between state schools and the communities in which they are placed exists also in the Sahel countries, where the lack of effective demand for schooling is particularly evident. Further, the effects of the cultural gap are exacerbated by the lack of wage employment for qualified school leavers, on the one hand, and the persisting reluctance of school leavers to stay in their villages and take up the socio-economic activities of their parents, on the other. These last then have good grounds to question the use of schooling.

Therefore, SDC is working in countries in Sahelian Africa, South Asia and Latin America on identifying what attracts different sets of people and age-groups to different forms of education. SDC's approach to these groups and communities incorporates training in a range of skills, uses distance-learning concepts where appropriate, and aims for a workable balance between training and coaching. From these experiences, SDC is fashioning a model approach that is grounded in negotiations and contracts with local rural organizations. It empowers these organizations to negotiate with service providers for education and training that serve their priorities and needs for skills. Eventually and progressively, they will be able to design their own programmes and negotiate not only with local service providers, but also with the government and larger development agencies.

**United Nations Children’s Fund (Ms. Flora Sibanda-Mulder) (Annex 24)**

UNICEF’s medium-term strategic plan runs from 2002 to 2005, the year by when the world aims to achieve parity between girls and boys in enrolments in primary school. UNICEF is using girls’ education as the main mechanism to address its global education commitments and is promoting the four As as its basic obligation: Access, Attendance, Attainment, Achievement. It is adopting a selective approach, applying four criteria to identify countries in which it will work intensively. The four criteria are: [1] a net enrolment ratio for girls of less than 70 per cent; [2] a gender gap of 10 per cent or more in primary enrolments; [3] the 10 countries with more than one million girls out of school; and [4] high risk countries, heavily affected by HIV/AIDS, civil conflict, natural disasters and other emergencies. Within this frame fall 25 countries, 15 in Africa, 8 in South Asia and one each in Australasia and Latin America.

In these countries, UNICEF will advocate girls’ education proactively and intensively. It will seek to create effective partnerships and will adopt an inter-sectoral approach to promote a range of possible measures to facilitate girls’ enrolment and perseverance in school. UNICEF is interested in the ERP flagship, because most of the girls, who are not in school, live in rural areas.

**United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Mr. Shigeru Aoyagi)**

Three of the goals agreed at the Dakar Forum necessitate a special drive for the education of rural people and call for the special mechanism of the ERP flagship. The most challenging of the three requires the elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, just three years in the future. The widest disparities of course exist among rural populations. The other two leave more breathing space, but are equally formidable. One goal demands that all children should by 2015 both have access to and complete a compulsory primary education course, freely provided. It singles out girls, children in difficult circumstances and the children of ethnic minorities for particular attention. Most of these children live in rural areas. The third goal requires a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy, especially among women, plus equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults. Again, the majorities of the people in mind live in rural areas. Alongside these goals, a new UN Literacy Decade has just begun.

UNESCO recognizes the ambitious nature of these goals and the struggle they will demand for their fulfilment among rural people. It therefore heartily welcomes FAO’s readiness to take up the challenge and responsibility of leading the ERP flagship.

**UN System Network on Rural Development and Food Security (Ms. Alicia García)**

The Network on Rural Development and Food Security arose from the 1996 World Food Summit and the goal of “Food for All”. The participants realised ever more strongly that reducing poverty and hunger demanded much more tightly concerted efforts by all partners in development -the UN, governments, civil society, donors. The UN set up the Network as a mechanism to reinforce ties, synergies and complementary actions between its several organizations and between them and other stakeholders in development.

The Network comprises 20 UN system partners and some 80 participating Country Thematic Groups around the world. The latter select priority themes based on a country's needs for rural development. Reducing poverty among rural people is the selected theme of many of the Country Thematic Groups, since poverty is a principal cause of food insecurity. Through information, advocacy and other action, the Network and the Country Thematic Groups aim to shape public opinion and mobilize the political will to act effectively against food insecurity.

**United States of America, United States Agency for International Development (Mr. John D. Hatch)**

USAID operates on the principle that education builds human capacity and that people living in rural areas are as much entitled to good education as everybody else. It works not only with governments and donor partners, but also with NGOs and with local civil society in order to satisfy educational needs authentically. Its current portfolio of programmes in education for rural people is fully in line with the Dakar goals, so that USAID offers its full support to the ERP flagship.

In Asia and the Near East, USAID is cooperating with eight priority countries, with emphases on girls' education, sanitation and safe water to protect health, radio for more effective communication, literacy to facilitate development and support for small business.

In the Latin American and Caribbean region, USAID is cooperating with a further eight priority countries. The emphases here are more on literacy for rural girls, secondary education, improved instructional technologies and micro-credit schemes.

In Africa, USAID's programme is larger, since it is cooperating with between 11 and 14 countries. The emphases are expanding access to schooling, scholarships for girls, school sanitation and safety, school feeding programmes, school mapping, school construction and renovation, HIV/AIDS education and rural development.

**World Bank (Mr. Christian Fauliau)**

The World Bank is focused on reducing poverty throughout the world and on ensuring education for all. It also focuses on reducing gender disparities in both poverty and education. However, at present it has no policy focusing on rural people as special groups within the meaning of "all". This may be due largely to its member borrowing governments, who tend to have no special policies for rural people and who then do not borrow from the World Bank for rural programmes. The current situation may be changing, as the Bank encourages countries as wholes --and not only their governments-- to take the "driver's seat" in building policies and strategies for the development of the entire country. The concerted push by the international community including the World Bank for decentralization, appropriate capacity building and better governance should work in favour of rural communities and of the rural poor in particular. However, as the macro-economists in the Bank and in ministries of finance and economic planning tend not to understand rural milieus, rural development specialists in the Bank and in member countries will need to dedicate much time and effort to advocacy to ensure that rural people are not overlooked.

### **World Food Programme (Ms. Flora Sibanda-Mulder) (Annex 25)**

For the past four decades, since 1963, the World Food Programme (WFP) has been supporting access to education through providing meals to schoolchildren in both urban and rural areas in developing countries. It uses food to attract children to school in food insecure areas, where enrolment ratios are lowest.

Three hundred million of the world's children are chronically hungry: approximately 170 million of these children attend school and try to learn while fighting hunger. Rural children often walk long distances to school on empty stomachs. Many cannot afford to bring food from home to eat during the day. They have problems concentrating on their lessons, while teachers report that breakfast-deprived children fall asleep in class. Several studies have demonstrated that the effects of short-term hunger are exacerbated in children who already have a history of under-nutrition and suffer nutritional deficiencies. WFP school meals encourage poor children to attend class and help them concentrate on their studies. In 2001, WFP fed over 15 million children in schools in 57 countries.

WFP places special emphasis on meeting the needs of women and girls in all of its programs. Two of WFP's four 'commitments to women' made at the 1995 Beijing Conference on Women relate specifically to educating girls. Sixty percent of WFP's country programme resources in countries with a significant gender gap are targeted to women and girls and 50% of all education resources are targeted to girls.

To reinforce incentives to send girls to school, WFP distributes basic food items, like a sack of rice or several litres of vegetable oil, are distributed to families in exchange for enrolling their daughters. These "take-home rations" compensate parents for the loss of their daughters' labours and enable girls to attend school. Wherever such programmes have been introduced, girls' enrolment has increased by at least 50%.

### **World Organization of the Scout Movement (Mr. Paolo Rozera)**

The Scout movement is firmly committed to the concept of lifelong learning and is indeed characterised by it. It is also firmly committed to organizing non-formal education for the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to live a satisfying life in one's community and society. Two principles are central to the Scout movement's work. The first is voluntarism, which is associated with an orientation to serving people and a value system that supports community service. The second principle is youth participation, which means simply that, as a society's young people constitute its future, they should start learning the values of service from an early age. The movement's work in education and service embraces both urban and rural youth.



**ANNEX 1**  
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**updated 11-12-02**

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**Aid agencies workshop**  
**"Education for rural people: targeting the poor"**  
Rome, FAO Headquarters - 12-13 December 2002

**Preliminary Programme**

**Opening Ceremony**

*Iran Room (B016)*

**Thursday, 12 December 2002**

- 8:00 - 9:00      Registration
- 9:00 - 10:30    **Session one: *Setting the stage***  
Chairperson: Ms Ester Zulberti, Chief, Extension, Education and  
Communication Service (SDRE), FAO  
Rapporteur: Mr John Oxenham, Former UNESCO/IDS, Sussex/World  
Bank  
specialist in adult education and education in rural areas
- Development    Opening address by Ms Sissel Ekaas, Director, Sustainable  
Department (SD), FAO:  
*"Education for Rural People: a Crucial Factor for Sustainable  
Development"*
- Foreign Affairs, Italy    *Greetings* from Mr Giandomenico Magliano, Director-General,  
Directorate for Development Cooperation (DGCS), Ministry of
- for                      Speech by Mr Gudmund Hernes, Director of International Institute  
Educational Planning, IIEP/UNESCO:  
*"The over-all framework and challenges of the EFA initiative and its  
relation with this workshop and the flagship on Education for the  
rural*
- objectives*  
Education for    *"Presentation of the flagship initiative, the workshop rationale,  
Service,            and programme"* by Ms Lavinia Gasperini, Senior Officer,  
Rural Development, Extension, Education and Communication  
Sustainable Development Department, FAO

*Sessions reserved to invitees*

*Malaysia Room (B227)*

- 10:30 - 11:00    Coffee-break  
*Continuation of registration*

- 11:00 - 13:00 **Session two: Which is the role of Education in poverty reduction and rural development strategies?**  
Chairperson: Ms Ester Zulberti, FAO  
Overview of main findings of the FAO/SDRE- IIEP/UNESCO study on  
"Education for rural development: towards new policy responses"  
Report from the FAO and IIEP/UNESCO Seminar "Education for development in Asia: experiences and policies lessons" by Mr David Atchoarena, IIEP/UNESCO Program Specialist and Ms Lavinia Gasperini.
- General discussion
- 12:55 - 13:00 Ms Fiorella Ceruti: Logistics information for the day
- 13:00 - 13:10 Group Photo (Flag room, in front of the stairs of the Iran room)
- 13.10 - 14:30 Lunch (FAO Restaurant – Building B - 8<sup>th</sup> Floor)
- 14:30 - 16:00 **Session three: "Show and Tell" session. Agencies will briefly present in providing their recent policies, experiences and lessons learned education to rural people:**  
Chairperson: Ms Ester Zulberti, FAO  
Time keeper: Ms Jennifer Gachich, FAO Volunteer
- 16:00 - 16:30 Break
- 16:30 - 18:30 Continuation of the "Show and Tell"  
Chairperson: Mr Gudmund Hernes, IIEP/UNESCO  
Concluding remarks of the first day by: Ms Ester Zulberti, FAO/Gudmund Hernes, IIEP/UNESCO
- 18:30 - 18:35 Communications for next day and closure by: Ms Lavinia Gasperini, FAO
- 18:35 - 19:00 Facilitators Coordination Meeting (Blue Bar, 8th Floor, building C)
- 20:00 Dinner in Trastevere at a traditional Roman Trattoria (il Buttero, Via della Lungaretta, 156 - Trastevere - Tel: 06-5800517)

**Friday, 13 December 2002**

*Malaysia Room (B227)*

9:00 - 10:30

following

**Panel discussion No. 1:**

**Intervention frameworks and mechanisms:**

**How to better focus on basic education for rural people?**

**The panel will address examples and proposals on how the framework addresses ERP:**

- Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSps),
- Sector Wide Approaches (SWAP),
- United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF),
- Education for All (EFA) fast track initiative,
- EFA action plans,
- The United Nations Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC) Network on Rural Development and Food Security.

Facilitator: Mr John Morris, Senior Advisor – Education/ Scientific, Technical and Advisory Services Directorate/ Policy Branch/ Canadian International Development Agency

Panellists:

1. Mr Christian Fauliau, Senior Economist-Agricultural and Rural Capacity Building Specialist World Bank.
2. Mr Herbert Bergmann, Senior Education Planner, German Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ)
3. Ms Alicia Garcia, UN System Network on Rural Development and Food Security (ACC)

10:30 - 11:00

Coffee Break

11:00 - 12:30

people

**Panel discussion No. 2:**

**Which are the monitoring mechanisms for education for rural and which are the indicators?**

The panel will discuss on:

The basis of donors' monitoring experience: how to monitor improvements in removing disparities in rural people's access and retention in basic education, in the quality of their education within a defined time frame.

Facilitator: Mr David Acker, Professor and Assistant Dean, Iowa State University, USA

Panellists:

- Mr Patrick Gautier, Education for rural development Officer, (SDRE) FAO
- Mr Aoyagi Shigeru, UNESCO, Chief of Literacy and Non-formal Education, Division of Basic Education

- Mr Jean Claude Balmes, Manager of the Education and Training Division Agence Française de Développement

12:30 - 14:00 Lunch (FAO Restaurant - Building B - 8<sup>th</sup> Floor )

14:00 - 15:30 **Panel discussion No. 3:**  
**Donors' coordination for effective aid policies and practices?**  
 How to strengthen the new EFA Flagship on Education for Rural and:

People

- consolidate new partnerships,
- increase access and retention,
- improve quality,
- strengthen capacity to plan and manage education for rural people
- next steps

Facilitator: Mr Charles Maguire, Former Senior Institutional Development Specialist, the World Bank

Panellist:

- Mr Tom Vandenbosch, Project Leader Farmers of the Future, World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF).
- Mr Christian Fauliau, Senior Economist-Agricultural and Rural Capacity Building Specialist The World Bank
- Ms Sukhdeep Brar, South Asia Social Sectors Division, Asian Development Bank
- Ms Malika Ladjali, UNESCO Division for the Promotion of quality education

15:30 - 16:00 Coffee break

*Iran Room (B016)*

16:00 - 17:00 **Winding up: improving education for rural people:** conclusions and remarks by the Rapporteur, Mr John Oxenham and proposals for further actions by Ms Ester Zurberti and Ms Lavinia Gasperini, FAO

Official closure and acknowledgements by Ms Ester Zurberti, FAO

17:00 - 19:30 Rome by night. "Walking and talking"; networking on Education for rural people in front of the most beautiful fountains and piazzas of Rome

20:00  
Pasquino, 1

Dinner at typical Roman Pizzeria (Pizzeria Pasquino, Piazza  
(piazza Navona tel. 06-6893043)

## ANNEX 3

Sustainable Development Department (SD), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

# SDdimensions

SD : Knowledge : Education

February 2003



Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations



Education pour tous



## Launching a new flagship on education for rural people

Also available in [French](#) and [Spanish](#)

### Background

The Sustainable Development Department of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) are inviting member countries, United Nations agencies and civil society to join in the establishment of a new partnership on *Education for Rural People*. The initiative seeks to address rural-urban disparities, which are a serious concern to governments and the international community as a whole. About 70 per cent of the poor live in rural areas. Despite the fact that education is a basic right in itself and an essential prerequisite for reducing poverty, improving the living conditions of rural people and building a food-secure world, children's access to education in rural areas is still much lower than in urban areas, adult illiteracy is much higher and the quality of education is poorer. In this regard, FAO and UNESCO are joining efforts in the establishment of a new flagship within the *Education for All* (EFA) initiative with a focus on *Education for rural people*. The flagship is a call for collaborative action to increase the coordination of efforts targeting the educational needs of rural people. The partnership is open to members committed to working separately and together to promote and facilitate quality basic *Education for rural people*.

### Objectives

The flagship's objectives are to:

- Build awareness on the importance of *Education for rural people* as a crucial step to achieve the Millennium goals of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger and achieving universal primary education ([www.un.org/millenniumgoals/](http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/))
- Overcome the urban/rural education gap
- Increase access to basic *Education for rural people*
- Improve the quality of basic education in rural areas
- Foster the national capacity to plan and implement basic education plans to address the learning needs of rural people

For more information, the concept paper *Targeting the rural poor: the role of education and training* (March 2002, [http://www.fao.org/sd/2002/kn0301a\\_en.htm](http://www.fao.org/sd/2002/kn0301a_en.htm)) can be consulted.

### Activities

*At the national level*

- Technical support to countries willing to address the basic educational needs of the rural people by formulating specific plans of action as part of the national plans on *Education for all*.

### *At the international level*

- Advocate and mobilize partnerships for *Education for rural people* by concentrating on strategic global, regional and international events, and encouraging the same within countries.
- Identify the capacity for different substantive components on *Education for rural people* within partner institutions
- Support the exchange of good practices and knowledge on *Education for rural people*.

## Meetings

The new FAO/UNESCO flagship was officially launched at a side event during the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa, 3 September 2002.

The following are some examples of other international events presenting the flagship:

- Regional workshop on *Education for Rural Development* organized in partnership with FAO, UNESCO and UNESCO- International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), Bangkok, Thailand, 5 -7 November 2002)
- Aid Agencies workshop on *Education for Rural people*, organized by FAO with the technical collaboration of UNESCO and UNESCO-IIEP, Rome, Italy, 12-13 December 2002)
- Youth employment summit 2002, Alexandria, Egypt, 7 - 11 September 2002)
- International symposium on rural education organized by UNESCO Office in Beijing, China, together with the International Research and Training Center for Rural Education (INRULED, China) the Chinese Ministry of Education and the Chinese National Commission for UNESCO, 20 - 23 January 2003).

## Members of the flagship programme

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1. FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
2. UNESCO - United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
3. ICRAF - World Agroforestry Centre
4. IPGRI, International Plant Genetic Resources Institute
5. WFP - World Food Programme
6. CIAT - International Center for Tropical Agriculture
7. Commonwealth Secretariat, United Kingdom

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**Aid Agencies Workshop  
"Education for rural people: targeting the poor"  
Rome, FAO headquarters, 12-13 December 2002**

**“Education for Rural People: a Crucial Factor for Sustainable Development”**

Opening speech by Sissel Ekaas,

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Ladies and Gentlemen, Dear participants and colleagues,

I would like to start my opening remarks by telling you about life in Wikihi, a rural Mozambican village, on the Niassa Lake, near the Tanzanian border.

In Wikihi, the only form of transportation most people have seen is canoes. Cassava and maize are the daily diet for most, with the occasional addition of fish. Among the huts made of mud and thatched roofs, two are bigger than the others: the school and the health centre. In the school, which on Sundays becomes a church, rows of tree trunks serve as desks, and the children write in sand instead of exercise books. The students repeat each grade at least twice; and less than half of those who start primary school conclude it.

But many of the children – whose parents for the most part are illiterate – will never even enter primary school. The teacher himself has only completed grade four, and neither he nor the children -- taught in a multi-grade classroom -- have books. The teacher speaks and the children repeat in chorus, and while they write in the sand, he writes using dried cassava on an old wooden board with holes and bumps.

In the village, there is no electricity and the only existing shop, which is supplied with a few items, has no soap, sugar, salt or matches. With no soap there is no way of protecting the children from ringworm.

In Wikihi, where living conditions are similar to so many other villages in developing countries, the world does not look like a “global village”. In fact, it looks more like an exclusive club. A club where the richest one percent of the people earn as much as the poorest fifty-seven percent. Where 2.8 billion people still live on less than two dollars a day, the vast majority in rural areas.

In our era, inequalities have reached levels unprecedented in world history. Nor has the gap between urban and rural people closed. Think about these large groups:

Some 800 million undernourished people

1.5 billion people who live without access to safe drinking water

2 billion people who live without electricity  
Some 850 million illiterate adults (more than half of whom are women)  
130 million children out of school  
14 million children who have lost their mothers or both parents to AIDS

Among each of these groups – and many of them overlap – the majority lives in rural areas.

Most of the 211 million children and adolescents exploited as workers on cocoa, tobacco or banana plantations – sometimes forced to work more than 12 hours a day in conditions bordering on slavery – are also rural. A large number of these children will join the growing ranks of the next generation of illiterate adults.

In this new millennium, in which our daily news is about terrorism, we know that inequalities feed delinquency and crime, which in-turn often constitute a sign of the poor's exasperation with world inequalities. One of the major inequalities affecting the rural poor is their unequal access to quality education, so important for social and economic development. In Wikihi, as in so many other African, Asian, and Latin American villages, what is needed is an efficient, inclusive and widespread education system, which addresses the basic learning needs of rural people.

Without basic education, rural people cannot comprehend simple texts, like the instructions on a bag of fertilizer, or medicine labels. They can't read the warnings on a box of pesticide, much less improve their lives, increase their productivity, adopt enhanced technologies, or fully benefit from their rights as citizens.

We all know that even though in the past decade international aid has stressed the importance of concentrating on the poor, it has neglected rural areas and that means the majority of disadvantaged people. This phenomenon is particularly true for education. Basic education is a fundamental human right in itself and an essential prerequisite for reducing poverty and for improving the living conditions of rural populations. Yet children's access to education in rural areas is still much lower than in urban areas, where adult literacy and the quality of education are much higher.

The gap between urban and rural illiteracy is widening and in several countries, rural illiteracy is two or three times higher than in urban areas. What's more, curricula and textbooks in primary and secondary schools are often urban-biased, with content that is irrelevant to the needs of rural people, seldom focusing on the skills needed for life in rural areas. There is also a general lack of awareness among ministries of education, agriculture, health, finance and others, not to mention universities and research institutions, concerning the importance of targeting the basic learning needs of rural people.

In order to reduce poverty and achieve the Millennium Development Goals, specifically the first two goals which focus on reducing hunger by half and ensuring universal primary education by 2015, we need to change the traditional working modalities of international aid agencies and address the needs of *the world's biggest neglected majority – rural people*. This can be achieved through new multi-sectoral and interdisciplinary alliances and partnerships among aid specialists working in

education and those working on agriculture and rural development. This is why we are here today.

### **Why FAO accepted the challenge of leading the EFRP flagship**

FAO has organized this *Aid Agencies Workshop on Education for rural people: targeting the poor* with the technical collaboration of UNESCO and the support of the Italian Development Cooperation, to continue to bridge the education gap between rich and poor, between urban and rural areas of developing countries, and to promote equal access to, and the completion of, quality basic education. This workshop is one of several activities foreseen as part of the recently launched Flagship of the “Education for All” Initiative, which focuses on Education for Rural People, jointly launched by Mr Matsuura and Mr Diouf, the Directors-General of UNESCO and FAO, during the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in September of this year.

Several other initiatives have been undertaken to consolidate, expand and work towards the goals of the flagship, such as: a regional workshop for policy makers of Ministries of Education and Agriculture on Education for Rural Development, organized in partnership with UNESCO and its Institute of Education Planning (IIEP), in Bangkok, held during the first week of November 2002; and a book which is to be published on "*Education for Rural Development: towards new policy responses*", jointly prepared by FAO and UNESCO/IIEP. During this workshop we will refer you to them, and discuss which new paths and initiatives we can promote together.

### **Next steps and follow up**

Whilst reaching the rural poor might appear to be more costly and time consuming than reaching the urban or peri-urban poor, and though there is no shortcut to reaching them, we believe this is a task that can no longer be neglected or postponed. If we want to contribute to building a world where peace prevails over war and terrorism, and prosperity over poverty, the cost-effectiveness of international aid for education for rural people needs to be analyzed in the long term and with a holistic approach. New partnerships like the ones we are building here with this workshop need to be put in place to address long-neglected priorities.

As emphasized by our Director-General in Johannesburg, the following are priorities for action for addressing the “Education for Rural People” challenge. We are proposing that this workshop should focus on them, and make recommendations for joint action in the future.

First, **place the education of rural people at the core of National Plans of Education for All and strengthen the institutional capacity to do so.** Efforts aimed at reducing poverty and hunger should therefore be accompanied by good education policies addressing the education of rural people. This can be achieved if the educational needs of rural communities are given due consideration at every level of governance, including planning and finance.

Second, **expand access** to education, and increase attendance and completion rates at schools in rural areas by promoting or supporting initiatives to improve children's nutrition and capacity to learn. These include: school canteens and gardens, information and communication technology, distance education, education of rural girls and women, lifelong education, and flexible school calendars to accommodate the needs of local agricultural production cycles.

Third, **improve the relevance** of education to rural livelihoods and interests. This can be achieved by supporting participatory curriculum development, teacher training, skills for life in a rural environment, nutrition education, and education for HIV/AIDS prevention and mitigation.

Fourth, **forging partnerships**. It is our hope that the international community involved in supporting educational systems in developing countries will turn the spotlight on this problem, work with national authorities that are committed to change, and begin the process of improving the lives of large numbers of rural men, women and children.

FAO stands ready to help transform these and other opportunities into reality.

It is now my pleasure to declare this workshop open and to invite all of you to join FAO, UNESCO and other partners to join the new flagship on *Education for rural people*.

Thank you

Annex 5  
Herness

Annex 6 and 7  
Gasperini Atchoarena PPT



## Options for Promoting Education in Rural Areas

### **The FAO's flagship and the current international trend**

Based on the Dakar Framework of Action, this year's G8-process, and the Fast-Track Initiative led by the World Bank and other donors, the question arises how the flagship in favour of educating the rural poor would fit in. There are a number of parameters that any new initiative in educational development would have to take into account:

- a. Dependable long term support
- b. Donor co-ordination
- c. Emphasis on quality
- d. Emphasis on capacity building
- e. Emphasis on sustainability

These have practical implications:

- a. Countries will expect middle and long-term commitments with regard to financial co-operation and advice.
- b. There can be no isolated projects. Instead, all donors would buy into one overall sector development plan. This takes the form of a SWAP that, ideally, is part of an overarching PRSP. The flagship would have to be willing to join such concerted donor activities and offer services based on its comparative advantages.
- c. It is not only numbers in school that count. Quality in terms of pupil achievement and the quality of inputs becomes the ultimate goals. However, since retention, reduction of repetition and increasing enrolment are linked to quality, there will be synergies at this level.
- d. Building national and local capacity becomes a priority. Sustainability cannot be achieved without it. Since decentralisation of the education sector is being introduced in many countries, and since the scarcity of competent administrators at decentralised levels is well known, the FAO would have a job at hand, given its familiarity with administrative structures in rural areas.

## **Options**

### **Addressing major weaknesses of education in rural areas**

#### **a. Demand Side Weaknesses**

- i. There is, in many rural areas, a relatively weak demand, leading to under-utilised classrooms, in strong contrast to urban areas. There is need for approaches increasing effective demand for education.
- ii. Main factors are direct and opportunity costs, and a perceived low usefulness of education.
- iii. Strong gender stereotypes contribute to low enrolment of girls.

- iv. Vocational training for future farmers is missing in many countries

**b. Supply Side Weakness**

- i. The **service provision** is often not geared towards low-population density situation.
  - 1. There is a need for mechanisms of effective teacher deployment to and retention in rural areas, particularly concerning female teachers
  - 2. It would be useful to promote multigrade teaching
  - 3. This needs appropriate modules for INSET and pre-service training
  - 4. It also needs organisational models for INSET that take distances and the need for lodging into account
  - 5. School locations need to be selected taking into account the walking capacity of children of different ages,
  - 6. There is a need for low-cost school buildings adapted to local climatic conditions, and local building technologies
  
- ii. There often is a poor **match** of the **school year** with the **agricultural calendar**
  - 1. It would be useful to promote regional and local autonomy in school organisation in all aspects that do not jeopardise the equality of opportunities
  
- iii. Certain **legal aspects** often limit full community involvement:
  - 1. It might be useful to transfer legal ownership of school buildings to rural local councils
  - 2. Local councils or other locally constituted bodies should have full or shared authority in teacher employment, management, and supervision, provided certain requirements are met. The flagship could explore a range of locally feasible arrangements.
  - 3. There is a need for developing and training for community participation in school management and resource mobilisation.
  
- iv. **Curriculum Relevance** might be unsatisfactory. This affects demand.
  - 1. Practical problems in rural areas could be used to train general skills, using them as examples in literacy, numeracy, and general science;
  - 2. Science could be taught with a practical orientation, using the local environment for teaching, illustration, and demonstration;
  - 3. An ecological orientation of the whole curriculum, and nature studies or general science in particular, could be helpful.

4. Life skills concerning health and hygiene, directly relevant to local conditions, should be included.

All this could be accommodated either in the overall curriculum or in the space reserved for local content, often 20-25% of total teaching time. This would require training in curriculum and teaching materials development.

- v. **Other curriculum issues:** respect for cultural, religious, and moral values needs to be ascertained.

**vi. Teaching methods**

1. The main issue here is the language of instruction. Countries could be supported in introducing local or regional languages in the first three grades of primary education. In rare cases, this would even include linguistic studies.

### **Non-Options for Education**

**1. At the level of objectives**

- a. Reducing the rural-urban migration is not an objective that can be achieved
- b. Creating positive attitudes towards agriculture, and manual labour depends much more on the economy and its income structure than on education.

**2. At the level of approaches**

- a. Prevocational training in general education (primary schools) does not yield the expected results.
- b. Separate education system (curricula) for rural areas are usually rejected by the rural population.

Practical Subjects in Basic Education –  
Relevance At Last or Second Rate Education?

Lessons from 40 Years of Experience

Paper for the Aid Agencies Workshop

Education for Rural People: Targeting the Poor

Rome, FAO Headquarters – 12-13 December 2002

by Herbert Bergmann, GTZ

Eschborn, December 2002

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## Summary

Since modern formal education was introduced in developing countries, there have been complaints that education was too academic, not preparing children for life. The relevance of education was challenged, and particularly so for rural areas. This is a worldwide, longstanding debate. The conceptual discussion has not been limited to primary education but has also touched on secondary education.

German Development Co-operation has been active in this field in a number of countries, 8 in Africa, 2 in Latin America, and 1 in Asia. Two international events on the topic were organised in Africa (Tanzania 1985, Zimbabwe 1990). A pilot project to link education with regional rural development was carried out between 1987 and 1989.

The demand came from policy makers and parents alike. It was a demand for an education that would help to improve everyday life, and provide access to salaried employment. The demand was strongest in Sub-Saharan Africa. Elsewhere, it often appeared in socialist countries.

Expectations had economic reasons, often supported by socialist ideology going beyond utilitarian productivity gains. Sub-Saharan Africa had witnessed, in the first years after independence, an extraordinary job expansion with a premium on formal education. This had reinforced the experience under colonial rule. Such expectations were unrealistic in the short and medium term. Seen through the eyes of parents and rural communities, they are legitimate expectations of return on investment.

There are a number of models for work oriented, practical education.

1. Early in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, a **pedagogical reform** movement emerged in Germany that intended to move away from an elitist, academic education, incorporating manual work.
2. **Colonial education**, whether organised by the administration or the missions, included practical subjects very early on, mostly through gardening and farming activities. Most of the time, this did not apply to the children of the colonizers.
3. In **Socialist education**, manual work is an integral part of education. Every child would have to learn a trade. This led to polytechnical education for everybody.

The following approaches have been developed based on one or several of the models:

1. **Ruralisation** of education was promoted by UNESCO in the sixties and seventies of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.
2. **Agriculture as a topic or subject** of general primary education were common, particularly in Africa.
3. **Prevocational training** was provided, in certain cases, through practical subjects - Agriculture, Domestic Science, and Arts&Crafts (woodwork, masonry, and metal work).
4. “**Builders’ Brigades**” were organised in Botswana. Skill training, income generation for the school, and the creation of small enterprises by school leavers were combined.
5. China has a system of **work-oriented education** in upper primary and work- and technology-oriented education in the lower secondary school.

6. **Basic Science and Technology Studies** reduce the ambitious approaches reported above to a classroom centred subject whose costs are the same as those of any subject of general education.
7. **Environmental education** was the guiding focus in other instances. This also led to practical content.
8. **Vocationalisation** of secondary education was tried out in several Latin American countries: specialised secondary schools were organised in such a way that students would graduate with a vocational certificate and the right to take up their studies at university level.

### **Lessons Learned**

Results have been mixed and, most of the time, discouraging. *The best basic education is a good general education.* The experience with practical subjects can be summarised as follows:

1. The practical components added to the general subjects overtax primary school teachers. Few teachers were able to teach the practical content correctly. Teacher pre-service training for these subjects is usually as deficient as the training for general subjects.
2. Well-qualified secondary school teachers are 'poached' (Peru). They got offers from the private sector and left the profession.
3. The budget can finance neither investment nor running costs. Other sources of income are unreliable. Teacher training for practical subjects is far more expensive because of the workshops, land and equipment needed.
4. None of the approaches with production actually mastered the issues of accountability and correct use of the income generated through pupils' efforts. The investment and recurrent costs proved too high to be supported on a regular basis.
5. During examinations, practical subjects count for less than general education subjects and, in cases of doubt, they are ignored.
6. The ruralised school system was rejected by the rural population. As the system did not offer any possibilities for further studies, it was perceived as a dead end.
7. The concept of Vocationalised Secondary Schools was discredited since a World Bank Study in Tanzania and Colombia showed that the expected effects did not materialise.

### **The Way Ahead**

The core functions of formal education are the three Rs, and, in general, learning to learn and reason. Relevance in terms of practical skills needs to be subordinated to the fulfilment of these core functions. There cannot be a trade-off between one and the other.

1. *Relevance to real life is possible.* In Rwanda, the subject 'Vocational Training and Technology' was set up, which, if need be, could be taught without tools, working materials and workshops, but still prepare young people for work. The approach to incorporate vocational training and technical instruction into the general curriculum in China has a chance because, and so long as, it corresponds to the prevailing

ideology. Healthcare and environmental education, integrated in subjects such as general knowledge and science education, will increase the relevance of these subjects.

2. *However, the errors of the past need to be avoided.* The best strategy would be to enhance relevance to out-of school and beyond-school life in all schools according to the local environment. An example would be the topic of HIV/AIDS.
3. The space for local content in the curriculum of certain countries provides room for locally relevant contents and skills.
4. Girls' education is most often held back by very traditional gender stereotypes and roles. If attacked upfront, resistance against female education might become stronger. One strategy would be to take up the skill requirements of major traditional female roles in school.
5. The expectations of parents and children/youth alike need to be oriented towards realistic objectives. No school education can provide jobs and income. It can improve school leavers' chances in the competition for income opportunities. Nobody should promise more.
6. It might be possible to offer parallel curricula in rural areas, formally equivalent to the education in urban areas. However, this will be accepted only if it leads to certificates of equal value.



## **Introduction**

### **The Issue**

Ever since formal, Western type education was introduced in developing countries, there have been complaints that education was too academic and did not prepare children for the life they were going to lead after school. The relevance of education was challenged, and particularly so for rural areas where the majority of the population used to live and in many countries still does. This has turned into a worldwide debate, not restricted to any of the continents in development and does not spare the countries of the North. It has been discussed in one or the other form since the early years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The conceptual discussion has not been limited to primary education but has also touched on secondary education.

### **GTZ's Experience**

German Development Co-operation has been active in this field, providing technical co-operation to a number of countries, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, China, Kenya, Nicaragua, Peru, Rwanda, Senegal, Tanzania, and Togo. A workshop on Formal and non-formal Education in Regional Rural Development Projects in Africa was held in Tanzania in 1985<sup>23</sup>, and a Conference on Primary School Agriculture in Sub-Saharan Africa was organised in 1990 in Zimbabwe<sup>24</sup>. From 1987 to 1990, GTZ carried out the pilot project 'Training and Educational Components in Regional Rural Development Projects' in three African countries, Central African Republic, Togo and Senegal.

### **Demand**

The demand was strongest in Sub-Saharan Africa, for a variety of reasons. Elsewhere, it often appeared in countries with a strong socialist orientation. It came from policy makers in the field of education and parents alike, a demand for an education that would help to improve everyday life, and, more important, provide access to salaried employment. It was not a demand for skills as an outcome of formal education but for the income that such skills would procure. Certificates count more than practical skills.

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<sup>23</sup> Promotion of Rural Regional Development Through Formal and Non Formal Education, Tanga, Tanzania, October 1-12, 1985

<sup>24</sup> African Workshop on Primary School Agriculture, Kadoma, Zimbabwe, November 18-28, 1990.

This had become abundantly clear in Ph. Foster's famous study "The vocational school fallacy in development planning" as early as 1965. At that time, there was a belief among the professionals of education that the inclination of young people towards white collar jobs could be changed by a practically oriented curriculum towards production-oriented skills such as farming, trades, and crafts. These were thought to be more needed in development than office jobs. According to his findings, the job aspirations of students were not determined by the curriculum taught in their (middle) schools but rather by the opportunities offered in the modern sector of a country's economy. This was true in a setting where practical skills taught in middle schools were rather broad and unspecific – Gardening, Housecraft (Domestic Science, Home Science), Woodwork, and Arts&Crafts. Forty years later<sup>25</sup>, when both the economy and the education system had become more complex, it was quite clear that students would choose schools according to their perception of future opportunities in the labour market, and that schools could do very little to influence students' orientation towards work (King and Martin, 2002). This mechanism is valid as well in basic education. Findings from Kenya in 2000<sup>26</sup> show that parents try to provide quality education to their children. However, they prefer advanced secondary and university education to practical subjects.

## **Expectations**

### **Economics, values, and lessons of the past**

Expectations had underlying economic reasons, often supported by a strong socialist ideology that went beyond mere productivity gains.

The independence movement in Sub-Saharan Africa had witnessed, in the first years after independence, an extraordinary job expansion in the administration with a premium on any kind of completed formal education. This had only reinforced the experience under colonial rule when people who had successfully completed primary school were employed in the colonial administration and had huge advantages compared to those without formal education. Politicians therefore had a hard time explaining why gradually it became ever more difficult for school leavers to secure an income in the modern sector.

### **Realism and Legitimacy**

In most development contexts, such expectations were unrealistic in the short and medium term. Seen through the eyes of parents and whole rural communities who often made huge financial sacrifices to send somebody to primary and secondary school, they are legitimate expectations of return on investment. Beyond the expectations of income, there are expectations that are even more justified – the expectations that what children learn in school be instrumental in improving everyday life. In rural areas, there is often little demand for the 3 Rs in general (reading, writing, and arithmetic). But the time in school is most of the time the only chance children have to learn in a systematic way. Direct costs and opportunity costs make it an expensive period, too. It is only legitimate to demand that what pupils learn during five to seven years have a direct bearing on their life – in other words, that they have an opportunity to acquire life skills.

## **Models**

There are a number of models for work oriented, practical education in basic education.

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<sup>25</sup> Foster's first set of original data was collected in 1959 in Ghana.

<sup>26</sup> Randow, Nora von, p.69: „Generell haben die meisten Eltern den Wunsch und das Ziel, ihren Kindern eine möglichst umfassende Schulbildung zu gewährleisten. Dabei ist jedoch eine starke Tendenz zu weiterführenden Schulen und Hochschulbildung erkennbar. ... Das Erlernen praktischer Fähigkeiten spielt .. eine untergeordnete Rolle, obwohl viele Eltern die klar erkennbaren Vorteile solcher Lernfächer .. erkennen.“

### **The Reform School Movement**

In Germany, a pedagogical reform movement emerged as early as 1908 (Kerschensteiner) that intended to integrate work and school under the label of “Arbeitsschule” (work-school). This type of school was supposed to foster autonomy, a positive attitude towards work, rationality, overcoming obstacles, and the capacity to work in a team. Work was a pedagogical instrument to foster adequate learning. Education was supposed to convey both practical and intellectual skills that would really matter in later life.

### **Colonial Education**

All colonial administrations and the mission schools included practical subjects very early on, mostly through gardening and farming activities. In many colonies in Africa, the curriculum contained Agriculture/Gardening for boys and girls, Arts&Crafts for boys, and Domestic Science for girls. This had partly economic reasons – boarding schools needed farm produce to feed the boarders, and partly political and ethical reasons: it was meant to fight what they perceived as laziness, and it should teach the dignity of labour, and of manual labour at that, to the colonial population. The children of the colonizers did not learn these subject, which had a strong demonstration effect with political connotations. It was therefore abandoned in all former French colonies at independence, whereas the former British colonies tried to reform it.

### **Socialist Work-Oriented Education**

In Socialist education, manual work was an integral part of education. For philosophical, socio-political, and economic reasons, every child would have to learn a trade. This led to polytechnical education for everybody. In socialist ethics, labour had a higher moral value than capital. Everybody had to work and acknowledge the dignity of labour, and manual labour in particular. Education had to lay the foundation for a positive attitude<sup>27</sup> towards work. Polytechnical education became an element of general education in all countries belonging to the Socialist Block. At the end of the full educational cycle (primary and secondary school), students would master one trade and fulfil the formal requirements for admission to university. In the People’s Republic of China, during the Great Leap Forward, schools were expected to participate actively in production<sup>28</sup> and to turn out qualified workers<sup>29</sup>.

### **Approaches Ruralisation**

Ruralisation of education was an approach promoted by UNESCO in the sixties and seventies of the 20<sup>th</sup> century<sup>30</sup>. Education was meant to become directly relevant to conditions of life and work in rural areas. This meant adapting curriculum content to the realities of rural areas,

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<sup>27</sup> Wang, 2002:118 “Encouragement of the creation of locally established and managed schools appears to have been predicated upon the claims that such schools would: save educational expenditures; destroy the capitalist intellectuals’ domination of the schools; popularise education; re-educate intellectuals; coordinate education so that the nation’s youth would develop the proper attitude toward productive labor ...”

<sup>28</sup> Wang, 2002:117: “The education revolution was based on the concepts of ‘politics in command’ in studying and teaching, and that ‘education must serve the political ends of the proletariat’. Education professionals and students at all levels should participate in various types of productive labor in factories, mines, rural people’s communes and other labor sites nearby the school.”

<sup>29</sup> Wang, 2002:118: “The policy of ‘walking on two legs’ required ‘both the simultaneous promotion of various forms of education (general and vocational, children’s and adult ...’ Among the various types of minban schools established at this time [1957-58, HB] the ‘agricultural middle school’, a half-day secondary school with nearly all courses unrelated to politics and agricultural techniques cut off, was set up in early every commune.”

<sup>30</sup> UNESCO organised three projects that became famous during their time: the Bunumbu project in Sierra Leone, the Kwamsisi community school project in Tanzania, and the Namutamba project in Uganda.

adapting the school year to local and regional agricultural cycles and their labour requirements, and including practical activities such as school gardening, school farm work and animal husbandry. In its more extreme form, it meant a parallel education system without links to general education. This form was tested and practised in Upper Volta, today's Burkina Faso. It was not well received by the beneficiary population and was therefore tacitly abandoned.

### **School Farm Work and Primary School Agriculture**

Agricultural topics and subjects as part of general primary education had a longer life, particularly in Africa. In Tanzania, the colonial tradition was reinterpreted in the context of Ujamaa – African Socialism under the guiding principle of education for self-reliance and made compulsory for Tanzanian pupils, no matter their race.

### **Practical Subjects as Prevocational Training**

In **Rwanda**, in grades 7 and 8 of primary school, about half the teaching time was devoted to three practical subjects, Agriculture, Domestic Science (Home Science), and Crafts (woodwork, masonry, and metal work). Again, colonial tradition, this time of Belgian origin, was taken up. It was made more coherent, received much more attention, and had a clearly stated objective: school leavers should be able to apply a range of modern agricultural, technical, and household skills to everyday life, and to solve a number of everyday problems much better than before<sup>31</sup>. While for education planners and curriculum developers it was clear that at the end of primary school, pupils would not be skilled workers or craftsmen, many local politicians sold the new approach to parents by making just that promise.

In **Kenya**, the educational reform introduced in 1985 in fact put a strong emphasis on the practical subjects Home Science, Agriculture, and Arts&Crafts, introduced in order to promote respect for and inclination towards practical work and impart useful skills and knowledge to the children.

The attitudinal objectives are typical for all these attempts starting in the early sixties. They are unrealistic since they are based on wrong assumptions about what shapes parents' and pupils' attitudes towards work and economic activities in general. **This approach must be considered as failed and should not be taken up in future.**

### **Builders' Brigades**

"Builders' Brigades" were organised in **Botswana**. Skill training, income generation for the school, and the creation of small enterprises by school leavers were combined<sup>32</sup>. **This is also a failed approach.**

### **Work- and Technology Education**

The **People's Republic of China** is practising a system of work education in the upper grades of primary school and work- and technology education in the lower grades of secondary school. In rural areas, the emphasis is on trades and skills needed locally. For details, see the homepage of a GTZ-sponsored project under <http://www.fgbsuzhou.com>. This is an attempt at keeping the valuable core of the education policies promoted during the "Great Leap Ahead". For a foundation, it has the same mixture of ideological-philosophical and economic reasoning. However, the approach has become more realistic. It works in a context where many schools continue running production units – small factories, farms, service companies. **The approach currently practised in China has a potential in a specific political and ideological environment. It would not succeed in a non-socialist environment.**

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<sup>31</sup> The term used was "mieux se débrouiller dans la vie" – get by in life.

<sup>32</sup> The author of the concept was Patrick van Rendsburg.

### **Vocationalisation of Secondary Schools**

In several **Latin American countries**, specialised secondary schools were organised in such a way that students would graduate with a vocational certificate and the right to take up their studies at university level. The case we know best is the ESEP-model in Peru (Escuela Superior de Educación Profesional). **This is also a failed approach.**

### **Basic Science and Technology Studies**

When the practical subjects approach was abandoned, **Rwanda** introduced a new subject, “Basic Science and Technology Studies” that does away with expensive workshops, tools and raw materials, and land for school farms. Syllabi and appropriate teaching and learning materials for grades one through six have been developed. The subject focuses on topics that can be taught in an ordinary classroom, using books, wall-charts, small experiments, demonstrations, and nature walks. It develops pupils’ observational skills and general manual dexterity, and focuses on things and problems available in the local community for practical examples and illustrations. Basic demonstrations concerning plant life can be carried out “on the window sill” of classrooms and on very small plots of land in the schoolyard. A similar approach was tested in **Togo** (see Buchholz: 1992). The Science Education Quality Improvement Project (SEQIP) in **Indonesia**, following a nationwide approach, nevertheless developed a particular package for remote rural areas. This package contains science kits and an approach to teacher in-service training suitable for regions with widely scattered schools. Details can be seen under <http://www.seqip.de/>. **This is a potentially promising approach.**

### **Environmental Education in Primary School**

**Zimbabwe** had introduced Environmental & Agricultural Science (EAS) as a core subject in primary school. It was practice-oriented and geared to situations of pupils’ everyday world. The emphasis had shifted from a prevocational towards an ecological orientation focusing on sustainability. In practice, however, it had retained many previous elements such as school garden work and farming. Basic scientific knowledge and principles relevant to agriculture and in line with pupils’ age and experience were incorporated in a reorganised science subject. This should be taught in such a way that the relevance to local agricultural problems and practices became clear. **This also is a potentially promising approach.**

### **Lessons Learned**

Results have been mixed and, most of the time, discouraging.

### **Refusal of a Separate School System**

The ruralised school system was rejected by the majority of rural parents whose children were supposed to be its main beneficiaries. As the system did not offer any possibilities for further studies, it was perceived as a dead end.

### **Effectiveness**

The idea that primary schools could impart usable and marketable skills beyond the 3Rs proved a failure.

### **Quality**

Quality has always been a major problem. Rapid expansion of education had led to compromises concerning teacher employment; large numbers of untrained teachers were teaching. Good practical education required as much or more teaching competence as general education. Gardening and school farm work was often less well done than similar activities in the farms and gardens of illiterate parents<sup>33</sup>. Agricultural innovations taught at school often went against well-established local farming practice and therefore did not catch on (e.g. single

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<sup>33</sup> Buchholz:1992, p.51, translation mine: “Teachers do not seem suitable to instruct pupils in farming and gardening skills. A quotation by a Senegalese teacher illustrates this point when he says: ‘The children know better than me how to do all this.’ ”

cropping, compost work, gardening in straight lines). Well-motivated female teachers were able to teach Domestic Science reasonably well, but Arts&Crafts more often than not presented insurmountable problems. Planners usually underestimated the time it took teachers to become reasonably proficient in techniques that were uncommon in rural areas.

### **Counterproductive Methods - Manual Labour as Punishment**

Far too often, teachers used school garden work as a form of punishment. The message about the value of manual labour this practice conveyed was disastrous and counterproductive.

### **Accountability and Management of Income**

None of the approaches with production (e.g. in gardening and school farming) actually mastered the issues of accountability and correct use of the income generated through pupils' efforts. This could neither be achieved at the individual level nor at the institutional one. A number of teachers and headmasters would use the school garden or farm produce for their own benefit. Sometimes, they bought it below market prices; sometimes they used it without paying anything. The education sector authorities failed to come up with appropriate regulations. Given the financial crisis in many countries and the corresponding salary arrears for teachers, it would have made sense to partly legalise this practice. But this was never done. Therefore, pupils and parents alike came to resent school farm work, especially when teaching was of poor quality.

### **Examinations**

A subject that is not examined ends up not being taught properly. When examination time approaches, and sometimes during the whole of the last year of primary school, periods allotted to "non-essential" subjects are being used for examination preparations. In most cases, practical subjects were not examinable.

### **Costs and Finance**

The investment and recurrent costs proved too high to be supported by the national sector budget, by communities or parental contributions. A study done in 1990 shows that even the costs for good-quality teaching of gardening and farming at the end of primary school could be quite high, and beyond the reach of the sector authorities. To develop usable skills, each school would need an additional teacher specialised in agriculture, and at least some auxiliary staff for the school farm. Curriculum development would involve two Ministries, Education and Agriculture. Pupils would need additional books on agriculture, total teaching time would be quite high. To allow farming practice at a reasonable scale, each class would need about 1.000 m<sup>2</sup> of land and access to water. In densely populated rural areas, land would become a problem. Tools, farm inputs, and crops would need safe storage facilities. In addition, good quality tools, a steady supply of seeds, and some fertiliser would also be needed. Land, facilities, and supply all mean an initial investment, and funds for replacement and annual purchases. Thus, a full-grown skill development scheme would overtax the budget of basic education. For details, see Annex 2: Resource Requirements of Different Concepts of Teaching Agriculture.

In the past, different countries have tried to teach agriculture in primary schools with far fewer resources than mentioned here. This has inevitably led to very poor quality, and has discredited the whole approach.

There certainly is a need for skill development in agriculture. This should be addressed, however, through full-scale rural vocational training schemes targeting a much smaller number of potential students in centres specialised to this effect.

Any non-agricultural craft needing a separate workshop with specialised tools, equipment, and a minimal supply of raw materials, was much more expensive than teaching agricultural skills. The approach used in Rwanda in the eighties was really low-cost– very simple

structures as workshops, locally produced work benches (often makeshift), no power tools, raw materials that could mostly be found in the communities. And yet, it needed special measures (e.g. annual national competitions) to motivate communities and parents to provide what it needed to do a minimum of practical teaching.

The GTZ-pilot project on Training and Educational Components in Regional Rural Development Projects has produced cost estimates of teachers' guides to be used in approaches where agricultural topics are treated in General Science, Nature Studies or Environmental Studies. The main investment is developing these materials. Development costs accounted for about 75% of total costs. The remaining 25% pay for occasional revisions, printing and distribution. The average cost per school (two sets of materials for the teachers) excluding development costs would be estimated at between 42 and 75 Euro (see Annex 1: Cost Structure of Teaching/Learning Materials). The larger the print runs, the lower this cost would be and the closer the total costs per school would get to this estimate. As these materials would be used in one of the general subjects, usually Science or Nature Studies, where books are needed anyway, not all of this cost would be additional. **Cost-Effectiveness** A famous World Bank Study on Vocationalised Secondary Schools showed that the expected effects did not materialise despite heavy investments. The study by Psacharopoulos and Loxley, done in 1985, is a thorough analysis of curriculum diversification in secondary education in Colombia and Tanzania. Through the use of tracer surveys and rigorous economic analysis, the authors consider access, internal efficiency, external efficiency, and cost-effectiveness. Its main weakness is that it is restricted to two countries only, but even so, it cannot easily be dismissed.

This study has had far-reaching effects on the Bank's policy towards financing practical subjects in general education. Findings and conclusions have been generalised to primary education. The Bank has systematically rejected such an approach. In Rwanda, grades seven and eight of primary education, devoted mostly to practical subjects, have been abolished owing to Bank pressure. In Kenya, practical subjects were not abolished but lost their importance.

### **Manpower Issues**

With a few notable exceptions, teachers were not able to teach the practical content, both in terms of knowledge and skills, correctly.

Teaching practical skills needs solid preparation. Teacher pre-service training for these subjects is usually as deficient as the training for general subjects. Because of the workshops, land and equipment needed, it is also far more expensive. It is, therefore, not easy to get well-trained, qualified teachers. Since usually, only a small number of students went for vocational education and training, there was no pool from which to recruit teachers that had the required technical skills.

Very good teachers often got offers from the private sector and left the profession. This was particularly true at secondary level, where skills could be rather advanced and specialised. Vocationalised secondary school suffered a lot from teacher attrition. The education sector could simply not pay competitive salaries.

### **Competition with local producers**

Where practical subjects were taught in good quality, and school workshops and gardens produced reasonable quantities, this was often resented as disloyal competition by local craftsmen and commercial farmers since schools produced at zero labour costs.

### **The Way Ahead - What Options Remain Relevance and the Core Functions of School**

The core functions of formal education are reading, writing, mathematics, and, in general, learning to learn and reason. Relevance in terms of practical skills needs to be subordinated to the fulfilment of these core functions. There cannot be a trade-off between one and the other. However, it should be possible to combine the general skills and contents with a certain measure of relevance, and such combinations should be enhanced.

Buchholz (1992:52) reaches the following conclusions:

Providing basic knowledge concerning issues and topics relevant for everyday life is in line with ... the position that maintains that it is easier with children than with adults to help build a frame of mind that will later on facilitate learning and understanding something completely new.

A subject like applied basic science or nature studies, geared towards the surrounding reality, not only reinforces learning the 3Rs and the language of wider communication but also helps to fulfil the mission of the school to prepare children for life better than an orientation towards production and agricultural topics. This is certainly also true for African societies that are not static, look for new activities and experience a strong rural-urban migration. With the help of the key qualifications acquired through such an approach, a youth will be better equipped to master life, no matter whether he or she remains in the country side or “escapes” to the cities.

#### **Rural Education: Parallel but Equivalent**

Instead of going for separate school systems in rural areas, it might be more successful to offer parallel systems that are formally and for all practical purposes equivalent to the education received in urban areas. The main criterion for equivalence is the examination system. While examinations would have to differ in content since there would be curricular differences, they must lead to certificates of equal value. A “parallel system” can differ from other regional systems not only with regard to parts of the curriculum but also with regard to the school year (beginning and end, vacation periods in line with regional labour requirements), the daily schedule and the weekly timetable, the extent of multigrade teaching, the patterns of school buildings, provisions made to attract and keep teachers, and the potential to raise income from the local community. **These are clearly areas for support.**

#### **Enhancing Relevance across the Board**

The best strategy would be to enhance relevance to out-of school and beyond school life in all schools according to the local environment. An example would be the topic of HIV/AIDS. Certain topics would be specific to rural areas, e.g. applying general science to farming. Others, e.g. health in general and HIV/AIDS in particular, would receive differential treatment according to local conditions.

#### **Local Content in the Curriculum**

Care should be taken to work within the existing national curriculum. Usually, regionalised curricula will simply not be implemented<sup>34</sup>. In certain countries, the curriculum provides room for locally relevant contents and skills. Sometimes, up to 25% of teaching time is reserved for local content. Arrangements have been made to have such content examined. Very often, regional, district and local education authorities do not have the skills for such curriculum development. Very detailed curricula for Agriculture, Arts&Crafts, and Domestic Science are available, many of them with a spiral structure. **This is an area for support.**

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<sup>34</sup> see Buchholz:1992, p. 52/53



### **Low and No-Cost Approaches**

Based on the experience in Rwanda, GTZ has developed an approach that does away with expensive workshops, tools and raw materials, and land for school farms. It touched upon curriculum and materials development, decentralised teacher in-service training, and ran try-outs in schools. It was designed in such a way that it could be taught in the usual classroom setting, although it is more effective if some gardening is possible and a few simple tools can be mobilised. Central to the approach is establishing decentralised teacher in-service training capacities.

### **Shaping Expectations**

The expectations of parents and children/youth alike need to be oriented towards realistic objectives. No school education can provide jobs and income, it can, at best, improve school leavers' chances in the competition for job and income opportunities. Politicians and administrators should not promise more.

### **Using Gender Roles**

Girls' education is most often held back by very traditional gender stereotypes and roles. If attacked up-front, resistance against female education is usually reinforced. One strategy would be to take up the skill requirements of the role of the housewife and mother and teach some of the corresponding skills to girls. This was current practice in a number of European countries right into the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Almost certainly, it would enhance the demand for girls' education in many countries with large gender gaps.

### **Conclusion**

The relevance of general education can be enhanced, and certainly so in rural areas, provided the errors of the past are avoided. However, relevance is but one of the issues to be addressed in order to improve education in rural areas. Other issues might be more important, depending on the situation. The optimal mix of measures to promote education for the rural poor needs to be identified in each country separately.

The impression that education in or for rural areas is a second rate education needs to be avoided at all costs. Where it exists, it will certainly diminish the demand for education. In order to avoid it, it must visibly be at par with education dispensed in urban areas. This means that it has to provide the same certificates, produce the same level of achievement, and have the same quality characteristics as education elsewhere in the country.

Relevant education content will, by itself, stimulate demand. Relevance has a utilitarian, a cultural, and a moral aspect. Content that is perceived as useful, in line with the cultural, religious and moral values of a population will enhance the attractiveness of education.

With reference to cultural values, it is very important that education is not seen as threatening. This risk seems to be more pronounced in rural than in urban areas. Any such perception of a threat will weaken the demand for education. The support of local leaders is crucial in this respect, as we have experienced in Pakistan.

Other issues relate to logistics and legal aspects: the distance to schools, the transport requirements for teacher INSET, the legal ownership of school buildings, the locus of authority over teachers. How these issues are being tackled will make quite some difference in the way education in rural areas is accepted.

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## Annexes

### Annex 1: Cost Structure of Teaching/Learning Materials

Time requirements (in months)	Teaching/Learning Materials for Schools			Extension Guide	Motivational Story	Literacy Materials	Total
	Senegal	Togo	CAR	CAR	CAR	Senegal	
Preparation	2	1		1	1	1	6
Design	7	6		5	3	7	28
Trial Edition	1			1	1	2	5
Try-out	12						12
Revision & Production	6	7					13
<b>Total</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>14</b>		<b>7</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>Cost Items</b>							
Advisor Salary Costs	22.000 DM	32.800 DM		24.000 DM	10.400 DM	21.600 DM	110.800 DM
Travel Expenses	3.000 DM	3.000 DM		2.000 DM	1.000 DM	2.000 DM	11.000 DM
Per Diem	5.500 DM	8.200 DM		6.000 DM	2.600 DM	5.400 DM	27.700 DM
local development costs	20.548 DM	14.441 DM		11.678 DM	5.369 DM	9.684 DM	61.720 DM
local print costs	7.992 DM	27.935 DM		6.553 DM	3.553 DM	10.210 DM	56.243 DM
Revision	9.023 DM						9.023 DM
Development Costs	51.048 DM	58.441 DM		43.678 DM	19.369 DM	38.684 DM	211.220 DM
Production and Distribution	17.015 DM	27.935 DM		6.553 DM	3.553 DM	10.210 DM	65.266 DM
Total Costs 1987-89	68.063 DM	86.376 DM		50.231 DM	22.922 DM	48.894 DM	276.486 DM
Production and Distribution 2002	22.451 DM	36.860 DM		8.647 DM	4.688 DM	13.472 DM	86.118 DM
Total Costs at 2002 Prices (DM)	89.808 DM	113.971 DM		66.279 DM	30.245 DM	64.515 DM	364.817 DM
Production and Distribution (Euro)	11.479,0 €	18.846,2 €		4.421,1 €	2.396,9 €	6.888,1 €	
Total Costs in Euro	45.918,1 €	58.272,4 €		33.887,9 €	15.464,0 €	32.986,0 €	186.528,0 €
<b>Teaching/Learning Materials</b>	3 volumes:	4 volumes	3 volumes:				
	1: 30 Topics Marketing	40 topics grades 5 & 6	1: 30 Topics Marketing				
	2: 19 garden crops	Series of pictures	2: 19 garden crops				
	3: 32 lesson notes for 10 subjects	lesson plans and syllabuses	3: 32 lesson notes for 10 subjects				
schools equipped with materials	170	253	105				
literacy groups						8	
Total Cost per school or literacy group	167,0 €	230,3 €	167,0 €			4.123,2 €	
Production and Distribution costs per school	41,7 €	74,5 €	41,7 €			861,0 €	
Proportion of development costs	75,0%	67,7%		87,0%	84,5%	79,1%	76,4%

### Annex 2: Resource Requirements of Different Concepts of Teaching Agriculture

**Resource Requirements of Different Approaches to Teaching Agriculture in Primary School**

<b>Cost Item</b>	<b>Vocationalization</b>	<b>Science Teaching</b>	<b>Environmental Education</b>
<b>Staff</b>			
agricultural specialist per class	0,25		
ordinary teacher	1	1	1
watchman for farm/garden	1		
farm labourer per hectare	1		
<b>Teacher Training</b>			
Pre-Service (hours/teacher)	240		
In-Service (hours/teacher)	180	180	180
<b>Curriculum Development</b>			
Ministry of Education	x	x	x
Ministry of Agriculture	x		
<b>Teaching Materials</b>			
for pupils	technical books	general science book with reference and applications to agriculture	general science book with reference to the environment, applied to farming
for teachers	reference books, teachers' guides	teachers' guide on integrating science & agriculture	teachers' guide on integrating science & agriculture, emphasising environmental issues
<b>Instruction Time (hours/year)</b>	430	129	129
Years in primary school	2	3	5
Total teaching time	860	387	645
<b>Inspection and Supervision</b>	+++	+	+
<b>Land</b>			
per pupil (in m <sup>2</sup> )	20	2	2
per crop (in m <sup>2</sup> )	20		
<b>Enclosure</b>	x	x	x
<b>Facilities</b>			
tool storage	x		
farm inputs	x		
crop storage	x		
<b>Water</b>	x	x	x
<b>Tools</b>			
standard (class sets per 4 classes)	1	1	1
specialised modern (class sets per 4 classes)	1		
<b>Seed materials</b>	x	small amounts	small amounts
<b>Animals</b>	x		
<b>Fertiliser</b>	x	small amounts	small amounts
<b>Pesticides</b>	x		
<b>Veterinary Drugs</b>	x		

## **Improving Agriculture for Rural People**

**Christian Fauliau**

**Senior Economist-Agricultural and Rural Capacity Building Specialist**

### **Panel 1. How best to focalise on basic education in rural areas**

I come from an Agricultural and Rural Development Division of the World Bank, and my speech is given from the point of view of a rural developer rather than an education specialist. However, it is useful to show how the two subjects are inevitably linked.

I would like firstly to underline the importance of FAO's idea to place importance on the access of rural populations and the poor in order to achieve 'Education for All'. Lack of schooling, education and training is often the result of problems, which are external to formal education or training systems. The assistance of FAO, The World Bank and other institutions is essential in order to facilitate UNESCO's work on Education. In addition, the presence of FAO as a technical organization is a good opportunity to remind us of 'Education for All'. What type of education and why? In particular in rural areas and for the poor. Rather than proposing solutions, I would like to raise some questions or guidelines, which I hope, will enrich your thoughts as well as facilitate the drawing up of sound plans of action.

**Review of training curricula for primary education and consequently the content of schoolbooks and teacher training.** Have we really done everything possible? Do schoolbooks still contain a strong urban influence? When the agricultural and rural sector is utilized as support, are the sectors organized, with coherent and practical training programmes? Has collaboration between the agricultural specialists and the educators been undertaken to the full?

**Have the possible synergies between education and agricultural support systems been effectively mobilized in rural areas?** We are aware of the difficulties encountered in order to totally 'ruralize' education systems. During the 70s and 80s rural people hoped that schooling would pave the way for very attractive employment in the public sector for their children. However, parents saw their children return to the village, even those that had completed their secondary school education. Consequently they were forced to work the land or take up other agricultural tasks. Educators continue to receive training which excludes agriculture, whilst at the same time agricultural trainers and agricultural counsellors, who are specifically trained to disseminate improved agricultural methods, avoid primary schools. Should primary schools be included in the regular work programme of agricultural counsellors?

**Is the support aimed at mothers sufficiently developed?** This question comes to me following a project developed by mothers in the agricultural region of Bouaké in the Ivory Coast. The women were fully aware of the difficulties they were forced to face every year in order find sufficient funds to cover school fees: inscription, uniform, school books etc.,. Consequently, they formed a women's group, cultivated a field together and requested the assistance of an agricultural trainer to produce the resources necessary to generate income to cover the education requirements of their children. Have we sufficiently analysed all these initiatives? Have we tried to disseminate and facilitate, the links, which produce positive results between agriculture and education particularly with regards to agricultural support?

The support given to the mothers of school-age is a priority in our strategy to strengthen agriculture.

**Why is Rural Radio under used?** Why have our different institutions not yet been able to install rural radios everywhere? Why has national coverage not been introduced for local rural, community and private radios? Everybody knows that radio is the most effective instrument, it sensitizes and provides information and training for rural people. How many existing rural radios contain broadcasters who have been trained in 'Education for All'? How many radio stations have we assisted with broadcasting? programmes?

**Are we sure that the education chain has been effectively supported? Have we trained the trainers sufficiently?**

We would like to see new roles for agricultural counsellors for professionals and extension agents supporting the decentralization process used for 'Education for All'? Have they been effectively trained for this purpose? In reality, there has been little or no training. What is the role of the government and international organizations regarding universities (the faculties of agronomy, economy, sociology etc..) in support of training infrastructures for future trainers? If a concerted effort is not made can we logically expect changes in the field to be effective? Have village leaders and heads of teacher-parent associations, whose assistance is invaluable, really received the training they require? Can ONG programmes, which are often very interesting, realistically replace a national policy and its tools? Is the educational chain and its link to research sufficiently supported to take on this new role?

**Education for all? What is the size of 'All'?** Does it include all the children of this generation as well as those to come? What kinds of access to education do those who have not had the chance to attend to school at all have? What arrangements have been made for them and with what facilities? Is the teaching of reading and writing the only solution? Has this been sufficiently linked to agricultural programmes? Could the training centres for rural professions in the Ivory Coast, who are linked with local human resources become a complementary solution to be investigated?

These are but a few questions, there are certainly many more, such as for example the linkages between education programmes and the acquisition of basic skills for potential agricultural work which supplies 40% of the revenue in sub-Saharan West Africa. The propositions and debates of the participants will certainly enable us to take a step further in this common strategy for the implementation of an effective 'Education for All'.

**Panel 3. The coordination of the financial donors to improve the coordination of politics and practices.**

The past years have seen the introduction of new strategies and tools in support of rural development. What characterises many of them is their 'globalization'. The fact that all governments and financial donors consider them essential for development is now an indispensable qualification. An example of this type of project is the SPPR (Strategic Programme for Poverty Reduction), these projects are frequently accompanied by budgetary support programmes within the growing agricultural sector, for example, projects to combat AIDs etc. The question raised within the framework of this seminar is to know whether the major instruments present in all of the countries can be utilized as essential tools and mobilized for 'Education for All', particularly in poor rural areas. I would like to underline the importance of placing more attention on the elements that make up this type of coordination

and follow-up activities rather than just using the coordination of financial donors already existing.

**Education for all and growing agriculture.** Education has a price for families, even when it is free of charge. It is therefore obvious that growth in agriculture favours education for all. However, to be sure about this, two elements should be included: i) equal distribution of the results of the growth, if this is left unequal, which is often the case, small-scale producers will see no increase in their income and their children will still not attend school. In agricultural support programmes, should we not ensure that increased support is given to professional agricultural organizations that defend the interests of the producers, consequently their income is taken into account? ii) the growth is often supported by better utilization of the workforce. Does this increase not implicate child labour? Have we sufficiently analyzed the manual work that families are forced to place on their children and cannot avoid? Should we not propose alternative and economically viable solutions to this problem before reproaching parents for not sending their children to school?

**Education for all and the SPPR.** The SPPRs are often prepared for at a macro economic level. They have facilitated acceptance of the fact that the majority of the world's poverty is concentrated in the Southern Hemisphere. Close pursuance of their implementation is of utmost importance. They need to be transformed from the notion of macro economic projects for the poor to the identification and of the needs of the poor in the field, at local and community levels. Is it not essential to ensure that 'Education for All' becomes obligatory within the framework of local planning, to support decentralization and consequently the implementation of SPPRs? Should specific training be given to village and community leaders to ensure that their opinions are taken into account?

**Education for all and the MAP (Multi-sectoral programmes and multi financial donors to combat AIDs).** The programmes to combat AIDs contain an extremely important sector that is support to orphans. The MAPs should assist countries to find the necessary financial resources to help to resolve the problems caused by AIDs. The 'AIDs orphans' are numerous and growing in number. Furthermore, these orphans have underlined the problem of all orphans. Faced with the monstrous dilemma of having to choose whether to assist the only 'AIDs orphans' and exclude others, the people responsible for MAP have implemented programmes to provide assistance to all orphans under the general support programme aimed at vulnerable children. Within the framework of this programme, the country has to assume the responsibility of the missing parent, and education becomes a priority. Should we ensure that all MAP programmes include education to reaches all vulnerable children?

Here are three sectors with which financial donors can work in an efficient manner in order to ensure access to 'Education for All' for everybody including the poorest rural people. Other examples can certainly be provided, should we, ensure that all of these programmes take into account, directly or indirectly, the obligation of providing of 'Education for All'? How should this be done?



## **Contribution to Panel Discussion n°2**

### **Guidelines and indicators adopted to formulate a strategy for ERP in Croatia**

By Patrick Gautier, FAO-SDRE Education Officer

#### **Content**

##### Introduction

1. Formulation of a strategy for education for rural people
  - 1.1. Three main concepts
  - 1.2 Analytical scheme
  - 1.3 Indicators needed to fill in to formulate a strategy
2. Mechanism and indicators to monitor the implementation of a strategy for ERP

#### **Objectives:**

- Present and discuss the guidelines and indicators that must be adopted to formulate a strategy for ERP: the case of Croatia
- Obtain feed back from participants for adjustment of guidelines and indicators
- Identify the gaps in terms of indicators and data needed to monitor education in rural areas

#### **Introduction**

Priority actions adopted by FAO – SDRE/Education Group:

- FAO actions in education must address as a priority basic learning needs of rural people
- At national level the first action must be the formulation of a national strategy of education for rural people
- To formulate a strategy, it was necessary to define specific guidelines and indicators for the review of education in rural areas
- SDRE/Education Group recently has started such activity in the Balkans
- Upon a demand from the Government of Croatia, FAO-REUP Office requested SDRE to formulate a strategy for ERP as part of an overall strategy for rural development.

- The following guidelines have been used for the review of education in rural areas in Croatia and will be used for the formulation of recommendations to improve education in rural areas
- Due to the fact that formulation of strategy for ERP is very recent and monitoring of implementation of ERP strategy has not yet started, the guidelines that follows must be seen as:
  - A working document
  - A first step before the definition of a mechanism to monitor and evaluate the implementation of a strategy for ERP
- In most of countries, **existing statistics on education are not sufficient to fill in indicators for education in rural areas adopted below**. This situation does not prevent finding a way to obtain relevant data for education in rural areas by census or survey. Such a specific survey should be a part of the formulation of a strategy or as a measure to implement as soon as possible.

## 1. Formulation of a strategy for education for rural people

### 1.1 Three main concepts

The formulation of a strategy for rural people refers to three main concepts

Source: Education for rural development and food security. Addressing global changes. FAO and IIEP-UNESCO, 2002, First draft.

#### *1.1.1 Basic education*

**Basic education (BE)** is the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries may build, systematically, further levels and types of education and training. However, **in developing countries, a majority of the rural population does not go beyond basic education.**

BE is a necessary **prerequisite** for social and economic development

**BE aims to meet basic learning needs** as defined in the World Declaration on Education for All (see definition for basic learning needs)

**BE comprises:**

- Early childhood care and pre-primary education
- Primary schooling and sometimes lower secondary
- Alternative programs for children with limited or no access to formal schooling
- A wide variety of formal and non-formal public and private educational activities offered to meet the defined basic learning needs of young people and adults, such as:
  - Literacy in mother tongue
  - Skills training and formal and non-formal education programmes in health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues

- Traditional means, libraries, television, radio and other media can be mobilized to realize their potential towards meeting basic education needs of all

### **Target groups of basic education:**

- The population undergoing compulsory education (i.e. children in 1st to 8th grade) and,
- People who abandon or who cannot attend compulsory schooling within the formal education system

### **Why focus on basic education?**

Research shows that:

- Basic education affects the productivity of small landholders and subsistence farmers immediately and positively, and that a farmer with four years of elementary education is, on average, 8.7 per cent more productive than a farmer with no education<sup>35</sup>
- Farmers with more education get much higher gains in income from the use of new technologies and adjust more rapidly to technological changes<sup>36</sup>
- The provision of more and better basic educational services in rural areas such as primary education, literacy and basic skills training can substantially improve productivity and livelihoods<sup>37</sup>

**Diagram for Basic Education:** See Annex 1

**1.1.2 Basic learning needs (BLN)** comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning.

BLN are covered by basic education

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<sup>35</sup> "The single best measure of basic education impact on economic development, however, is the additional productivity of workers or farmers with more education over those with less. Productivity measures show directly the effect education has on the capacity to produce, and, hence on the potential to increase economic output. A survey done for the World Bank on 18 studies that measure the relationship in low-income countries between farmers' education and their agricultural efficiency (as measured by crop production) concluded that a farmer with four years of elementary education was, on average, 8.7 per cent more productive than a farmer with no education. The survey also found that the effect of education is even greater (13 per cent increase in productivity) where complementary inputs, such as fertiliser, new seeds or farm machinery, are available". Martin Carnoy: *The Case for Investing in Basic Education*. UNICEF, New York 1992, p. 26, 34 and 41.

<sup>36</sup> *Idem* 1

<sup>37</sup> Farmers with little land are highly risk averse, in general, because they have so little flexibility. For them, the difference between a good harvest and a bad one can be the difference between subsistence and hunger. Those small-scale farmers with higher levels of education, however, even with a few years difference in schooling, are better able to adapt innovations to local conditions and therefore more likely to assume risks in changing production techniques." Beatrice Edwards, *Rural Education and Communication Technology*, paper presented at the First Meeting on the Integration of Agricultural and Rural Education in the Americas; Washington D.C. August 25-27.

**1.1.3 Education for rural people (ERP)** envisages a broad educational approach to meet effectively and equitably the basic learning needs of rural children, out-of-school youth and adults, in the perspective of reducing rural poverty.

**ERP is broader than agriculture education. ERP includes pre-primary, primary, lower secondary, lower vocational education and adult programs** with the goal of equipping rural dwellers for on and off farm employment and increasing their level of wellbeing.

**ERP contributes to rural development** and well-being, including food security, health, employment, protection of the environment, and management of natural resources.

**In brief**, education for rural people:

- Put priority on basic education
- Does not exclude any education subject
- Replace the ancient concept: agriculture education
- Concerns children, youth and adults from rural areas

**1.1.4 Other definitions useful for the formulation of a strategy:** see annex 1

## 1.2 Analytical scheme

Previous to the formulation of a strategy, for each of level/type of education, the analysis goes through a collection of information regarding:

- Access and enrolment in rural areas
- Quality of education in rural areas
- Institutional capacity of the education system in rural areas

	<b>Access and enrolment</b>	<b>Quality</b>	<b>Institutional capacity</b>
<b>Pre-primary</b>	X	X	X
<b>Primary</b>	X	X	X
<b>Lower secondary and vocational</b>	X	X	X
<b>Special programs and adult education</b>	X	X	X

**ERP Analysis and ERP strategy formulation must relate to existing or on-going:**

- EFA plan
- Education policy and strategy
- Agriculture and rural development policy and strategy

## 1.3 Indicators needed to fill in to formulate a strategy

### 1.3.1 Pre-primary

Indicators	Total (Whole country)	Rural areas
Gross enrolment ratio, pre-primary <sup>38</sup>		

#### Example of other data needed for pre-primary:

Access:

- Comparison between map of population density and map of places available in crèches and kindergarten
- Access to crèches and in rural areas kindergarten

### 1.3.2 Primary

#### 1.3.2.1 Indicators and information needed for access and enrolment

Indicators	Total	Rural areas
Population age 6-14 <sup>39</sup> ratio		
Apparent intake rate, primary education <sup>40</sup>		
Gross enrolment ratio in primary <sup>41</sup>		
Gross enrolment ratio in primary for Male		
Gross enrolment ratio in primary for Female		
School life expectancy <sup>42</sup>		

#### Other information needed for access:

- Map of primary-school infrastructures
- Comparison map of population density and map of primary-school infrastructures
- Average distance to primary schools in rural areas
- Availability of school bus in rural areas

<sup>38</sup> *Gross enrolment ratio, pre-primary.* Total enrolment in education preceding primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population age group corresponding to the national regulations for this level of education.

<sup>39</sup> Population age 6-14 expressed as percentage of the population 15-64.

<sup>40</sup> *Apparent intake rate, primary education:* Number of new entrants into first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of official admission age to primary education.

<sup>41</sup> *Gross enrolment ratio* The gross enrolment ratio is the total enrolment in primary education, regardless of age, divided by the population of the age group which officially corresponds to primary schooling.

<sup>42</sup> The school life expectancy, or expected number of years of formal education, is the number of years a child is expected to remain at school, or university, including years spent on repetition. It is the sum of the age-specific enrolment ratios for primary, secondary and tertiary education.

- Status of school buildings in rural areas
- Provision of lunch at the school

### 1.3.2.2 Indicators and information needed for quality

Indicators	Total	Rural areas
% of repeaters <sup>43</sup>		
Percentage of a cohort reaching Grade 5 <sup>44</sup>		
Pupils/teacher ratio primary <sup>45</sup>		
Percentage of female teachers in primary <sup>46</sup>		
Number of teachers (all levels) per thousand population		

#### *Indicators for curricula and text books*

- Importance of aspects of life and economy of rural areas in curricula
- Relevancy of these aspects with regards to the social and economic reality of these areas
- Availability of time within the school hours to give value and to learn about local culture and traditions
- Current stereotypes (positive and negative) proposed by textbooks about rural people life style and status

#### *Other information needed for quality of education in rural areas*

- Revision of curricula for both primary/compulsory school according to the definition of basic learning needs
- Results of pupils from rural areas in national tests and exams
- Availability and quality of pedagogical equipment and materials in rural areas
- Availability of land for eventual school garden activities. Use of this land for pedagogical or production activities

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<sup>43</sup> Total number of pupils who are enrolled in the same grade as the previous year, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in primary education.

<sup>44</sup> *Percentage of a cohort reaching Grade 5.* Percentage of children starting primary school who eventually attain Grade 5

<sup>45</sup> *Pupil-teacher ratio.* This ratio represents the average number of pupils per teacher at the level of education specified. For secondary education the ratio refers to general education only.

<sup>46</sup> The number of female teachers, at the level specified, expressed as a percentage of the total number of teachers at the same level. For secondary education, the data refer to general education only.

- Teacher recruitment procedure. Initial training and profile of teacher. Relevancy of this profile for teaching in rural areas
- Teacher allocation procedures. Consequences to quality of teaching in rural areas
- Teaching methods generally applied in rural areas. Consequences to quality of teaching
- System currently operating for evaluation of pupils
- Training of teachers and managers: Access, frequency, availability of subjects related to specificities of teaching and managing a school in rural areas
- Evaluation system for teachers in rural areas
- Salary and incentives for teachers in rural areas:
  - Comparison with average salary in the country
  - Availability of salary and non salary incentives for teaching in rural areas
  - Necessity for teachers to leave the school during school hours for collecting salary or for other matters. Time consumed due to this situation.

### 1.3.2.3 Indicators and information and other data needed for Institutional capacity

- Organization chart of the Ministry of Education
- Institutional levels and entities involved in the system and their role
- Monitoring and evaluation of the whole basic education system
- School management system generally operating in rural primary schools
- Access and support provided to rural schools by the academic local or regional administrations

### *Indicators for public and private enrolment and expenditure on education*

	<b>Total</b>	<b>Rural areas</b>
Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment (primary and secondary) <sup>47</sup>		
Public expenditure on education as percentage of GNP %		
Average annual growth rate of public expenditure on education		
Current expenditure per pupil (or student) for pre-primary and primary (USD)		
Current expenditure per student for secondary (USD)		
Current expenditure per student for tertiary (USD)		

<sup>47</sup> Enrolment in private schools, at the level specified, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment at the same level. Government-aided schools are considered as private if they are privately managed. For secondary education, data refer to general education only

Current expenditure per pupil (or student) as a percentage of GNP per capita <sup>48</sup> .		
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***Policy, strategy and plan of action currently operating and foreseen for education and specifically compulsory education***

Legal acts and regulations on education. Consequences for education for rural people

Status of Education for All Plan (EFA) in the country and relation of the EFA with below-listed strategy/plans

Specific governmental policy, strategy plan/sub-plan concerning:

- Compulsory education
- Vocational education
- Rural areas
- Remote areas (islands, mountains)
- Specific regions such as legally designated “special areas” and war-torn areas
- Out-of school children
- Illiterate adults or adults for which BLN have not been covered
- Other specific population (disable people, marginalized groups...)

**1.3.3 Special programs, non-formal and informal education addressing basic learning needs**

**1.3.3.1 Indicators for literacy, culture and communication**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Rural areas</b>
Estimated number of illiterate population <sup>49</sup>		
Estimated total illiteracy rate <sup>50</sup>		
Estimated Female illiteracy rate		
Daily newspapers <sup>51</sup>		
Radio and television receivers <sup>52</sup>		
Personal computers per thousands inhabitants <sup>53</sup>		

<sup>48</sup> Public current expenditure per pupil (or student), at each level of education, expressed as a percentage of GNP per capita

<sup>49</sup> Estimated number of adult illiterates (15 years and over), in thousands, and the percentage of female illiterates.

<sup>50</sup> *Estimated adult illiteracy rate.* Estimated number of adult illiterates (15 years and over ) expressed as a percentage of the population in the corresponding age groups

<sup>51</sup> Estimated circulation of daily newspapers, expressed in number of copies per 1,000 inhabitants.

<sup>52</sup> Number of radio and television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants. The indicators are based on estimates of the number of receivers in use.

<sup>53</sup> *Personal computers:* Estimated number of self contained computers designed to be used by a single individual, per 1,000 inhabitants.



Internet hosts per 100000 inhabitants <sup>54</sup>		
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<sup>54</sup> Number of computers with active Internet Protocol (IP) addresses connected to the Internet, per 100,000 inhabitants.

### 1.3.3.2 Special programs addressing basic learning needs

<b>Target groups and areas</b>	<b>Providers (who? where?)</b>	<b>Beneficiaries (Types, numbers, geographical origin)</b>	<b>Types of training</b> (residential, distance learning, lecture, field demonstration, debate, etc)	<b>Main topics/contents</b>	<b>Other information</b> such as, duration of program/courses	<b>Access to these programs for rural people and quality aspects</b>
Out-of school children						
Illiterate adults or adults for which BLN have not been covered ...						
Remote areas (islands, mountains)						
Other specific population (disable people, marginalized groups...)						

### 1.3.3.3 Programs for farmers and others people from rural areas

Extension service

Other programs for farmers and/or their family members

Other programs for children, youth and adults from rural areas

### ***1.3.4 Secondary and vocational***

#### **1.3.4.1 Access and enrolment**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Rural areas</b>
Percentage of a cohort reaching end of compulsory school		
Gross enrolment ratio in secondary <sup>55</sup>		

#### **Examples of other data is needed for access:**

- Map of secondary school infrastructures and fields
- Comparison map of population density and map of primary-school infrastructures
- Comparison map of fields and map of economical activities

#### **1.3.4.2 Quality**

Similar information and indicators as for primary

#### **1.3.4.3 Institutional capacity**

Similar information and indicators as for primary

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<sup>55</sup> The gross enrolment ratio is the total enrolment in secondary education, regardless of age, divided by the population of the age group which officially corresponds to secondary schooling.

## 2. Mechanism and indicators for monitoring the implementation of a strategy of ERP

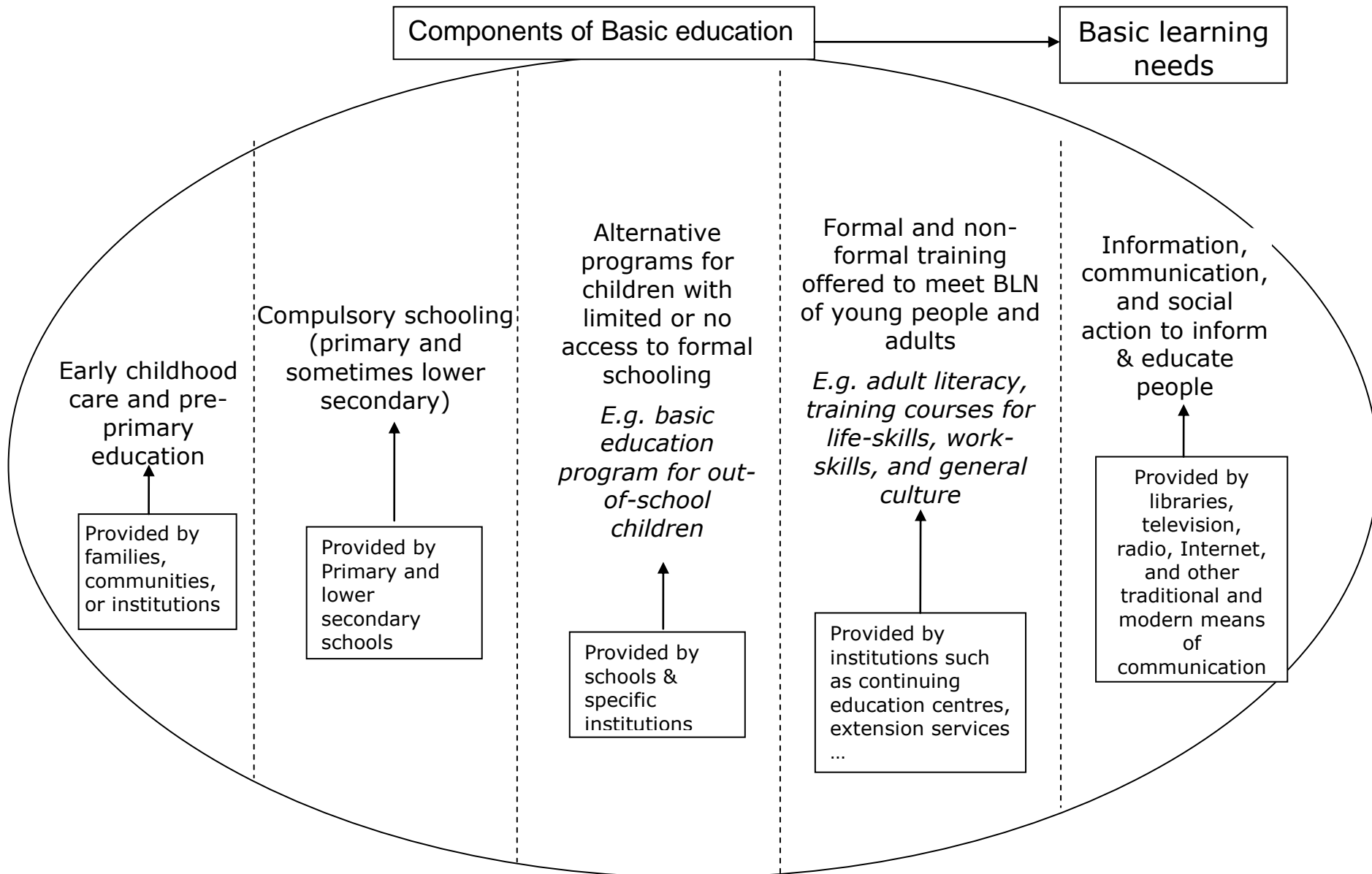
As previously mentioned, due to the fact that formulation of strategy for ERP is very recent and monitoring of implementation of ERP strategy has not yet started, a specific mechanism and indicators to monitor and evaluate the implementation of a strategy for ERP still need to be defined. The definition of such a mechanism and indicators should:

- Include all levels/types of education addressing basic learning needs for rural people
- Provide for each level necessary information for access, quality and institutional capacity
- Measure progress and achievements against objectives at a given date

Level/Type of Education	Category	Objectives		Indicators
			Date	
Pre-primary	Access and enrolment			
	Quality			
	Institutional capacity			
Primary	Access and enrolment			
	Quality			
	Institutional capacity			
Etc				

### 3. Diagram Components of Basic education

Education for All World Conference 1990, Jomtien – Thailand. Adapted by P. Gautier



## Annex 1 Definitions

**Basic education:** see text point 1.1

**Basic learning needs:** see text point 1.1

**Education for rural people:** see text point 1.1

### Non-formal education and informal education

*Non-formal education* is defined as “any organized and systematic educational activity ... aimed at providing certain types of education to specific population groups, adults as well as children”.

Non-formal education may take place both within and outside educational institutions, and may cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture. Non-formal education programmes do not necessarily follow the 'ladder' system, may have varying durations, and may or may not confer certification of the learning achieved.

By contrast, *informal learning* is not structured or organised by any institution, but occurs through everyday interactions with the environment that offer new information and insights, e.g. through conversation, reading, radio and television broadcasts.

In a non-formal education the learner controls the object of his education and the institution (the teacher) controls the methods and means of education. Informal education is the reverse of non-formal education. In a formal education the institution controls everything: subject, methods and means of education.

(EDUCATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND FOOD SECURITY. Addressing global changes, Introduction p.3. FAO and IIEP-UNESCO, 2002.)

### Rural

Although there is a common understanding of what is rural, an universal definition does not exist. In an effort to better capture the concept of rurality some authors used a multi-criteria approach, defining rural areas as:

- a space where human settlement and infrastructure occupy only a small share of the landscape;
- natural environment dominated by pastures, forests, mountains and deserts;
- settlements of low density (about 5-10,000 persons);
- places where most people work on farms;
- the availability of land at a relatively low cost;
- a place where activities are affected by a high transaction cost, associated with long distance from cities and poor infrastructures (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001).

Ashley, C. , Maxwell, S. 2001, Rethinking Rural Development. Development Policy Review, 2001,19 (4) : 365-425 – Blackwell Publishers – ODI

OECD criteria: Rural areas refer to communities with a population density below 150 inhabitants/km<sup>2</sup>

EUROSTAT criteria: “rural” refers to sparsely populated area, less than 100 inhabitants/km<sup>2</sup>. “Urban” refers to densely populated area, more than 500 inhabitants/km<sup>2</sup>. “Intermediate” areas => between.

### **Rural development**

Rural development in the refined definition would encompass agriculture, education, infrastructure, health, capacity-building, for other than on-farm employment, rural institutions, and the needs of vulnerable groups.

(EDUCATION FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND FOOD SECURITY. Addressing global changes, Introduction p.3. FAO and IIEP-UNESCO, 2002.)

### **Strategy**

In the context of the formulation of a strategy for education for rural people, the word strategy refers to a hierarchy of problems and, to solve these problems, a hierarchy of objectives and scheduled activities in order to ensure that the education system contributes to rural development (Patrick Gautier, The Agriculture Education and Training System in Cambodia: a strategy for improvement, MAFF, Phnom Penh June 2001).

Annex (11-14)



BRAR

**Associates in Research & Education  
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November 30, 2002

**Education for Mobile Pastoralists:  
Creating an Approach and Defining the Content**

**1. Introduction to ARED**

ARED is a non-profit organization based in Senegal, and specialized in the development and testing of participatory curricula in African languages for adults. The primary language in which we work is Fulfulde, spoken by over 25 million people across the Sahel, from Senegal in the west to Sudan in the east. We develop and test innovative approaches to educational challenges, ultimately publishing books and training guides in Fulfulde and other African languages, as well as developing trainings for communities which choose to use our books.

Because our first language is Fulfulde and because many Fulfulde speakers are mobile pastoralists who have long been outside the reach of traditional education programs, ARED has focused much time and energy on developing materials for this population. We develop responses to two questions: What is an appropriate methodology? And what is the appropriate content? This brief paper reviews some of the fundamental questions we've asked along the way; and answers we've found.

**2. Poverty, education and pastoralists**

Mobile pastoralists make up a large percentage of the population in the Sahel, and are major contributors to the economy of the region. For areas with between 200 and 400 millimeters of rainfall per year, their production system and lifestyle have proven to be the most economically productive and the least ecologically destructive.

However, since colonial days with all the prejudices against mobility, too little has been done to develop appropriate educational materials for this population. As is true of all professional groups, herders need access to skills and information which will help them make decisions about where to invest their time and resources. In the context of decentralization, they need to be able to play a role in defending their interests and lifestyle, creating and strengthening representative associations, as well as playing their role as involved citizens. Pastoralists are often faced with the need to run a technologically and financially complex activity, such as the pumping of water at a government-installed bore hole, for which they need training. Herders play a crucial role in protecting the environment of a very fragile ecological zone, and need to be part of local and national efforts at developing and maintaining realistic plans. Their knowledge of the biological diversity of the zone, and their ability to survive in a harsh environment with very few modern amenities, is all information which needs to be shared between themselves and with others.

In brief, the goal of education, as we see it, is to enable pastoralists as individuals and as members of representative associations to better participate in economic, social and governance decisions affecting their lives. It is education for empowerment, to fight against the marginalization which makes pastoralists more vulnerable to the risks they face daily.

### **3. What are the issues we need to confront?**

In our analysis, mobile pastoralism poses a problem when one thinks of the logistical issues of trying to organize a classroom-based educational system. However, the manner in which the administration thinks about mobile pastoralism also creates issues which need to be addressed in any adequate educational program.

#### **3.1. The logistical problems posed by mobile pastoralism to participating in a standardized form of education**

We begin with the assumption that mobility is essential to pastoralists in the Sahel, and in no way should an educational model be based on limiting or ignoring it. However, many “modern” institutions, such as educational providers, are poorly adapted, and adaptable, for the needs of herders. The difficulties of working with mobile populations are both temporal and spacial. That is, the questions are *where* to find people, and *when* to bring them together?

To find out why these two issues pose a problem, we need to analyse the styles of mobility. The following description is not meant to be exhaustive for types of mobility. Rather, we try to describe the types of mobility which need to be taken into consideration by educational providers. Many people think of “nomadism” when thinking about mobility, a system in which every member

of the society moves on a continual basis. However, this style of mobility does not exist in Senegal, and therefore ARED has no experience—yet—with this problematic.

Instead, Senegalese pastoralists practice two styles of mobility which each have certain constraints and offer certain possibilities for educational programs. One is the form known as “transhumance” in which certain members of a family will take a part of the herd off to another zone for a couple of months each year, in search of water and pasture. In some situations, this can be in response to poor rainfall, and therefore inadequate pasture. In such a case, transhumance needs to be organized quickly in order to save the lives of the animals. But even in good years, transhumance is organized because herders are looking for a particular type of grass, or salt, to improve the health of their herds. It is part of an individual herders knowledge about his animal’s needs, and the resources of his immediate and distant environment. It is also part of each herder’s “portfolio” of relationships throughout a region, those people with whom he can negotiate exchanges in order to have access to necessary resources. Maintaining this network of relationships for the times when transhumance is a survival strategy is crucial if herders are to be able to survive bad years. In other words, transhumance is not just a survival strategy in a crisis year, but is part of the underlying fabric of the socio-economic system.

A second style of mobility in Senegal is based on herders and their families living within a certain distance from a source of water. That is, moveable—but nevertheless durable—camps are set up near good pasture, and everyone walks in to the water source. These camps may move once or twice in the season, depending on the availability of forage. At maximum, they cannot be beyond 25 kilometers from the source of water, the farthest distance that cattle can walk daily and still maintain good health.

These two styles of mobility create both temporal and spacial difficulties for any type of education based on “classroom” participation. The first problem is where to hold the classes, since there is never a large conglomerate of people living near each other. One obvious solution is to hold the classes at the source of water, since the largest numbers of people come together in that space. But this is also the busiest time in their day, as they struggle to get their turn for water, hauling water by hand in many cases, keep their animals in order, and conduct business with their neighbors.

Amongst the temporal issues, classes face the problem of people not arriving on time, not coming regularly, and being absent for long periods. Walking behind a herd of cattle for 10 kilometers obviously makes arriving at a set time very difficult to master. We also find that most people miss up to 50% of their classes, coming one day but not the next because of demands on their time. And finally, frequently an individual will be gone for three to four months, in search of pasture. Or even more problematic, more than half of the class can be off at the same time, for the same reason.

These are the two styles of mobility which pose the challenges that ARED is currently trying to address.

### **3.2. The problems that the prejudices of administrators, educators, and government services pose to pastoralists, which lead to developing a particular educational content**

In order to develop an appropriate content, one must remember that pastoralists live in a generally hostile institutional environment. Starting in colonial times, technical services and administrators have had certain prejudices about herders and herding that have made it difficult to create a dialogue in order to search together for solutions. Viewing herders as “contemplative” rather than professional, the immense knowledge base that herders have is underestimated and rarely valorized. Administrators often accuse herders of not participating in the national economy, preferring to maintain their herds than to selling them. Furthermore, following the 1973 drought, herders were often blamed for degrading the environment.

The most recent research coming out of the Sahel has shown that these assumptions and prejudices are not well founded; or at the very least, are more complex than what appeared initially to be true. However, it is rare that this research arrives at the level of local project and government representatives, so they are still often operating with negative and prejudicial points of view which can't lead to good critical analysis of the situation.

Furthermore, starting in the 50's, services and projects began pushing certain models to supposedly modernize herding, such as sedentarization, privatization of land, intensification (“ranching”), specialization of types of animals, introduction of new breeds, etc. Not a single project in Senegal based on these concepts either worked economically, nor improved the lives of the herders who were involved in them. Nevertheless, these are still held up as models to follow, with the assumption that the traditional mode of production is outdated and herders are at fault for not properly following advice from outside experts. (Once again, research has shown many of the advantages of the traditional system; and we have no evidence that the costly innovations actually improve the productivity and benefits of an individual herder.)

Finally, laws are fundamentally written in such a way that they marginalize and exclude pastoralists. Land tenure in Senegal is based on user rights, not ownership. The key element which a rural citizen must show in order to maintain their user rights over land is that they have somehow added something to the value of the land, known as *mise en valeur*. Any type of farming activity—even those which are ecologically destructive and economically unsustainable—are considered an appropriate form of *mise en valeur*. However, traditional extensive herding is not considered an activity which adds value to land, so herders are automatically blocked from being

able to gain clear rights over land. Furthermore, the large tracts of common land which are extensively used by herders, such as classified forests, reserves, and parks, are all managed by government and technical services, not the population who uses them. This makes herders one of the rare populations who cannot participate in the decisions about the resources which are crucial for their survival.

All this has led to the marginalization of pastoralists. Whereas historically Sahelian pastoralists were a leading producer group who had to be negotiated with within the region, today they have been minimalized and marginalized—in spite of the fact that more and more government officials and farmers invest their own profits in animals, and therefore rely on herders to find appropriate strategies for their benefit.

#### **4. Finding responses**

Based on our analysis of the situation, ARED has worked for over ten years to find solutions to the various levels of difficulty in such an educational program, from looking at the logistics to the approach to reaching, to the content of the program itself. In general, we have developed a series of flexible modules which various communities can choose to use, at their own discretion.

Amongst the modules we have developed are:

- Basic skills: reading, writing and math (level 1)
- Improving basic skills (level 2)
- How and why to use Participatory Rural Appraisal tools
- Using PRA in managing natural resources
- Using PRA in conflict management and negotiation
- How to set up a literacy committee
- How and why to create an association

And we are completing three modules especially for pastoralists, including:

- Learning to read outside of the context of a classroom
- Visualizing pastoralism as a system
- The major political questions facing pastoralists today
- A family portrait illustrating survival strategies of pastoral families.

##### **4.1. The logistical issues**

The logistics of setting up programs in a pastoral zone are complex, and the key to success is to develop a very decentralized program which puts the roles and responsibilities into the hands of the local participants themselves. This is undoubtedly true of almost any population, but it is inevitable when working with pastoralists. Although it is complicated by the low levels of even basic literacy amongst pastoralists, this is a challenge to be met, not a barrier to success.

For example, at ARED we have developed what we now call our “classical modules” for literacy instruction, based on classroom participation. A participant can achieve the skill level, or cover the information in each module in no more than 150 hours. It is then up to each program, or literacy class, or teacher, to negotiate the pace at which participants want to tackle these materials (i.e. meeting for how many hours per day, days per week). All 150 hours can be covered in 25 days, if participants can do 6 hours per day of class, which is a choice that some groups make. Others take up to 6 months at the pace of studying 6 hours per week. While there is an advantage for some modules to have a little more time for assimilation and practice, we’ve found that many learners profit from an intensive learning experience, and then go on to use their new skills in other contexts. Putting the choice of pacing into the hands of participants is critical.

The principle behind these modules is that local community members should be able to conduct the training process in their communities. Since pacing is unpredictable, it doesn’t make sense to be paying outsiders to conduct classes on a regular or standardized timetable. But we know that if we depend on local literacy teacher, we can never expect to have teachers or facilitators who have a very high level when they start. For example, we frequently find ourselves training new literates with only 300 hours of classroom time to become literacy teachers.

In order to do this, it is fundamental that we develop good books which carry the load of organizing the teaching. For this reason, ARED puts hundreds and hundreds of hours into material development, in order to publish the final results, before even beginning the process of training trainers. Each of these modules is also accompanied by a two week (90 hour) intensive training carried out by members of ARED’s staff. That is, ARED staff trainers work with community members for two weeks, in order to improve their skill level, so that these people can play the role of either a “facilitator” in their community.

Finally, a principle we have found very productive is to insist on co-learning between participants, whether inside or outside of the classroom. In one module, everything happens in small groups of four to six participants who read through a series of instructions in order to deduce for themselves the rules of Fulfulde grammar which have an importance for improving their level of reading and writing skills. These materials were developed in this participatory manner because we knew it would be a rare literacy teacher who would be able to teach these kinds of materials. And while individual new literates do not necessarily have the capacity to follow written instructions on their own, we quickly learned that when they work in small groups, discussing and debating each point, not only are they able to do all the exercises, but they take great pride out of the fact that they are responsible for their own learning.

The materials we finally developed were based, therefore, on the following principles:

- The need to train and use community teachers, no matter what level they have at the beginning of the program,
- Modular blocks of no more than 150 hours, so that materials can be covered in either intensive (6 hours per day) or extensive (6 hours per week) segments, depending on the availability of the participants,
- The importance of books to support the learning process, in order to help make up for the weak levels of teachers,
- Developing culturally grounded materials whenever possible, to give people a taste for reading, so that people read to learn instead of only learning to read,
- Writing materials which promote co-learning between participants.

These materials and modules are all applicable to any community struggling to find a relevant form of education. But after more than ten years of experimentation, we've also found them to be adaptable to the needs and constraints of herders and their families.

#### **4.2. Creating a specific approach to teach reading to mobile pastoralists**

While the modules discussed above have all been used successfully with mobile pastoralists, we nevertheless continued to be plagued by the problems of high rates of absenteeism, and all the problems that this caused. Therefore, we decided to change the way we looked at the approach, no longer requiring classroom participation, but rather building on all the lessons we had learned about small group work. So we developed an approach in which classroom participation was facultative rather than fundamental. (Of course, this approach could also be adapted for other busy adults such as women, who have difficulty showing up on time and regularly, not just for pastoralists. But so far, we have only tested the applicability of our approach with mobile herders.)

Although we wanted to minimize the necessity of classroom attendance, we nevertheless felt that the idea of *belonging* to a class was critical—even if one didn't always *attend* class. We've always found that the classroom fosters exchanges between men and women, participants of all ages, participants with varying backgrounds and skills, and that this is essential to the learning process. Learning to exchange ideas and work in a group is as important as the individual mastery of new materials.

And finally, we wanted to find a method in which local realities became part of the process itself, but nevertheless, use a book to make certain that participants were not blindly in the hands of their teachers, having no idea how they were progressing. We want to make the connection between the world, the text and participant discussion; reading the world, reading the text, and reading one's neighbors.



To respond to all these questions, we developed a book around Participatory Rural Appraisal tools (maps, designs, grids, calendars, etc.). Lessons were no longer focused on letters of the alphabet (as in most primers), but were focused on discussing an interesting topic such as identifying the infrastructures of the zone, the yearly calendar of work for women, or the pluses and minuses of raising a particular type of animal, all using visual PRA tools as a support. General meetings for these discussions were as close to a “classroom” as we ever got—but a classroom without walls, in which even non-participants joined in on the discussions.

In order to make the connection between reading the world and reading text, participants first practiced a PRA tool which is modeled in the book—giving the opportunity to create a data base of words which everyone has in common, and which would be used successively throughout the book. Next, they develop their own map or calendar, etc., using the vocabulary they have just learned, as well as adding whatever other words are necessary for their own real world situation. In general, groups hold a meeting of this sort every week to ten days.

With this as the common basis for the next stages of learning, next begins the work in small groups. The creation of these groups can be based on affinity, proximity, etc. (In fact, in one test group, we found that membership in these groups was very unstable, groups being constantly reconstituted, but that did not affect the learning process.) In these groups, students teach and correct each other, practicing together completely outside of the classroom and without a teacher being present. Each participant is given an assignment which first they are to master individually, being able to read and write whatever their assignment is. Next, they are to teach their assignment to everyone else in their small group.

It is these groups which make appointments to meet with the literacy teacher, whenever they feel that they have all mastered the last assignment, and want to move on to something new. The literacy teacher meets briefly with each group, corrects and verifies that they are not having problems, and gives each person a new assignment to carry on with. Groups can work as rapidly or slowly as they like, although the general meetings to work on a new PRA tool serve as a kind of “skeleton” to keep everyone in the process moving.

Students feel responsible for their own learning, meaning that they must actively request help throughout their learning process, not only from the teacher but also from neighbors and friends. That means that the teacher can no longer be seen as the sole or even major source of information. Each participant has to learn to ask questions of anyone in their environment who can help them learn. Literacy teachers need to get used to the idea that most learning, in the sense of consolidating skills, happens without them. They are only there to correct and introduce new materials, not to repeat; repetition be

each person and/ or by everyone in the class being one of the fundamental tools of most teaching which goes on in Senegal today.

### **4.3. Defining a content**

The initial premise of many education programs is : what do we want to teach people? For ARED, our starting point is asking: What skills and information do people need in order to be empowered in their decision making? If we eliminate the first formulation, the question is no longer what “messages” to transmit. If we privilege the second, it becomes how to reinforce the capacity to analyze a given situation, search for additional and complementary information, make decisions (which in the context of work with pastoralists often leads them to trying to lobby for their point of view and interests). Learning is supported by participatory associations, which also offers a fundamental context for using these new skills. We are developing three modules which address these types of questions.

The first module is based on the concept of seeing pastoralism as a tightly structured and complex system of three interacting parts: the family, the herds of animals, and the resources (water and pasture specifically). Since the outside perception of pastoralism is often that it is unstructured, random, illogical—even non-rational—the basis of this module is to help herders discover the principles which make up their mode of operation. This is based on simply helping people analyze and put into relationship what they already know. Next, we give them extensive scientific data which adds to their understanding as well as to the arguments they can use when faced with someone who has power over them, but who is either ignorant about or hostile to pastoralism.

The second module places pastoralists in the larger institutional context of major decisions being made about how to develop the Sahel. This includes decisions about privatizing land, land tenure and forestry laws, projects to build public sources of water, decisions to stop transhumance across borders, decisions to declassify formerly protected land for agricultural use. These are the harsh outer realities of any individual herder. His or her individual decisions will be greatly modified by this public context.

Finally, there is a module which allows a herder to put all of this knowledge to use in analyzing the survival strategies of his or her individual family. It is known as a “family portrait” and focuses on discovering what makes the strategy of an individual family viable. While this type of research has long been utilized by outside experts, this is one of the first times that this tool has been developed in an African language, intended for use by the people involved.

Each of these modules is built around the principles of participatory community education and strives to put the participants in a position of

making decisions. This is fundamental everywhere, but is unescapable when working with mobile pastoralists.

## **”Education for rural people: targeting the poor” in the perspective of the Austrian Development Co-operation**

### **1.) Characteristics of rural areas**

In most partner countries, the rural population is affected by **higher levels of poverty and inequality**. Due to several reasons people are facing higher levels of unemployment as well as underemployment, which is at the same time connected with overloads of work, especially on the side of women. The rural poor are often confronted by under- respectively malnutrition, one of the causes of severe and chronic sickness. Moreover, quite a number of people are still illiterate or lack basic skills and knowledge allowing them to deal effectively with the modern world and to use all possibilities to improve their living standards. Due to insufficient provision of adequate education services – being oriented towards requirements of rural livelihood – as well as lack of access to education in general the rural population is often not very organised and excluded from basic socio-economic and political decision-making processes. This regularly results in dependencies from the local elite and better-educated urban people.

Vicious circles on socio-economic level are hard to overcome, as this would need comprehensive action and tackling of several problems at the same time. In this context, education can be generally considered as a starting point of highest value as it conveys knowledge, skills, consciousness and competencies at the same time. In the rural areas **education is offering potentialities** for a better integration into the modern society, broadening perspectives for income-generation as well as self-determination and empowerment.

Recent activities of the Austrian Development Co-operation in the field of rural education are undertaken in collaboration with local authorities and existing institutions on local level (region, district, village) focusing on improvement of quality of basic education as well as access to educational services. Due to the rather large percentage of rural youth and adults being still illiterate, educational provision for rural people has to be seen in a broader perspective. Thus, education services have to be targeted not only towards school-age children but also towards youth and adults, who did not have any chance to attend school. Measures must be oriented towards basic literacy skills (writing, reading and counting) as well as locally needed competence (including areas like nutrition, health etc.).

### **2.) Problem: Long distances...**

In most partner countries of the Austrian Development Co-operation<sup>56</sup> the rural space is characterised by a relative small population density, which is often connected with

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<sup>56</sup> These partner countries of the Austrian Development Co-operation are the eight priority countries (namely Nicaragua, Cap Verde, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Uganda, Rwanda, Mozambique and Bhutan)

great remoteness from other settlements. In many rural areas, scattered hamlets or detached farms are still a predominant feature of the countryside. Normally, this situation leads to long walking distances, pupils and students (and sometimes even teachers) have to cope with every school day (One can assume that it becomes a problem, when somebody has to walk more than five kilometres one way per day). This means that the establishment of **boarding schools** is in many cases a suitable problem solution, which is especially true for secondary schools having a bigger catchment area.

Construction, equipment, maintenance and rehabilitation of basic school infrastructures are normally of highest priority for the rural population and are often components of rural development programmes on a district or regional level. Community-based construction as well as the utilisation of simple designs and local materials help to keep costs relatively low.

### 3.) Problem: Lack of qualified and motivated teaching staff

Generally rural areas are lacking trained, competent and experienced personnel, since school teachers – especially if they have got academic degrees, a big family, are used to urban life or have their roots in another part of the country – are reluctant to work in remote areas. Primary and secondary teachers alike are in many cases highly unmotivated, since such a posting is almost never their preferred choice. Very often they feel no incentive for integration into the local society. Many of them react with resignation, since they moreover often receive their small salaries on a quite irregular basis. Lack of financial means, the necessity to produce their own food and various forms of soft corruption always go together and is sometimes even understood and accepted by their surrounding.

The use of **incentive systems** (e. g. provision of adequate accommodation for school personnel and their relatives or land for ensuring self-sufficiency of teachers) as well as possibilities for **further training** contribute very often to a fast increase of motivation.

In some rural areas it is still a tradition that female teachers resign from their post when they are married or do so at least if they get children. This often results not only in a decrease of the number of teachers, but also in a deterioration of the gender ratio.

Another problem strongly connected with the shortage of (qualified) teachers is the ever-increasing number of citizens dying because of HIV/Aids infection. This heavy loss of (qualified) people is a big dilemma for their relatives, but also deeply effects the socio-economic situation of their surrounding and adds to the weakening of society and deterioration of service provision. The number of teachers being trained per year can not make up this deficiency at all, which further increases the difficulty of having enough qualified staff.

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on the one side as well as the eleven co-operation countries (Guatemala, Costa Rica, El Salvador Senegal, Tanzania, Kenya, Burundi, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Nepal and Pakistan) on the other side.

Different countries found a good solution in recruiting jobless, but interested people from the local community, possessing secondary-level education. After an in-service training these candidates are deployed as **supplies** without granting them civil service status or benefits. This strategy has in some cases led to more stability in the local teaching force and to expanded local level instruction. Another method, being applied by the Austrian Development Co-operation, draws on rural people as multipliers for the spreading of knowledge and (life) skills they have gained during specially designed education measures for adults.

#### 4.) Problem: Non-availability and costs of utensils and materials

Rural schools often lack basic equipment: classrooms have normally no doors and shutters as well as not enough furniture and no sanitation rooms. Even worse, basic items like paper, bags and pencils are of short supply and non-affordable. School-books, being generally distributed via stores in town, are scarce and too expensive for rural people.

A **higher efficiency** in regard to the **cost-benefit-relation** can be achieved by timely production and equitable distribution of low-cost learning materials to schools and pupils.<sup>57</sup> Working papers being updated on a regular basis and just copied when needed have proved in most cases to be a good solution (It has to be noticed that, while secondary schools are often provided with a generator, primary schools are almost never equipped with electricity so that the distribution of material of this kind has to be well co-ordinated and organised).

The quality of teaching manuals as well as the regular revision of curricula are decisive factors for the improvement of education systems in rural areas.

#### 5.) Problem: Lack of participation and motivation on the side of the parents

A rigid attitude and shortcomings from the side of the weak school bureaucracy lead to indifference and low motivation on the side of the parents. This results in difficulties of understanding the system, reluctance to send the kids to school and to pay school fees. It is an interesting feature of the relationship between teachers and population in rural areas that people are normally most willing to contribute in cash or in kind, if they get the possibility to **participate in decision-making and quality control**. The children very often are in a difficult conflict situation, since they are at the same time obliged to attend schools by national regulations on the one side, while they must pay attention to the opinion and honouring the beliefs of their parents, who sometimes had no chance for any education, on the other.

Many problems can be tackled if well-adapted concepts are elaborated for the establishment and empowerment of parents' councils.

#### 6.) Problem: Lack of flexibility and respect for diversity

In developing countries the school system is still very much based on traditions and standards from colonial times and is not always ready to adapt to different social systems and cultural environments. This is reflected in organisation as well as in content.

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<sup>57</sup> It is absolutely dispensable to deliver old, outdated books from Europe or America to developing countries as these are elaborated for the western context and have only in rare cases enough relevance for rural pupils.

Curricula are often overloaded with unnecessary and exotic subjects while more practise-orientated lessons (for example in agriculture, horticulture as well as domestic economy, handicrafts and hygiene) are often formulated as an additional optional offer. In that respect a **better integration of demand** corresponding to the day-to-day needs and requirements of the local population is of importance. This should of course not contribute to a diminishment of the quality of the educational standards, but allow for more flexibility. Relevant is also the language of teaching as "one can only learn, what he/she understands". Thus, young kids just starting school and not yet familiar with foreign language should at first be educated in their mother tongue. Complementary lessons can be given in the country's official lingua franca, which at this age is picked up very quickly.

How to organise classes should not only be determined from the side of the school – for example by using shifts as a result of lack of space –, but also by the people themselves. It is necessary that holidays and leisure times correspond with peaks of labour input (e. g. harvesting) due to the fact that children and youth have to fulfil special obligations<sup>58</sup> in many societies. This has in most cases to be seen as a traditional way of adaptation and integration into the social life and a non-formal education in skills and knowledge deeply rooted in rural society.

### **7.) Problem: Lack of control and supervision**

The provision of education in rural areas is often characterised by conflicts and misunderstandings between the service providers and the population as the consumer. Whereas the reaction from the side of the parents often results in negligence and the denial of co-operation, the teachers sometimes pose an even more serious problem due to the rule "the more remote, the less equipped, the less capable and dedicated". It is a well-known fact that violence against pupils is still widespread (and punishment by beating at secondary school level is still part of the culture especially in anglophone countries).

At the edge of traditional society and modern school systems in remote rural areas, the misuse of children (e. g. by the order to take over work duties for the self-sufficiency of the school or in favour of school personnel) is very common. Too often, children are even sexually abused by teaching personnel and others from whom they are dependent.

All this calls for a much stronger **controlling system and supervision**, which should ideally be installed at all levels of government. For rural areas such units have to be established at district headquarters replacing the old function of an educational officer dealing mainly with administrative tasks by more competence in personnel and material management as well as modern pedagogic and psychology.

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<sup>58</sup> Such duties or responsibilities should not be confused with child labour, since they are mostly consist of taking over smaller household tasks according to their age (like for example looking after younger brothers and sisters, taking care of cattle and other domestic livestock etc.) in order to provide their mothers more time to carry out their work on the fields.



In addition to the normal requirement of upward accountability towards the national government and all other who contribute to the system also increased transparency, especially towards the local population (parents and school children) has to be ensured. In this context, the institutionalised and also informal participation of parents associations in monitoring and supervision at local level must be strengthened.

## 8.) Problem: Lack of coherent local planning

Practical experiences of district development programmes supported by the Austrian Development Co-operation (e.g. in Tanzania or Uganda) prove that establishment of basic infrastructure for education is frequently highly prioritised in rural areas, which is reflected by the results of community needs assessments. This demand concerns mainly hardware (whereby the population shows often a willingness to contribute) and is mostly seen as a first step to improve basic or secondary education. At the same time less attention is paid towards further enhancement of the educational standard (like having enough teachers with sufficient competence) as this is rather considered to be the responsibility of the education authority or national government.

**Local planning secures ownership and identification** of the rural population and can be seen as constituent element of the sector-wide-approach and any strategy for poverty mitigation on the side of the government. In that context two problems are often prevalent:

- A top-down-approach is still very common on national level, which does not necessarily reflect local priorities and demands.
- A coherent planning and co-ordination of investment on local level has not everywhere been put in place.

## 9.) Towards a new approach of education for the benefit of the rural poor...

The Austrian Development Co-operation generally follows the **actual international trend**, whereby education is seen as one of the most important elements for reaching the overall goal of poverty reduction.

It is one of the Millennium Development Goals to achieve **universal primary education** by 2015.<sup>59</sup> At the moment one tends to be rather pessimistic: At current rates of education expansion it is projected that even by this date over one hundred million school-aged children will still not be in primary schools, most of them living in rural areas.<sup>60</sup> How far one still has to go in that respect becomes even more apparent by bearing in mind the primary education completion rates in selected countries (e. g. Nicaragua 62%, Burkina Faso 36% and Mozambique even 28%), whereby these figures are very much influenced by the very bad situation outside towns.<sup>61</sup> Primary education can therefore – besides the necessity of **adult literacy programmes** - generally be considered as the priority need of this target group from the side of the formal system.

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<sup>59</sup> In regard to rural areas the Austrian Development Co-operation rather follows the broader concept and goals of basic education for all by 2015, which was reiterated at the World Education Forum in Dakar in the year 2000.

<sup>60</sup> Source: Poverty Reduction Strategy Sourcebook "Education", page 2, World Bank, Draft for comments, June 2001.

<sup>61</sup> Ibidem, page 8.

Post-basic and tertiary education are of huge importance for national development, but are of limited direct effect on local level, since beneficiaries hailing from rural environments almost never return back home (medical doctors can be taken as the exemption of this general rule). It is quite a challenge to secure the transfer of such knowledge and competence to rural areas through appropriate measures and networking with local levels. Rural areas have on the other side a huge demand for people educated on a medium-term technical level (e. g. for certificate and diploma holders) and systems of distant education.

Essential for the development of the countryside is the promotion of **non- and informal education systems** (e. g. a flexible provision of short courses based on an assessment of capacity building needs, the establishment of community libraries, eventually even with internet access). The target group for training of this kind is almost everybody: Farmers, private businessmen, women, local government officials, representatives of non-governmental- and community-based-organisations. The contents of this education reach from technical subjects up to planning and financial management.

Improved access to education (higher enrolments in primary, secondary as well as vocational schools) and higher quality institutions (increased provision of additional educational measures, better trained teachers) are mainly the result of **better management, training and human resource development, information and motivation** (and not only a matter of funds, often considered wrongly as the decisive factor of development by quite a number of stakeholders).

**The attendance of girls has to get special promotion** in order to give them an equal chance. There are many ways to improve that situation:

- Reduced or waived school fees (wherever applicable) or special scholarships for girls often help to reduce the burden from their parents (The same applies in case of orphans, who would otherwise often not be able to receive any education).
- The promotion of labour-saving technologies, water points and child care facilities in order to ease the household tasks of girls (All these solution have to be carefully examined concerning their impact. It can for example be assumed that unreflecting income generation projects in rural areas have a tendency to hinder girls to attend school, because of their effect on the division of household labour).
- Access to education for girls is easier, if school sites are closer to their home-steads, when their mothers are involved in school committees and more female teachers and administration staff are recruited.

The **involvement of community actors** is absolutely indispensable. Experiences shows that if teachers, administrators and government officials can be held accountable by communities, rural people become at the same time more interested in school affairs and more willing to commit their own resources to this task. Greater voice in school decisions from these stakeholders often results in more responsiveness of schools to local students' needs. Additionally, **decentralization** of operating budgets (and other resources), delegation of functions and powers to the local level as well as

providing more autonomy for schools, mostly results in higher efficiency of resource utilisation and better quality.

Sector Wide Approaches (SWAPs) or Sector Investment Programmes (SIPs) still reveal a huge gap between the implementation procedures conceived on national level and the **necessity for co-operation with the local level**. Without an effective decentralization of tasks and responsibilities, accompanied by sufficient resources and the strengthening of local institutions and other actors involved through adequate capacity building measures, the transaction costs are very high and only a relatively smaller amount of money will be dedicated in favour of concrete measures for the rural poor.

The improvement of education systems in rural areas has always to take into account that school means more than instruction. This institution has to take over many other functions like the supply of good quality meals and – in co-operation with the health system – information concerning matters of hygiene and health hazards (e. g. Aids) as well as regular medical checks.



**Aid Agencies Workshop**  
**“Education for rural people : targeting the poor”**  
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***THE CHALLENGES OF FARMER TRAINING: THE  
 EXAMPLE OF FRENCH-SPEAKING WEST AFRICA***

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The technical farming teaching systems set up in most West African countries after the independences to train agricultural development managers are experiencing a deep-seated crisis. New training players have appeared in the rural world in recent years—NGOs, farmers' or village organisations and private bodies—and implement new training facilities that are well integrated in the local environment. However, they are often scattered and little or not at all integrated in national policies.

*Reflection on the position, role and organisation of training facilities in rural environments seems essential today at a time when international bodies are reaffirming the need for competent, sustainable human resources that are well organised and well equipped at the public, private and professional levels. Analysis of rural development issues is essential for determining lines of development for farmer training.*

### 1/ NEW AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

Agriculture in sub-Saharan Africa<sup>62</sup> produces most of the food products consumed, accounts for 34% of the GDP and 40% of all exports of goods, is the main employer of labour (70%) and is therefore an essential source of income for the population. Agriculture is also the main source of raw materials for industry and the main purchaser of simple tools and services (transport), etc. **These features underline, if needs be, the importance of the defining of national agricultural policies in these countries.**

After long remaining pertinent, the traditional farming systems in French-speaking West Africa now display **increasingly marked signs of obsolescence** with the rapid increase in population densities resulting from an overall increase in population (from 28 million in 1960 to 58 million in 1990), the spread of populated areas caused by accelerated urbanisation (from 12% in 1960 to 32% in 1990), the increasing scarcity of agricultural colonisation areas (decrease in the areas available, socio-political tension and the monetarisation of land). The population of French-speaking West Africa is in the throes of a demographic change and will very probably experience further deep-seated changes in the coming decades (a population of 130 million—54% urbanised—is forecast for 2020). **The intensity and duration of population and urban growth in West Africa are a remarkable illustration of farming sector issues in developing countries.** The population will have increased six-fold in less than 70 years (1930 / 2000) and urbanisation from less than 5% to nearly 50%, with profound changes in the relations between human communities and land, between rural and urban people and between generations, resulting in many challenges. Agricultural development in West Africa must face major issues, leading to raising the question of the role of professional farmer training courses.

#### 1. The first issue: soil productivity

Increased rural population densities mean that the long natural fallows that formed the traditional basis of soil fertility management are no longer feasible and cultivated fields are increasingly close to each other. This results in the impoverishment of the land and increased risk of the infestation of crops by pests, leading to a tendency for yields to decrease. For example, the population of Burkina Faso doubles practically every 30 years, rising from 2,800,000 in 1960 to 8,680,000 in 1990. Forecasts indicate a population of 16,330,000 in 2020. During the same period, the population density in rural areas increased from 13.8 to 33.7 per square kilometre. It will be 47.3 in 2020.

#### 2. The second issue: agricultural labour productivity

<sup>62</sup> FAO. 21st FAO Regional Conference for Africa. 'Public Assistance and Agricultural Development in Africa'. Yaoundé. 21-25 February 2000.

Urban growth is resulting in a change in the ratio of urban to rural population. In the case of Burkina Faso, the urban population has increased as follows: 55,000 (1930), 526,000 (1960), 1,952,000 (1990), 6,900,000 (forecast for 2020), an increase in the urban:rural ratio from 1:50 to 1:2.4! Accelerated urbanisation, the stagnation of agriculture and the globalisation of trade are resulting in a strong increase in grain imports. According to FAO, Burkina Faso imports have moved as follows: 9,503 T (1961), 104,086 T (1990), 202,113 T (1998).

With the prospect of the growth of urban populations and changes in the urban:rural population ratio, the average surplus sold by each farmer must increase significantly (doubling or tripling) over the next 20 years if it is wished to maintain the initial food self-sufficiency.

### **3. The third issue: the productivity of capital in agriculture**

Increased land and labour productivity require the increased use of agricultural machinery and livestock. These two features of operating capital will only develop if they allow—in terms of comparative advantages—minimum profitability in comparison with urban sector investment. Capital productivity in agriculture raises the question of the capacity of producers to defend their interests via their currently emerging professional organisations.

### **4. The fourth issue: mastery of the management of rural areas**

The non-reconstitution of the flora and fauna resulting from shorter fallows is also resulting in erosion phenomena and a general decrease in biodiversity. These features can be aggravated by the careless use of mechanisation requiring the grubbing out of cultivated fields and of the use of chemicals (fertilisers, pesticides, etc.) that may cause pollution. Cultural practices that are not suited to the new context and population shifts generate visible anthropisation of land through the massive, uncontrolled destruction of natural resources.

This is accompanied by profound changes in the management of farmland. Land is changing very rapidly via division and privatisation from being inalienable common property to a market that can generate 'landless farmers'. Most of the countries that are aware of this transition situation are developing new landholding legislation. It is important that the profession should participate in the elaboration of new land law that concerns it directly.

### **5. The fifth issue: the professional integration of the upcoming generations**

The high proportion of young people (50% of the population are less than 17 years old) resulting from the strong population increase in the past 40 years, induces the question of their professional integration. As the rural sector represents 60 to 90% of jobs and self-employment according to the country, a fair proportion of the 19-24-year-olds, whose numbers will double during the next 20/25 years, are likely to settle in the rural environment.

### **6. The sixth issue: access to international markets**

A large proportion of the agricultural economies of West African countries are substantially integrated in international trade in the cash crops that developed with colonisation. In sub-Saharan Africa, 70% of the export income from agricultural and food products is from 9 products (coffee,



cocoa, banana, groundnut, cotton, rubber, tea, sugar and tobacco)<sup>63</sup>. However, *'the world market does not operate in a fair liberal manner'*<sup>64</sup>, with restrictions to access to markets in developed countries (non-tariff barriers), export subsidies in the latter for their agricultural and food products.

Faced with volatile prices for their products and irregular purchasing, producers are wondering and seeking solutions—sometimes desperately<sup>65</sup>. The constant increase in food imports and especially cereals forms dangerous competition with local products and compromises prospects for the development of agricultural exports. It is important that the profession should participate in the development of these import strategies and in the control of the quantities effectively imported.

**The distinctive nature of African agrarian history induced by the dynamics of its demographic, urban and colonial histories lies in the accumulation of the challenges to be taken up over a very short historical period.**

The conditions for the exercise of the profession of farmer are directly linked with population changes and the extension of the market system and will change increasingly rapidly during the coming 30 years. These profound changes will very probably be too rapid for the rate of self-adaptation of the knowledge of farmers founded on empirical experimental procedures. The rate of production of new 'knowledge, know-how and *savoir-être*' is not high enough to meet the various challenges mentioned in time, especially as the great majority of farmers cannot read or write.

They require the provision of complementary knowledge to enable them—and especially the new generations—to keep up with the rate imposed by the ongoing changes.

**2/ TRAINING THAT DOES NOT MEET TODAY'S CHALLENGES IN AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT**

The training systems set up after the independences laid emphasis on long courses leading to diplomas and focusing on the 'modern' sector (state sector and large public or parapublic enterprises) in order to train the personnel required for the creation of a state system and to manage cash crops for the development of exports.

The 1990s slump halted state recruitment and deeply disturbed the functioning of agricultural teaching leading almost only to employment in the state sector. Student intake ceased or decreased, teaching staffs were reduced, curricula were not updated, infrastructure and equipment deteriorated and there were no relations with demand and the agricultural research sector. In fact, there is generally **a serious problem of the failure of these systems to adapt to the present challenges of rural development in West African countries.**

Today, higher education in agriculture has generally recovered the previous flows, and sometimes more, in order to respond to the delicate requirements of the

<sup>63</sup> Haut Conseil de la Coopération Internationale. *'Les priorités de la coopération pour l'Afrique subsaharienne et le Nouveau Partenariat pour le Développement de l'Afrique (NEPAD)'*. Report. April 2002.

<sup>64</sup> Idem.

<sup>65</sup> At a workshop in Bouaflé (Côte d'Ivoire) devoted to the analysis of training requirements, a theme recurred like a leitmotiv in the various stakeholder groups: *'Can we have explanations concerning the security of outlets?'*. INFPA/CNEARC/ENESAD/ENFA/ANADER. *Projet d'appui à la Valorisation des Ressources Humaines du Secteur Agricole – Atelier de Bouaflé – 7/9 July 1999* ».

integration of new holders of the baccalauréat. An effort is being made in technical agricultural teaching, with varying degrees of success according to the country, to switch to the training of farmers but is running up against problems of unsuitable teaching content and methods. Furthermore, basic vocational training has simply disappeared, or almost so. It must be redesigned with regard to both curricula (objectives, content, volume, duration and links with local knowledge) and systems (levels, operation procedures, learning situations, resources) that can attain a critical mass in a disparate public.

It is true that new training players have appeared in rural areas during the past 10 years (NGOs, farmers' or village organisations, private bodies, etc.) using new training systems: continuing vocational training for farmers, managers of marketing groups and loan groups, support for the installation of young people, etc. Although these new training systems are generally characterised by strong integration in the local environment and the use of active and participative education methods such as alternate training, the search to adapt to the challenges of rural development nonetheless comes up against certain limits:

- **inadequacy of the basic education** that conditions both the vocational training of farmers and their ability to manage responsibilities and the economic and socio-political activities transferred;
- **the implementation of limited actions for 'target' publics** (heads of farmers' groups, young people out of the school system who return to their village, advisers, etc.) that are difficult to integrate in the 'mass' training systems of agricultural policies;
- **the lack of co-ordination of these actions within the framework of a national agricultural policy**, insufficient capital and poor overall evaluation of actions.

Basic occupational training is a necessity for ensuring the human development of nations, in particular in West Africa, to prevent an increase in the number of underprivileged persons and their marginalisation in a fast-changing world economy. Unless a rigorous effort is made to prevent this risk, some countries or even certain sub-regions will become pockets of misery, despair or violence that humanitarian aid alone would not be able to reduce.

### 3/ WHAT ORIENTATIONS FOR THE FUTURE?

The contradictions shown between the challenges of agricultural development and the present training systems lead to a number of orientations:

1. **The need for high-quality basic education** ensuring the literacy of the greatest number. Basic education is a right and also a condition for agricultural growth and for the development of the land, individuals and societies that form the rural world, as long as it attains a critical mass.
2. **The setting up of extremely varied training systems** to respond to both the requirement of mass education for literate or illiterate publics that are extremely heterogeneous (men and women farmers, young adults, development agents) with procedures adapted to each of these publics and particular local situations (apprenticeship, technical training, continuing vocational training, alternating training, etc.).

3. Given the scale of the problems to be solved (variety of publics, mass training, adaptation of training to local conditions, rigorous managerial planning of human resources and public funds, cost mastery, etc.), **only interventions of diversified origins would seem able to respond to this challenge today:** interventions by the state, non-governmental organisations, parents' associations, basic groups, professional organisations, etc.
4. In a context in which it is extremely difficult to obtain financial resources, **the setting up of 'classic' technical training in farming cannot be envisaged.** Although a number of 'centres' can be rehabilitated for a limited public (agricultural counsellors, technicians of professional organisations and of businesses), for most of the upcoming generations it must be planned to **complete the educational work undertaken in families, in the social environment and possibly at a primary school** by providing, especially for young people setting up in farming, the possibility of access to knowledge that will complete family and social learning and will enable them to develop the new knowledge and practices associated with it.
5. The problem of the overall coherence of the agricultural training system arises with the multiplication of training bodies, participants and forms of intervention. **The public authorities have the role of ensuring this coherence** by defining the general orientations of the education policy, by guaranteeing access to knowledge for everybody, approving training bodies and curricula, appraising the quality of the training provided and conferring diplomas.
6. It is also essential to **redefine the objective and content of curricula.** Designed to train state officials and consisting of the juxtaposition of scientific disciplines, they do not correspond to professional trades and activities that involve a transverse, integrated approach to the various disciplines.
7. **Teaching methods should be redesigned** as it would be absurd to recommend a single educational method for a framework of heterogeneous publics, multiple operators and adaptation to occupations. The methods must be adapted each time to different publics, to professional objectives, to varied learning situations and to resources and supports that can reach the broadest possible publics.
8. *Finally, these vocational training systems should obviously not be limited to training in 'farming' alone, even though the majority of the rural population consists of men and women farmers. Three complementary features must be taken into account:*
  - *in West Africa, there is no strict 'frontier' between the production, processing and marketing of agricultural and food products and also between these and local craft activities services. The survival of a family unit as a whole is based on the diversity and complementarity of activities;*
  - *the development of the agricultural sector can only be achieved in parallel with the development of the activities upstream and downstream (supplies, storage, processing, distribution, etc.) and all*

*services (health, education, trade, transport, craft activities, etc.) that contribute to maintaining the population in rural zones;*

- finally, all the rural populations must be prepared to be players in their own development, to take their future in their own hands and to be the partners and contacts of the various economic agents and state representatives.

**The question of rural development and food security in West Africa must be addressed taking the following features into account:**

- **the importance of the agricultural sector in national development issues;**
- **the role of agricultural training in national agricultural policies;**
- **specific and complementary features in the various education systems in rural environments (basic education, general and technical secondary education, higher education, continued vocational training, etc.).**

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## **CHALLENGES FOR SKILLS DEVELOPMENT FOR THE RURAL POOR: AN ILO PERSPECTIVE**

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### **A paper prepared for the Aid Agencies Workshop on “Education for rural people: Targeting the poor” (Rome, 11-12 December 2002)**

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#### **1. Introduction : ILO’s commitment to poverty eradication**

The International Labour Organization is strongly committed to poverty eradication as is evidenced by the statement of the 1944 Declaration of Philadelphia “*poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere*”. Today, the ILO’s Decent Work Agenda, while reiterating the need to fight against social injustice and poverty and their underlying factors, is also a development agenda. This is why the concept of decent work is at the centre of an *integrated development strategy* that encompasses:

2. Promoting fundamental principles and rights at work
3. Creating greater employment opportunities for women and men
4. Enhancing social protection for all
5. Strengthening social dialogue

The Decent Work paradigm clearly states that *Decent work is for ALL, including workers beyond the formal labour markets and those in rural areas*. Poverty is characterized by decent work deficits that are particularly acute in the informal economy and in rural areas. It is estimated that “75 per cent of poor people in developing countries live in rural areas and engage in activities which, for the most part, lie outside the bounds of the formal, organized economy, whether in agriculture or in rural non-farm activities”.<sup>66</sup> Some of the causes can be traced to a lack of growth and development, to unequal access to physical capital (land, equipment) and human capital (education and training, health). Low levels of productivity, inequitable terms of trade, the concentration of investments in urban areas are aggravating factors.

#### **6. Employment**

Promoting *Decent Work* implies promoting opportunities to find a productive job and earn a decent income. **Employment, in particular, productive employment** is a

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<sup>66</sup> ILO: *A Global Agenda for Employment: Summary*, Global Employment Forum, Geneva, 1-3 Nov. 2001, p. 6.

crucial element in the fight against poverty. There is a need to explore the linkages between growth, employment and poverty reduction and to devise appropriate, pro-poor, employment policies.

The framework for decent work addresses both the quality and the quantity of employment. It also implies reducing inequities through providing skills and qualifications to the least qualified. Indeed, the ILO considers that skills development is a crucial component of an employment creation strategy.

## 7. Skills Development

Skills development is important for job creation. Although training in itself cannot create jobs, it can contribute to improving the articulation between supply and demand on the labour market. More generally, education and training increase an individual's capacity to respond to market opportunities, whether labour markets or product markets. In other words, they can help people find jobs that are available in the labour market and they can widen opportunities for productive self-employment. Skills development contributes to **raising productivity of workers and therefore their incomes** - inasmuch as productivity gains are effectively distributed. However, at the macro level, one should stress that productivity and growth, though a necessary condition to employment creation, are not sufficient. Skills development also contributes to improving the **quality of jobs**: better skills reduce occupational hazards, work intensity and drudgery; and to the **empowerment of workers**: it widens their choices and enables them to get access to new, better quality jobs. It also raises their ability to adapt and negotiate in changing job situations. It **enhances equal opportunity** to participate in the economy. In particular, it **may contribute to the elimination of social conditioning which prevents men and women to fully develop their capacities**. This can happen only if education and training delivery systems take a deliberate approach to eliminate rather than reinforce social stereotypes. Lastly, skills development enhances opportunities to participate in the community, to build social capital, and therefore contributes to **social inclusion**.

Human resource development and training can thus contribute significantly to promoting the interests of individuals, enterprises and economy and society. However, in order to be effective, they must be part of a consistent national development framework. Policies and strategies should aim at improving the quality, equity and effectiveness of human resources development and training.

## 8. Role of training policies and programmes

It can be observed that:

9. Employment promotion is often overlooked in poverty reduction strategies
10. Skills training is often overlooked in employment promotion strategies
11. Employability is rarely given adequate importance in training policies and programmes
12. The scale and complexity of the problems are often underestimated



More specifically, public and private **investment in education and training** remains **inadequate**. Firstly, it is globally insufficient. Secondly, such investment is rarely directed to the needs of the poor segments of the population<sup>67</sup>. Labour market and training institutions often have difficulties coping with changes - in particular, identifying trends in labour markets and products markets. The challenge is to improve training needs assessment methodologies - how to direct training towards employment, how to identify demand, needs and opportunities in a rapidly changing socio-economic environment - and to respond swiftly to the identified needs. Training needs assessments should take into consideration not only opportunities but also people's needs, and their potential to be trained - their willingness, their availability and the skills base they have. The careful identification of market niches is a prerequisite on the path to productive employment.

Existing training systems (formal and non formal) are not always relevant to the characteristics and needs of most vulnerable groups of the society. They experience problems of outreach.

**Inequalities** in access to education and training, in particular along urban/rural divide, gender and ethnic lines, persist. Furthermore, there is rapid technological change and a widening digital divide within and between countries.

**Financing** training on a sustainable basis for the most vulnerable groups of society is a difficult issue. Some consider that end-users should share the cost of the training as this contributes to empowering them<sup>68</sup>. People are willing to pay for the training only if they anticipate clear financial benefits from it. In the case of apprenticeship, apprentices contribute with their work. In most other cases end-users' contributions are unlikely to cover the whole cost of training. There is therefore a need to resort to other sources of funding, including loans to trainees - possibly through micro-credit schemes -, revenue raising on the part of training providers and subsidies from the community and the State. Cost effective training mechanisms should be found to minimize the cost of training while safeguarding its quality.

The ILO objectives with respect to skills development for more decent work for the rural poor are:

- \$ To promote access to relevant training
- \$ To upgrade employment
- \$ To break the poverty traps

To contribute to the above-mentioned objectives, the ILO's means of action are the following:

### 13. Building up the knowledge base

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<sup>67</sup> There is a good reason for this: in many countries such investment relies on contributions made by employers and workers in the formal economy.

<sup>68</sup> For instance, see J. Grierson: *Background Paper for the International Conference on Linking Work, Skills and Knowledge: Learning for survival and growth*. [www.workandskills.ch](http://www.workandskills.ch)

14. Developing tools
15. Providing services
16. Providing advocacy

## 17. Building up the knowledge base and disseminating information

More work is needed **on the demand side** of training, in particular, to conduct research on training needs assessment methodologies (how to identify demand, needs and opportunities in a rapidly changing socio-economic environment). Some tools have been developed but need further adaptation.

**On the supply side**, some of the research questions are: a) how to rapidly respond to the identified needs; b) what are the relative strengths and weaknesses of current skills acquisition modes; c) how to improve skills delivery systems, including formal and non formal training (what should their respective role be, how to combine them, how to make them more flexible and accessible)?

The ILO is interested in undertaking research on the impact of skills development on poverty reduction.

Another aspect often closely related to poverty reduction is the gender dimension of training, in particular in the informal economy. The ILO's Inter-American Programme on Research and Documentation on Vocational Training (CINTERFOR) has launched the FORMUJER Programme to address these issues in selected countries of Latin America<sup>69</sup>.

The ILO has undertaken a number of case studies on the above topics. Issues and lessons learnt are integrated into its technical cooperation programme. But beyond skills delivery systems themselves, it is important to look into the policy frameworks that enable these systems to address the huge skills deficits in the rural areas. Such policy challenges will be taken up in the course of the revision of the ILO Recommendation No. 150 on Human Resource Development that will take place during the next session of the International Labour Conference in June 2003.

## 18. Developing tools

Some of the tools that have been developed and that are relevant to the needs of the rural poor are the following:

19. A comprehensive system for skills development for wage employment and self-employment for the working poor, called **Community-Based Training** (see box). The CBT aims at developing capacities of governments and other institutions and mobilizes support among communities. It advocates an area-cum-target group approach aimed at utilising available local opportunities and resources. A number of technical cooperation projects have been

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<sup>69</sup> See [www.cinterfor.org.uy](http://www.cinterfor.org.uy)

implemented in both rural and urban localities in Africa, Asia and transition countries and it is planned to produce an updated generic training manual on the basis of experience gained so far. The ILO is currently working on adapting this methodology in Francophone Africa and is planning to adapt it in Latin America.

20. ***Grassroots Management Training***: this very basic business training manual has been developed to meet the needs of micro-entrepreneurs and self-employed persons. It uses pictures and drawings that relate to the entrepreneurs' everyday life. Various versions are available in English, French (under the name "Ça fera l'affaire") and Spanish (under the name "Elementos de Gestión Empresarial"). It has been adapted and translated into several African languages, including Kiswahili, and it has been adapted to the needs of specific target groups such as the rural poor in the Andean region of Peru and Bolivia, as well as rural women.
21. In the framework of the ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), the ILO is developing skills training modules for 14-18 year old adolescents as well as for their parents.
22. ***Gender, Poverty and Employment***: this modular training programme seeks to build the capacities of ILO constituents and other stakeholders to develop policies on gender equality, poverty reduction and employment promotion.

### **Community-Based Training (CBT) for the promotion of employment and self-employment for the working poor**

The promotion of employment and income generation continues to be one of the important challenges in the overall sustainable development strategy, particularly in alleviating poverty and assisting the informal economy to moving into the mainstream economy. Area-based, demand-driven initiatives constitute a viable and feasible approach in responding to the needs of poor communities. The ILO's system approach known under the term "Community-Based Training for (Self) Employment and Income Generation is one of these.

CBT consists of a set of steps for systematically identifying employment and income generation opportunities at the local level, designing and delivering appropriate training programmes and providing the necessary post-training support services, including credit, technical assistance, and market information, to launch and sustain self-employment and income-generating activities. The CBT provides necessary tools to develop the capacities of national and local employment and training institutions as well as other stakeholders (NGOs, associations, business development services providers, etc.). It also mobilizes the support of the communities for the programme. The CBT advocates an area-cum-target group approach, combining direct support and capacity-building, with a strong emphasis on utilization of available local economic opportunities, needs and resources.

The ILO is playing a catalytic role in the introduction of the CBT approach through technical assistance, particularly in the initial stages of adaptation and field testing.

Source: "Decent Work and Poverty Reduction in Africa: ILO's contribution to the NEPAD Agenda". ILO, 2002.

## **23. Services**

This covers advisory services, in particular contributing to the formulation of poverty reduction strategies, and the implementation of demonstration projects. Regarding the latter, technical cooperation projects make use of the tools mentioned above. The ILO has developed a number of approaches for various target groups in different contexts. Those approaches that combine skills development with support services tend to operate better when there is a component of group organisation and strengthening. There are several ILO technical cooperation projects with a skills development component. To name but a few of them it is worth mentioning:

24. The implementation of the "Community-based training" approach in various countries
25. "Grassroots Management Training" in Andean countries
26. A capacity-building project on Sustainable Tourism Development with Rural and Indigenous Communities (REDTURS) in Latin America
27. The promotion of micro-enterprises in the Maghreb: this programme benefits from funding from the Italian Government and focusses on business management training
28. A programme to support home workers in Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand.

## 29. Advocacy

The issue of Decent Work is at the centre of ILO's advocacy role. In particular, with respect to skills development, it is felt that training should promote employability and address decent work deficits on the grounds of both equity and efficiency. The ILO feels there is a need to make a case for change and put more emphasis on employment and training in poverty reduction strategies. In this connection the ILO is currently preparing a paper to make a convincing argument showing the impact of well designed skills development policies and programmes as part of an integrated strategy to reduce poverty.

## 30. Strategy

There is an obvious complementarity between the above mentioned components. The knowledge base provides the foundation on which to elaborate some tools that are then disseminated through advisory services and technical cooperation. Social dialogue and other partnerships for skills development are also an important aspect of the ILO strategy. Actually, training is perhaps one of the areas where dialogue between ILO constituents - governments, employers' and workers' organisations - is the most effective. Other segments of the civil society (NGOs, private training providers, etc.) are also important stakeholders. Regarding such groups as rural workers and workers in the informal economy, it is fair to note that they are not always adequately represented in this dialogue. In this connexion, it is important to promote *access to representation*, to expand the outreach of membership-based organizations of workers in the rural areas and enable them to have a voice in decision-making. This represents a tough challenge for which training could play a role, especially in terms of capacity building.

## 31. Lessons learnt - Good practices

The ILO has undertaken case studies on skills delivery mechanisms for informal economy workers in some ten countries<sup>70</sup>. These are: Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Colombia, Jamaica, China, the Philippines, India, Belarus, St Petersburg. These case studies have been documented to explore methodologies for assessing skill needs in the informal sector and ways by which formal and non formal training institutions address these needs. On the basis of this exercise, and, more generally, on the basis of the experience gained through the ILO's technical cooperation programme, a few observations and lessons may be drawn. It has been observed that skills levels vary a lot among the working poor, both across countries and within countries. Obviously, most skills are acquired outside formal training institutions, sometimes through apprenticeship, on-the-job training or at home. This is probably why poor workers often do not claim any skills (for instance in a recent survey in Kenya, 4 out of 5 workers said they had never received any type of training, however, they were able to make a living thanks to their skills, wherever these came from).

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<sup>70</sup> See InFocus Programme on Skills, Knowledge and Employability, Working Papers No. 7 - 11, Series on the Informal Economy (Geneva, ILO, 2002).

Globalization offers opportunities, even in the informal economy and in the rural areas<sup>71</sup>. But it may also threaten employment and incomes. Both opportunities and threats call for new or increased skills. However, skills needs tend to be underestimated by policy makers and the working poor themselves (though mainly by older workers).

While young women and men have limited life and work experience, as well as lack of access to physical, social and financial assets, they are often better educated than the adults and are keener to learn and experiment. For the vast majority of the working poor in the rural areas their potential is not realised as opportunities are lacking.

Some lessons have been extracted from the case studies. The more successful programmes are those that are capable of: i) identifying the capabilities of the target group - in particular educational and social background - and finding ways to upgrade their skills; ii) identifying potential opportunities; iii) matching both in a timely manner while differentiating the modalities of skills delivery between various target groups (women, youths, ethnic minorities, those who are illiterate, disabled persons, etc.); iv) encouraging women and men to take control of their livelihood; v) offering relevant post-training support services.

With respect to training methods, on-the-job training or in circumstances familiar to the trainees are the most effective ones, the aim being to tackle as far as possible immediate problems with exercises that have an immediate effect. Depending upon the circumstances this may be combined with flexible modular systems that include various components of different levels of complexity. This enables individuals to move from one module to another, according to their needs.

As mentioned above, skills development is one of the instruments to further gender equality. Unless skills development initiatives have an explicit gender equality agenda there is a risk that such initiatives contribute to increasing gender gaps rather than enhancing equal opportunities.

Higher productivity is needed to improve job quality, in particular, incomes. But training alone does not necessarily result in higher productivity. A combination - and, most important, coordination - of different support services is often needed.

Technical skills are not sufficient. Such skills as social and communication skills, including self-organisation, bargaining and, of course, entrepreneurial skills are also important. At the institutional level, capacity building is of utmost importance to understand the needs and culture of the rural working poor.

### **Responsibilities:**

Responsibility for skills acquisition should not only rest with individuals. It is the responsibility of society at large to provide equal opportunities in this respect. This implies the design and implementation of specific training strategies to counteract the

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<sup>71</sup> See, for example, M. Carr and M. A. Chen: *Globalization and the Informal Economy: How global trade and investment impact the working poor*, Employment Sector Working Paper No. 1, Series on the Informal Economy (Geneva, ILO, 2002).

situations of inequity and vulnerability suffered by certain groups, especially workers in informal employment and those in rural areas<sup>72</sup>. Such strategies should involve long-term programmes with appropriate institutionalisation strategies and proper monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

Several stakeholders may assume different roles in this process. Many training institutions, whether public or private, experience shortcomings in terms of coverage, flexibility and relevance of the training offered. In some countries the social partners play a role in the management, financing and implementation of training. The role of employers' and workers' organizations should be strengthened. The experience of other actors such as training providers, micro-credit institutions should also be tapped. Local employment services could play a role with other stakeholders in training needs assessment.

The role of the governments, both central and local, should be of a facilitator, providing adequate policy framework and incentives, especially financial incentives, as well as possibly infrastructure and other resources. They should also provide a framework for a participatory process in policy formulation. In particular, governments should ensure that a fair share of their investments in training go to the rural poor.

Overall the problem is not only a failure to meaningfully invest in the development of social and economic capabilities of rural workers but also a failure to promote employment and earning opportunities for them.

In conclusion, some of the many challenges for skills development are to:

- **mainstream the concerns of the rural poor into training policies and formal training systems** : ensure that the training policy framework properly addresses the needs of women and men in the rural areas. At the operational level, formal skills formation systems should be made more responsive to the needs of these workers
- improve employability and, more importantly, economic opportunities (training is not an end in itself)
- upgrade employment - that is to improve job quality
- **upgrade non formal training practices**: non formal training providers should be enabled to offer better quality skills
- develop flexible training practices, adapted to the needs of the target group and quickly responding to the changing needs of the economy (**anticipate the needs and the niches**)
- create learning and training opportunities to promote social inclusion

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<sup>72</sup> See *Training for Decent Work*. CINTERFOR, 2001.

- link training to other support services - such as micro-credit, business development services, development and transfer of technology, capacity building, social services, etc. - that may enable rural workers to break out of the low income trap
- last but not least, address **sustainability issues**: financing of training for the poor should be given sufficient attention in terms of ensuring the sustainability of skills upgrading actions.

Close monitoring and evaluation of training initiatives is crucial. When trainees and trainers are involved in such a process training may be improved upon on a continuous basis. Monitoring and evaluation systems take into account achievements in terms of employability, equity and cost effectiveness.



**Briefing note for the Aid Agencies Workshop on  
“Education for Rural People: Targeting the Poor”**

Rome, 12-13 December 2002

## **Introduction**

Achieving universal primary education is one of the UN Millennium Goals. The target is that children everywhere will complete a full course of primary schooling. Many regions are on track to achieve the target before 2015, but lower levels of achievement and progress persist in Sub-Saharan Africa, Western Asia and Southern Asia.

Primary education is the basis for improving people’s livelihood, wherever they may be, in urban or rural areas. Improvements in health, nutrition, agricultural productivity, and community organization can be directly attributed to the learning effects of basic education, especially the basic education of girls.

Training programmes for rural populations aiming at adults will have greater effects to the extent that they can build on the competencies and skills acquired in basic and primary education. At the same time, adult training and education programmes can sustain these same skills and competencies.

Eighty percent of the world’s labour force works in the informal economy, which is “not recognized, recorded, protected or regulated by the public authorities”. They have limited economic and political assets, lack organization and “voice”, and have no access to basic social services. Targeted training programmes, building on and complementing basic education and training efforts, can help to empower them and their organizations.

## **International Training Centre of the ILO**

The International Training Centre of the ILO (Turin, Italy) is the training arm of the International Labour Organization. Its programmes, offered in many different languages, support the achievement of ILO’s goal of Decent Work for All. Annually, through its activities on its Turin campus, in the field and at a distance (Internet) it reaches about 9,000 participants.

Over time, the Centre has developed a number of approaches, programmes and packages meant to assist people working with and in the informal economy, and with rural populations, on issues of poverty eradication, social inclusion and (economic) empowerment in developing countries and transition economies.

The Centre works with a large number of partners and external collaborators within and outside the ILO and the United Nations System, including bilateral donor agencies and foundations. Together with them and the programmes' beneficiaries, the Centre constructs, designs and implements training programmes and projects, combining and customising financial and instructional components in order to achieve lasting learning effects.

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## Examples

In the context of the current workshop, the following themes are of particular interest:

- Local Employment Initiatives. A full training package for face-to-face and residential training in different languages is available as well as a distance learning platform entitled PILE - “*Promotion des Initiatives Locales d’Emploi*” that can be adapted to varying conditions and languages. The programme is meant for representatives of government agencies, trade unions, employer organizations and other entities interested in creating jobs and enterprises at the national, regional and local level.
- Gender, Poverty, Employment. Different linguistic curricula and training packages are available for face-to-face training and distance learning. Their objective is to enhance the capacity of a wide range of social actors and institutions to understand the interrelationships between gender, poverty and employment, and to develop, implement and assess anti-poverty and employment policies and programmes contributing to gender equity.
- Strengthening the capacity of the social partners in the PRSP process. Training workshops on employment and labour-market policies and practices often look at the strategic importance of strengthening the employment/decent work dimension of PRSPs. The ILO's social partners are normally represented in these workshops.
- Women Entrepreneurship. Recognizing the role of women entrepreneurs in reducing poverty and unemployment, the Centre has a range of integrated training activities to promote women's entrepreneurship and self-employment. They focus on providing potential and existing women entrepreneurs with adequate business knowledge and skills to run their micro and small enterprises effectively. Programmes and materials cover subjects such as marketing, production and know-how, entrepreneurial motivation, business planning and financial management. Programmes target representatives of women organizations, staff from development agencies, business support organizations and government officials.
- Micro-finance. The rapidly growing micro-finance industry aims at helping the poor meet their financial needs and access financial services, tailored to their own conditions. The Centre is offering specialized training to managers and staff from micro-finance institutions, to improve their managerial and operational skills to design and implement proper financial services (lending, savings, micro insurance, social financing) on a sustainable basis, and to achieve impact and scale.
- Health Micro-insurance. An integrated training programme for trainers and promoters offers support for health micro-insurance schemes in the different phases of their development: goal setting and strategy; administrative and financial management; monitoring and evaluation. The organization of this training programme on a sequential basis offers the advantage of a learning process that accompanies the logical growth of

field-based experiences. The period between courses is used for continuous monitoring support. An evaluation seminar at the end of each cycle gives an opportunity to select best practices and to analyse lessons learned.

- **Extension of Social Protection to “ excluded” populations.** A great variety of training curricula and packages are available in English, French and Spanish, adapted to the specific conditions of the target groups. The programmes are meant to strengthen the capacity of trainers and promoters working with grassroots organizations and populations to devise schemes and policies to achieve a minimum of social and health protection. Sub-areas covered are: micro health insurance schemes; social protection in the informal economy; training of trainers for “mutuelles de santé”; administrative and financial management of micro health insurance.

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**Aid Agencies Workshop**  
**"Education for rural people (population?) :  
 targeting the poor"**

Rome, 12-13 December 2002

*How to better focus on basic education for rural people?*

This short paper is by no means the outcomes of an academic research or of a strategic thinking on education for rural population.

In fact, it is shaped by some personal reflections from lessons learned from some rural community driven development initiatives, which the SDC has been supporting for many years, notably in the field of education in rural areas.

Before sharing our views on how to improve the focus on basic education for rural people, it would be useful to make a few remarks on basic education in developing countries. What is actually meant by 'basic education'? The SDC concept of basic education is based on the following definition put forward by the Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien (Thailand) in 1990:

*"Basic education is education that enables individuals in a given historical, social and linguistic setting to acquire the minimum of knowledge, skills and attitudes they require to understand their environment, to interact with it, to continue his education and training within society and to participate more effectively in the economic, social and cultural development of that society."*

Twelve years after Jomtien, and in the aftermath of the World Education Forum held in Dakar (Senegal) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), we can wonder whether this definition is not somewhat restrictive. Indeed, it could lead one to think that education programmes are exogenous elements that do not meet the needs and requirements of the concerned communities. However, for an education programme to be effective and relevant, it should be appropriated by society; it should be centred on people's identities and stress the importance and value of their socio-cultural, economic, religious and political realities.

Unfortunately, an analysis of the education systems of developing countries show that these classical educational systems, of which the formal schooling is a reflection, have until now contributed to widen the gap between themselves and the communities. Malheureusement, l'analyse faite des systèmes éducatifs dans des pays en développement montre que ces systèmes éducatifs classiques, dont l'école est le reflet, ont jusqu'à présent contribué à créer un fossé entre eux et les communautés.

The main difficulties faced by LDCs in the field of basic education are the following:

- Stagnation, or even a drop in school attendance figures;
- a decline in the quality of the education provided;
- the gap between school and society at large;
- the ineffectiveness of literacy campaigns;

One of the reasons for the stagnation or even a drop in school attendance figures is the lack of demand for education, particularly in rural areas and where girls are concerned. This lack of demand is particularly evident in the Sahel countries, because of the cultural gap between state schools and the communities they serve and also the lack of jobs for qualified school leavers.

The decline in the quality of school-based education is evidenced by high drop-out rate and by poor academic performance, particularly in Africa. The fact is that young people who leave primary school without having learned to read, write and calculate are often reluctant to remain in their villages and take up the socio-economic activities of their parents.

Another problem is that, when the school curriculum is divorced from the general culture, pupils learning difficulties are increased and parents become indifferent, if not hostile, to the teaching provided, particularly in countries where the old ways of teaching are still rooted, e.g. the Muslim lands of the Sahel and some countries in Latin America. The language used at school is another aspect of this cultural problem. The cultural gap now separating state primary education from the communities it purports to serve in many developing countries is perpetuated by the centralised structure of their education systems.

The efforts made by many countries in the field of adult literacy have not borne the fruits that were expected. Good results seem to have been achieved by literacy campaigns aimed at persons with an immediate interest in learning to read, write and calculate. These are often small-scale programmes linked to development projects. They tend to be successful when the training provided is an adjunct to economic activities. In some countries, particularly in Latin America, these programmes have been restricted to urban centres and their immediate environs. If they are to have a real impact on national development, they must benefit the underprivileged populations living in rural areas.

Given these factors, how could we focus better on basic education for rural population, specially within the objectives of a strategy for poverty alleviation.

First of all, we need to modify the way that we perceive the 'poor'. Indeed, poor populations, specially in rural zones, are still too often considered par governments and development organisations as target groups or beneficiaries. As if these populations do not have a say. We still have too much the tendency of substituting ourselves to them and think in their place in the various development programmes. This leads to the populations themselves being convinced that they can not think for themselves and cannot take any initiative.

The following examples relating to experiences that the SDC supported in Tchad, in Burkina Faso, in Latin America and in Bangladesh, represent for us paths of reflections on how best to focus on basic education for rural population.

### *Chad experience*

After more than twenty years of support to a school pilot project and training of teachers and after some mitigated results of an external evaluation which took place in 1993, as well as the recommendations of the evaluators, the SDC initiated a dialogue

with the village communities in northern and southern Chad. The purpose was to take stock of their expectations concerning their children's education.

In the north, the expectations were voiced thus:

- We are cattle herders and nomads; our children should acquire knowledge on human and animal health, as well as on our traditional medicine. They should learn how to find their way in the desert from the position of the stellar system.
- Arabic is the medium of communication in our region. French is the official language of the Chad administration. The children should master both languages as well as mathematics.
- We are Muslims. Our children should be well acquainted with the Koran.
- We want to choose the teachers ourselves, as we should trust them.

All these concerns were analysed and taken into account by the programme teach and their partners from the Ministry of National Education ( .....

The most significant results were the following. In a region where the parents were unwilling to send their children to school, classes are today full and girls represent in average 39% of the school-going cohort of the 151 schools, in some cases the rate is 50%. Parents whose competencies are acknowledged by the community (e.g. in traditional medicine and in practical and productive work) participate in the education of the children. The community takes charge of the teachers' salaries. The latter, chosen by the community, even when their initial level is low, rapidly develop new competencies, and after 2-3 years, their level is greater than that of their colleagues who were trained in the teacher training colleges.

Les résultats les plus significatifs sont les suivants. Dans une région où les parents étaient réticents à envoyer leurs enfants à l'école, les classes sont aujourd'hui pleines et les filles représentent en moyenne 39% de l'effectif des 151 écoles et dans certains cas 50%. Les parents dont les compétences sont reconnues par la communauté (par ex. en médecine traditionnelle et dans les travaux pratiques et productifs) participent à la formation des enfants. La communauté prend en charge les salaires des enseignants. Ces derniers, choisis par la communauté, même lorsque leur niveau initial était bas, développent rapidement de nouvelles compétences, et après 2-3 ans, dépassent même le niveau de compétences de leurs collègues formés dans les écoles normales de formations d'instituteurs.

### ***Bilingual education in Burkina Faso***

This experience undertaken in Burkina Faso for many years by l'Oeuvre ... (OSEO) promotes the utilisation of the children's maternal languages during the first 2-3 years of primary schooling, and introduces French progressively, facilitating the children's learning process. Another aspect is the introduction of themes related to society (respect, solidarity) and the link with the socio-economic reality of the environment.

The main results of this experience are the following: a pass rate twice as high as that of the classic public schools and higher than 80%; few repeaters, no drop-outs; a better mastering of maternal languages and even of French; a high demand from parents to enrol their children in these schools. It is not exaggerated to say that bilingual education prevents the gap between the school and the community.

### ***Centre for Mass Education in Science (CMES), Bangladesh***

"CMES has developed a unique and innovative approach to human resource development, particularly for disadvantaged adolescent girls and boys. It takes the shape of a continuing education program for the adolescent dropouts offering diverse options for them through an integrated education, skill training and profitable work-practice. The Basic School System (BSS), as it is called, has evolved through the last 20 years and has been replicated, and is serving now 20000 students at a time. The focus is on skilled employment leading to poverty alleviation.

The BSS of CMES offers an integrated package which make education a supportive force to simultaneous income generation. It arranges for a life-oriented education curriculum compatible to mainstream primary and early high school education (up to an approximate eight grade level), along with a training and profitable practice of appropriate technology, and home to home interventions in health and environment. A supportive program – Adolescent Girls Program (AGP) - empowers the girls to shake off discriminations and stereotypes and to participate in the education and technology-oriented livelihood equally with boys. All the components of this integrated program serve to enrich one another – literacy education drawing its subject matters from livelihood practices while the latter gets its scientific basis in the general education curriculum. The school-day is divided into an inner campus (class room) and outer campus (practices) situations providing a lot of options. The latter takes place at market level, responding to the local demands for products and services that can be marketed by the BSS. The marketing provides an income to the students and the schools, and makes possible further practices.

For many years now, CMES is conducting well-developed BSS and AGP programs in 17 Units in various rural parts of the country. Each Unit consists of a Rural Technology Centre (RTC), 3-5 Advanced Basic Schools (ABS) and 15-22 Basic Schools (BS), all working together within a combined management. BS is a grass-root school within the home environment taking care of basic education competencies. ABS and RTC are higher level schools offering up to a compact class eight level education. All of them have technology learning and practicing facility at various levels of skills. Apart from being a higher school, RTC is the main education-resource centre, technology centre (training, practice & marketing) and management centre for the Unit. The livelihood skills include candle making, soap production, mechanical & electrical trade, engine maintenance, carpentry, pottery, nursery, poultry, mushroom cultivation, earthworm-compost, masonry, sericulture, computer operation etc. There is an active R&D effort for the appropriate adaptation of technology for practice by the students. The self-employment of graduates is facilitated by the micro-credit scheme built in within the BSS and AGP of CMES".  
(Thematic Paper on Continuing Education with Livelihood Skills for Out of School Adolescents and Young People, Dr Muhammad Ibrahim, Executive Director, CMES)

### ***The Institute for the Development and Adults Education Approach***

Through its pedagogical approach denominated as 'text pedagogy', IDEA seeks first of all, to assist village communities to develop their own educational projects in Central and Latin America (Brazil with the Tupinikim and Guarani communities).... Middle East.



The learners are encouraged to develop new acquisitions and knowledge in languages, mathematics, social sciences, natural sciences etc. based on endogenous knowledge and local realities. The development of critical thinking is one of the key elements of this approach. The accelerated learning system, the importance given to endogenous knowledge in the different disciplines and the reconstitution of the resulting collective memory of the communities, the development of self esteem, the emancipation of the community, specially that of the women who do not hesitate to make their voices heard to claim and defend their rights.

## **Literacy and adult training programmes**

They complete the wide range of basic education programmes, as they are intended for young persons and adults who have never been to school.

In contrast to traditional mass literacy programmes aimed at eradicating illiteracy, the SDC and its partners consider literacy programmes as basic education designed to facilitate access to training and information in order to develop and improve the ability of the groups concerned to analyse, organize and manage. Empowerment is the ultimate goal of these programmes.

They are based on negotiations and partnership contracts with various rural organizations and allow these organizations to negotiate with service providers on the basis of their priorities and the new skills that they seek to develop (organization, management, agricultural techniques, marketing, etc.). They help to make these organizations independent, thus becoming partners that are able to progressively design their programmes in the light of their priorities, to negotiate with the government, development agencies, as well as with institutions that can offer them training in line with their needs.

What lessons can be drawn from these experiences?

First of all, it should be borne in mind that we support initiatives of the groups and communities with which we develop partnerships.

The projects are theirs, not ours. Our role is to support and accompany them. In this regard, they should be helped to analyse the environment in which they live, the development challenges they face and, on this basis, define their expectations concerning not only their children's education, but also their own training. Finally, they should be helped to develop a programme which takes account of their needs and local realities.

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## ACCELERATING PROGRESS ON GIRLS' EDUCATION

### Why girls' education?

Using a rights-based approach as the starting point has led UNICEF to focus on girls as the single largest group excluded from basic education. However, emphasis on girls' education is taken to go beyond parity, to serve as leverage for overall progress in Education for All (EFA). It also reaches beyond education to the core of the millennium developing goals (MDGs) -- poverty reduction and human development. Girls' education is thus the main mechanism for UNICEF to address global education commitments.

However, there is a danger that the 2005 gender parity goal, the crucial first milestone, is slipping out of reach, unless there is a serious effort at acceleration towards achieving gender parity. If no convincing progress is made, the credibility of the education movement is at stake.

### What are the key characteristics of the strategy?

Girls' Education is one of five key organisational priorities for UNICEF in its Mid-Term Strategic Plan for the period 2002-2005. The strategy for accelerating progress on girls' education has five inter-related strands as follows:

- **Focus intensive interventions on selected countries.** This means that whilst normal country programmes will continue everywhere on girls' education, there will be a concentration of additional resources and intervention measures in selected countries that will result in accelerated and maximum impact on girls' education by 2005. Criteria for selection of these UNICEF-focus countries are as follows:
  1. Countries in which the net enrollment ratio for girls is generally considered to be low (below 70%) - there are 44 such countries and some have less than 40%.
  2. Countries with a gender gap of 10% or more in primary enrollment levels - there are 30 countries estimated to be in this category.
  3. The 10 countries with the highest numbers of girls (over 1 million) out of school.
  4. The 23 countries on the EFA "fast track" list announced by the World Bank on behalf of EFA partners. UNICEF played a major role in shaping this outcome.
  5. High-risk countries where enrollment and gender parity are under threat, e.g. those heavily impacted by HIV/AIDS, civil conflict, natural disasters and emergencies.

Within this framework UNICEF aims to accelerate progress on girls' education in 25 countries (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Guinea, India, Malawi, Mali, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Sudan, Tanzania, Turkey, Yemen, and Zambia). The focus therefore is on the more than 120 million children (majority girls) who are denied access to quality basic education.

- **Adopt a pro-active and intensive approach** that concentrates expertise, knowledge and other resources on reaching out-of-school girls and helping them overcome the barriers to obtaining quality basic education. This means applying what we know already, when it comes to reaching out-of-school girls or addressing the barriers that prevent them from accessing and completing basic education.
- **Intensify advocacy at national and international levels** in order to:
  1. Create a groundswell of local demand for open budgets, transparency and accountability.
  2. Transform political will into Government action to fulfill their obligations on girls' education and ensure this is reflected in national plans and budgets.

3. Mobilise financial resources and donor commitment to girls' education as the main leverage on national education systems for achieving EFA.

- **Intensify partnerships for planning, coordination and service delivery.**
- **Focus on inter-sectoral approach** in order to establish a framework for delivering quality education that is robust and sustainable. This involves developing maximum synergy with other sectors that impact on girls' education, in order to promote a new and more integrated approach to service delivery.

This has implications for the way UNICEF operates, including strengthening capacity within the organisation, and a much greater level of engagement between UNICEF country offices, regional offices, and headquarters. UNICEF proposes to "accompany" countries, a process that implies continuous and long-term support.

Key to the success of the approach will be in particular the strengthening of local capacity, going to scale and mainstreaming successful approaches, concurrent attention to access and quality, effective partnerships, and supporting countries with a total resource package. Monitoring and evaluation, including through the EFA indicator monitoring mechanism, will be an important component. All existing partnerships and mechanisms, including UN and sector mechanisms at country, regional and global levels will be harnessed to leverage progress.

In conclusion, most of the targeted children live in rural areas. Therefore, UNICEF contributes to rural education.

## **WFP AND SCHOOL FEEDING**

School feeding is a very effective way of using food aid for education. Since 1963, the World Food Programme (WFP) has provided nutritious meals to school children in poor countries around the world. It uses food as a direct input to attract children to school in food insecure areas, where enrollment ratios are lowest.

### **Education and Hunger**

When poor children do go to school, they often leave home on an empty stomach. Three hundred million of the world's children are chronically hungry: the approximately 170 million of these children who attend school must learn while fighting hunger.

In developing countries, providing school meals can play a critical role in ensuring that children learn once they are at school. Children in rural areas often walk long distances to school on empty stomachs. Many cannot afford to bring food from home to eat during the day. These children are easily distracted in the classroom and have problems staying alert and concentrating on the lessons. Teachers' report that breakfast-deprived children fall asleep in class and are unable to benefit from the education provided (UNESCO, 1994).

This syndrome, generally referred to as short-term hunger, has been shown to affect children's cognitive functions and, most likely, their learning achievements (UNESCO, 1989). Several studies have demonstrated that the effects of short-term hunger are exacerbated in children who already have a history of undernutrition and face nutritional deficiencies (Levinger, 1994).

### **School feeding as a catalyst for Education for All**

WFP school meals encourage poor children to attend class and help them concentrate on their studies.

Providing a nutritious breakfast or lunch to children can help solve hunger and improve learning. When children no longer need to worry about food, they can concentrate on their lessons. With enough food to learn and thrive, they are more likely to stay in school longer. When food is available at school, attendance rates increase significantly. Parents are more inclined to send their children because they know their children will get at least one solid meal during the day, and it will add savings to the family budget.

In emergencies or protracted relief operations, school feeding (even in "makeshift" schools) is extremely important in several ways. Firstly, the feeding is a critical source of children's nutrition. Secondly, the school provides a healthier emotional environment for children whose normal lives have been disrupted; and allows schooling to continue during a period when precious school time would otherwise be lost, disabling the child's future.

In 2001, WFP fed over 15 million children in schools in 57 countries.

### **Focus on Girls**

WFP places special emphasis on meeting the needs of women and girls in all of its programs. Two of WFP's four 'commitments to women' made at the 1995 Beijing Conference on Women relate specifically to educating girls. Sixty percent of WFP's country programme resources in countries with a significant gender gap are targeted to women and girls and 50% of all education resources are targeted to girls.

Realising that traditional school feeding was often insufficient to reach these targets and to close the gender gaps in education, WFP developed an innovative way of using food aid to help educate girls. Basic food items, like a sack of rice or several liters of vegetable oil, are distributed to families in exchange for the schooling of their daughters. These "take-home rations" compensate parents for the loss of their daughters' labours and enable girls to attend school. WFP assistance directly tackles the critical issue of the opportunity costs that prevent girls from receiving an education. Take-home rations work for girls' education. Whenever such programmes have been introduced, the enrollment of girls increased by at least 50%.

Such programmes are currently operational or under preparation in more than a dozen developing countries. Results thus far indicate a good chance that these girls will continue schooling through the primary level as long as the take-home rations are available.