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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN GUINEA: LIMITED SECTOR ASSESSMENT

FINAL REPORT

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List of Acronyms

AACG	Association des Animateurs Communautaires de Guinée
ACDI	Agence Canadienne de Développement International
ADIC	Association d'Appui au Développement des Initiatives Communautaires
AED	Academy for Educational Development
AJVD	Association des Jeunes Volontaires pour le Développement
APEAE	Association des Parents d'Élèves et Amis de l'École
BACC	Bureau d'Appui à la Coopération Canadienne
BACC1	Baccalauréat 1ère partie
BAD	African Development Bank/ Banque Africaine pour le Développement
BASE	Bureau Africain des Sciences de l'Éducation
BEPC	Brevet d'Études du Premier Cycle
BM	Banque Mondiale
BND	Budget National de Développement
CAII	Creative Associates International Incorporated
CDMT	Cadre des Dépenses à Moyen Terme
CE	Cours Élémentaire
CFC	Center de Formation Continue
CM	Cours Moyen
CNCESE	Cellule nationale de Coordination de l'Évaluation du Système Éducatif
COFEG	Confédération des ONG Féminines de Guinée
CONEBAT	COmmission Nationale de l'Éducation de BAse pour Tous d'ici l'an 2000
CONFEMEN	Commission nationale pour la Conférence des Ministres de l'Éducation
CP	Cours Préparatoire
CPE	Direction Préfectorale de l'Éducation
CPFC	Center Préfectoral de la Formation Continue
CPMF	Conseillers Pédagogiques Maîtres-Formateurs
CRD	Communauté Rurale de Développement
CRE	Cellule de Rénovation des Écoles
CUD	Communauté Urbaine de Développement
DAAF	Direction des Affaires Administratives et Financières
DCE	Direction Communale de l'Éducation
DNEE	Direction Nationale de l'Enseignement Élémentaire (MEPU)
DPE	Direction Préfectorale de l'Éducation
DPFC	Direction Provinciale de la Formation Continue
DPSP	Direction Pédagogique de Sous-préfecture
EAE	Équité et Amélioration des Écoles (voir PEAE)
ECOM	École communautaire
EDC	Education Development Center
EFA	Education for All

ENI	École Normale d'Instituteurs
FAC	Fonds d'Aide et de Cooperation
FAWE	Federation of African Womens Educators
FEGUIPEAE	Fédération Guinéenne des Parents d'Elèves et Amis de l'École
FG	Francs Guinéens
FIMG	Formation Initiale des Maîtres de Guinée
FMI	Fonds Monétaire International
FQEL	Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels
GdG	Gouvernement de Guinée
GG	Gouvernement de Guinée
GNF	Francs Guinéens (voir aussi FG)
GOG	Government of Guinea
GWE	Girls' and Women's Education Initiative
IGPU	Inspection Générale (MEPU)
IMD	Impôt Minimum de Développement
INRAP	Institut National de Recherche et d'Actions Pédagogiques
IPN	Institut Pédagogique National
IRE	Inspection Régionale de l'Éducation
ISESCO	Commission Nationale de l'Organisation Islamique pour les Sciences et la Culture
ISSEG	Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Éducation de Guinée
ISSEG	Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Éducation de Guinée
KFW	Organisation d'aide allemande
LSA	Limited Sector Assessment (Diagnostic Limité du Secteur)
MASPFE	Ministère des Affaires sociales et de la Promotion Féminine et des enfants
MENRS	Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique (1996-1997)
MEPU	Ministère de l'Éducation Pré-Universitaire
MEPU-EC	Ministère de l'Éducation Pré-Universitaire et de l'Éducation Civique (1998)
MEPU-FP	Ministère de l'Éducation Pré-Universitaire et de la Formation Professionnelle (avant 1996)
MET-FP	Ministère de l'Enseignement Technique et de la Formation Professionnelle
MF	Ministère des Finances
NFQE	Niveaux Fondamentaux de Qualité et d'Équité (voir aussi FQEL)
NPA	Non-Project Assistance (Appui budgétaire)
ONG	Organisation Non Gouvernementale
OSC	Organisation de la Société Civile
PASE/ PASE I	Programme d'Ajustement Structurel en Éducation
PASE II	Programme d'Appui au Secteur de l'Éducation
PEAE	Projet Équité et Amélioration des Écoles
PEN	Professeur d'École Normale
PPSE	Programme de Petites Subventions aux Écoles

SAAF	Section d'Affaires Administratives et Financières
SAAF/DPE	SAAF (voir ce sigle) de la Direction Préfectorale de l'Éducation
SAAF/IRE	SAAF (voir ce sigle) de l'Inspection Régionale de l'Éducation
SAGE	Strategies for Advancing Girls' Education
SGBD	Système Gestionnaire de Bases de Données (logiciel)
SINDA	Service d'Information, de Documentation et des Archives
SLECG	Syndicat Libre des Enseignants et Chercheur de Guinée
SNA	Service National d'Alphabétisation
SNIES	Service National des Infrastructures et Équipements Scolaires (MEPU)
SO3	Strategic Objective Education / USAID / Guinée
SO4	Strategic Objective Governance / USAID / Guinée
SSP	Service de la Statistique et de la Planification(MEPU)
STC	Save the Children
ST-PASE	Secrétariat Technique du PASE
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UQAM	Université du Québec à Montréal
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	The World Bank
WE	World Education
WEG	World Education Guinée

Preface and Acknowledgments

This report presents a limited assessment of accomplishments and needs in five areas of primary education in Guinea: institutional development, financial management and planning, teacher training, community participation and regional and gender equity.

The purpose of this assessment is to assist USAID/Guinea and the Government of Guinea in the elaboration of a joint strategy focused on attaining Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels (FQEL) in primary education. Working in both Conakry and outlying regions, a five-person team collected the data for this report over a six-week period. The "effective school" emerged as the key focus for the analysis of the data.

In each of the five areas under study the team found significant achievements which can serve as a base for further improvements. Persistent weaknesses, needs and institutional constraints were also identified. The team presents options, approaches and points of interest for the next phase of USAID programming, particularly in the areas of private school development and community participation. Equity questions are seen from the point of view of gender equity as well as rural access to primary education.

A word about the language of reporting: this assessment was written in French and is addressed above all to a French-speaking audience of education specialists working on West Africa. In the translation presented here, we have, therefore, taken the liberty of leaving the annexes, tabular data presentation, names of regions and most of the acronyms in French. We hope our readers will enjoy this touch of the local atmosphere.

The team expresses its gratitude towards the PASE Steering Committee, the Strategic Objective Three team at USAID and the members of the Contact Committee of the Government of Guinea. They all made themselves available to the team conducting this assessment and showed both commitment to educational reform and open-mindedness to alternative reform options.

The team is also thanks the leaders and membership of the NGOs involved in education. They gave generously of their time and took care to explain the particulars and potential of their specific approaches to educational and community development.

A word of thanks also towards the members of the MEPU-EC Statistical Service who worked overtime to produce tables on enrolment ratios, private school expansion and the like.

"Un grand merci" to all those who assisted this effort in any way.

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Executive Summary and General Recommendations

1 PURPOSE

This report presents the results of a general assessment of the primary education sector in Guinea as of September, 1999. The work was carried out by a team of five consultants of the Academy for Educational Development who stayed in Guinea between August 28 and October 13, 1999. The mandate given by USAID was to carry out "a limited sector assessment of primary education, in reference to USAID's strategic objective in education." The purpose of the exercise is to allow USAID/Guinea and the Government of Guinea to further their individual and common objectives in matters of primary education over the coming years. The common goal is to give the largest possible number of Guinean children access to an improved quality of education. The FQEL project (1995-2002) which is the central focus of this assessment, aims at attaining the FQEL goals within the PASE II (and possibly a PASE III) program—Guinea's Assistance to Education Program which encompasses all major donors as well as the Government of Guinea.

The assessment touches upon three major components: a) the Ministry of Pre-University and Civic Education's (MEPU-EC) capability for strategic planning, administration and decision-making, b) supply and demand in primary education, particularly in their relation to teacher training, and c) regional and gender equity and community participation in the expansion of educational services.

2 METHODOLOGY

The team carried out its analysis mainly on the basis of existing data and studies such as activity reports, project documents, evaluations, legal texts, monographs and other documents concerning primary education. In addition, the team conducted a large number of interviews with MEPU-EC officials, representatives of other ministries and of civil society. A short questionnaire was submitted to members of the teaching profession. Most of the work was carried out in Conakry but field visits of various duration were also made, to Kindia, Doubreka, Labé, Mamou, Tamita, Kankan and Mandiana. A comparative case study of private education was carried out in Conakry and Maferinyah. There were regular briefings with the MEPU-EC contact group as well as with the education team at USAID, to cover progress made and problems encountered along the way.

3 RESULTS

The basic finding is similar to those of previous evaluations (CAII, 1993; Fox et al., 1998; AED, 1999): the Guinean education system is costly and inefficient. Progress has been made along most indicators (Gross and Net Enrolment Rates, Inputs and Outputs, Government of Guinea (GOG) and Donor Financing), yet the internal efficiency of the system has grown worse since 1993. It now takes twenty

student-years to produce a single graduate of the primary education cycle—four more than in 1993. Three quarters of the space and capacity of the entire system are taken up by students destined to drop out and remain functionally illiterate. The reasons for this state of affairs are many, complex and inter-related. It serves no purpose to simply blame the inefficiency of the Ministry, the failures of foreign aid or the poverty of the country. The fact is that the system—i.e., the combination of policies and actions under the responsibility of the central authority—has so far not produced the desired effects. What would the desired impact be at the school level? It can be summarized as follows. A school is effective when students:

1) attend on a daily basis, progress from one level to another, and obtain their diploma;
2) leave the school able to read, write and solve problems;
3) become reasoning, independent citizens;
4) are in a position to be productive after completing their schooling.

The factors contributing to this impact can be found on both the school and system levels. The relations between the central administration and the local community, between the system and the school can be quite tense at times. The balance of forces between the two poles will in a large measure determine the success of the school and its students.

3.1 Institutional Analysis

The team accepts and subscribes to the FQEL approach as an ideal but proposes a different type of planning, one that focuses on the needs of the school rather than those of the system.

The educational system is only a process or a tool. What really matters is what happens at school, inside the classroom. The only justification for having a system is to make it serve the school. Academic results are determined by many factors, several of which lie outside the influence of central authorities. The team does not intend to diminish the importance of a centralized system of services, nor does it want to question FQEL. However, it does want to insist that what is essential in educational processes happens at the local level, inside the classroom.

The Ministry has at its disposal several planning mechanisms. There is a very experienced Technical Secretariate of the Programme d'Ajustement Structurel en Éducation (PASE), services such as the Service de la Statistique et de la Planification (SSP) (and its school mapping division) that have improved their performance over the years, and there is a Strategic Planning Team composed of fifteen senior members of a variety of administrative units (see annex). The conditions are thus in place for defining concrete institutional objectives according to the FQEL goals.

From an institutional point of view foreign assistance will always be a major challenge. If an institution is to be efficient it needs a capacity to administer, monitor and control in accordance to its level of resources. However, in Guinea we see foreign donors who put enormous resources at the disposal of institutions which are weak in terms of administration and control. An attempt is made to solve this problem through technical assistance and intense auditing of the accounts, and sometimes these efforts may even succeed. But the waste of resources is an inevitable consequence of such arrangements, as evidenced by the recent book-distribution campaign. We are still far from the ideal situation where individuals and institutions control their resources in an ongoing and efficient way.

The private education sector is expanding rapidly. The numbers of private schools and their enrollments are probably underestimated by a large margin in the official statistics and may well represent 30% to 40% of the primary education sector at this time. This sector by and large functions without governmental supervision and assistance, and it takes care of a large part of the demand not presently satisfied by the MEPU-EC.

3.2 Budget Administration and Planning

According to Direction des Affaires Administratives et Financières (DAAF) estimates, the share of primary education in the national budget has grown considerably since the beginning of PASE and reached 7.6% in 1994. Since then it has fallen back to 1993 levels. Estimates for 1999 again indicate strong growth (to 8.8%) but this needs to be confirmed. In 1998 budget allocations per student, excepting salaries, were only 5,100 FG, of which pedagogical inputs amounted to only 2,800 FG. This compares to the US$ 5.00 (7,500 FG) announced in policy documents. Budget execution has improved during the past years, especially in terms of pedagogical expenses.

Two observations can be made concerning the organization of the DAAF. First, following donors' requests, specialized services were created for data processing, auditing and administration within the Technical Secretariate of PASE. This represents progress. Secondly, communication between DAAF and Section d'Affaires Administratives et Financières (SAAF), its "regional antennae" is practically non-existent. This has negative effects: the SAAF are lacking in capacity and training and are frequently acting outside of any monitoring and control system. "Delegated credits" have been allocated and spent without much concern for book-keeping and receipts.

Long-term training provided to DAAF and SAAF personnel has had much impact; it appears that on-the-job, short-term training produces better results. USAID has provided computer training for the Ministry—an investment which has turned out

to be cost-effective but technical assistance for skills transfer within the particular services is now needed.

FQEL as a planning tool has the potential of allocating scarce resources to optimal uses, but this needs to be combined with monitoring the costs of specific investments such as books, teacher training, or class size reduction.

In theory, education is fully state-funded and free to parents. In practice, however, parents carry a heavy burden of direct, indirect and opportunity costs. One of the goals of sound budget planning would be to make this parental investment worthwile.

3.3 Teacher Training

The goal of recruiting and training 6,000 new teachers over the 1998-2001 period is now seriously compromised, with shortfalls of 24% in 1998 and 42% in 1999. This means that in all probability there will not be enough teachers to fill the positions in the new schools built by the GG and international donors. Many schools will remain closed.

Teacher training suffers from the absence of a stable body of capable trainers in the Ecoles Normales d'Instituteurs (ENIs). There is a program of training Professeur d'Ecole Normale (PEN) and Conseillers Pèdagogiques Maîtres-Formateurs (CPMF) personnel at the Institut Supèrieur des Sciences de l'Education de Guinée (ISSEG) but this program is not sufficiently coordinated with existing and reformed teacher training and curricular practices. French assistance is financing the training of trainers whose double mission is to supervise trainees at the extension branches of the ENI as well as to supervise continuing on-the-job training. This program, started in 1990, has never been formally evaluated and reports suggest that its graduates do not attain adequate levels of professional training.

3.4 Equity

Many efforts have been made to increase access to schooling for girls and rural children. In consequence, crude enrolment rates have risen, from 32% to 54% in general and from 20% to 32% for girls, between 1991-92 and 1998-99. Among the significant causes of this progress have been a social marketing campaign and a program providing free uniforms and school supplies for girls.

Although crude enrolment rates have risen, they are still far from the Education for All (EFA) goals for 2010. Furthermore, all changes have not been postitive. Repetition and dropout rates have gone up. More repeaters are blocking scarce places in school for new admissions. Repetition and dropout discourage new enrollments which again tends to aggravate the situation for girls and rural children.

Responses to this situation might be found among the following options: (1) make equity considerations a priority for all actors involved in primary education; (2) direct social marketing for education at staying in school rather than enrollment; (3) increase financial incentives for rural girls.

3.5 Community Participation

Despite its presence in political discourse and legal documents, true community participation in the administration of schools is far from accomplished today. Major changes are needed if PTAs are to become responsible participants and partners. Community participation challenges state authority. If the state stimulates educational demand, it should be prepared to respond to this demand or communities will feel betrayed. Several elements are needed for this response to happen: political will, procedural flexibility, openness toward alternative educational models and, in many instances, a change of attitude among teachers and other educational personnel.

The problem with community participation is how to reconcile the normative and planning objectives of the state with the expectations of the local community. How can one avoid imposing rules from top to bottom while at the same time enforcing minimum norms at the local level? One possible approach is for school administrators to become promotors of the laws and official policies favoring community participation. Top-down action so far has not resulted in quality education. It is time to take community participation seriously and to define it in an inclusive way. Local communities should be empowered to participate in the entire educational process—in planning, implementation, administration and monitoring of what happens in a school. A pro-active approach will free energies and goodwill present at the community level.

4 GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS[1]

Recommendations Concerning Institutional Development

R-1 Decision making power and resources relevant to school success should be located at the school level, with a school principal operating under community scrutiny. The principal should be in charge of applying quality standards and should be held responsible for the effectiveness of the school.

R-2 Further expansion of private primary education should be stimulated but linked to increased enforcement of curricular and internal efficiency standards.

[1] For specific recommendations see the relevant sections of the report. A summary of specific recommendations is given in Chapter 9.

Recommendations Concerning Regional and Gender Equity

R-3 Equity concerns should be brought to the fore in the entire educational environment, including the public and private systems, the community and the school.

R-4 Organizations concerned with equity such as the Comité d'Accueil, the Alliance Nationale and the Groupe National de Travail should be given the resources needed for their mobilization campaigns.

R-5 Resources should be focused on improving the academic performance of girls and disadvantaged children.

Recommendations Concerning Community Participation

R-6 The local community should be a full partner in planning, implementing and monitoring school activities at the local level.

R-7 The powers of the state and civil society should be kept separate at the PTA level by giving the school principal no more than an advisory role.

R-8 Local elected representatives such as the Communautés Rurales de Développement (CRDs) and Communautés Urbaines de Développement (CUDs) should be made aware of local school needs and allocate regularly a part of their resources to education.

R-9 Links should be established between the two major forces of civil society in educational matters, the Association des Parents d'Élèves et Amis de l'École (APEAEs) and the Association des Ressortissants.

Recommendations concerning teacher training

R-10 Baccalaréat (BACC) candidates should continue to be recruited for teacher training. However, the duration of training should be reduced to one year, and the second year, currently designated for on-the-job training, should be replaced by some form of continuing education.

R-11 A three year training cycle should be instituted for graduates of the Brevet d'Etudes du Premier Cycle (BEPC).

R-12 Salary and housing incentives should be used to stimulate recruitment of BACC graduates.

R-13 Innovative forms of continuing education, such as the Education Development Center (EDC) distance learning model, should be used for all teachers.

Recommendations Concerning Administration

R-14 Communication and coordination should be strengthened between central and decentralized parts of the education system, between MEPU-EC and the donors, and between the donors and NGOs, possibly along PASE I lines but facilitating an effective decentralization of resources.

R-15 Strategic planning should be strengthened by the infusion of a dose of realism, not only at the SSP level but also through a much improved monitoring and evaluation system focusing upon the individual school.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Objectives

In this report, we will present a limited sector assessment (LSA) of the education sector. The LSA differs from a conventional assessment in that it does not systematically analyze all of a program's activities in order to describe their degree of success. Instead, we present an overview of several projects and their institutional frameworks to arrive at recommendations addressing problems that are priorities for the sector as a whole. Our assessment will be limited in the sense that we will be discussing primary education only and in that our analysis is restricted to the key elements of the educational reform.

Between 1980 and 1989, USAID was barely involved in primary level education programs in French-speaking Africa. Any support that the agency did give was organized in the form of projects. The advantage of this approach was that USAID had direct control over the activities that it supported. The disadvantage was that it had only very limited influence on the planning and challenges affecting the entire sector. Moreover, project-based involvement results in problems of institutionalization and sustainability once the foreign aid ends.

It was to overcome these problems that, in 1989, USAID introduced the non-project assistance (NPA) approach, which concretely resulted in PASE I. This program was successful; nevertheless, as of 1995 (PASE II), the partners once again opted for projects. These projects incorporate the new planning focus known as Niveaux fondamentaux de qualité et d'équité (NFQE) or Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels (FQEL). Our study describes the education sector as it nears the end of PASE II (Programme d'Appui au Secteur de l'Éducation).

USAID commissioned this assessment indirectly through the Academy of Educational Development under the USAID Improving Educational Quality (IEQ2) Project to pursue its strategic education-related objective of ensuring that more and more children receive a better quality primary education on an equitable basis to prepare them properly to play a productive role in Guinean society. The members of the LSA team were in Guinea from August 28 to October 13, 1999. During this time, we met with a broad range of stakeholders within the education sector. We were able to observe the many accomplishments of certain services and NGOs but also heard the regrets of those who were disappointed by the slowness of the reforms. The latter led us to deliberate on the conditions and institutional arrangements that may promote or block educational reform.

"Effective schools" became the key concept in our assessment and the viewpoint from which we have tried to answer questions contained in our terms of reference. The end result of our work is relatively technical and conventional. We had to cover strategic planning, the Ministry's (MEPU-EC) management and decision-making capacities, primary education, gender and regional equity and

international donor agencies in order to define possibilities for improvement. We have done this to the best of our ability, situating the problems within our unique focus on effective schools.

1.2 Basic Assessment

The Guinean education system is costly and ineffective. Despite the headway made with respect to the majority of indicators (crude and net enrolment rates, inputs and outputs, national and international funding), the system's effectiveness has declined since 1993. It takes twenty student-years to produce one primary cycle graduate—four more than in 1993—and three-quarters of all places in the schools are occupied by children destined for academic failure.

The reasons for this situation are numerous, complex and interrelated. It is not enough to blame the Ministry's sluggishness, the failures of foreign aid or the country's poverty. The means employed to improve the situation are similar to those used in other countries in the region facing similar challenges. Initial objectives are very ambitious, a central, hierarchical system is set up, the focus is put on increasing the number of children entering the system and it is assumed that academic success will ensue.

The ambitious objective in the Guinean case is reflected in the Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels (FQEL). While we approve of the FQEL approach as a concept, we propose a different kind of planning, one oriented not toward the needs of the system but rather the needs of the schools. The following is a summary of our arguments and recommendations.

Educational reform planning often begins by defining needs. It is marked by listing everything that is lacking in terms of teachers, textbooks, infrastructures and institutions, and deducing from this list, what is needed to arrive at the ideal targeted, such as Education for All. What is lacking defines needs and subsequent actions. The reform becomes an exercise in hunting down inputs in order to produce outputs that will serve the education system.

The shortcomings of this approach are well known. Inputs (e.g. training) have often failed to produce outputs (e.g. educators on site) and the presence of outputs has never guaranteed the desired impact (academic results).

To date, the system, i.e. the set of policies and actions guided by the central authorities, has not produced the desired results. We propose using the opposite approach. Rather than using the system's needs as a starting point, we begin with the needs of the school. The education system is simply a process or tool. What really counts is what goes on in the school and the classrooms. The sole purpose of the system is to serve the schools. Academic achievement depends on the interaction of numerous factors, many of which are beyond the central authorities' control. Holding essential what occurs at the local level—the schools—is not

tantamount to denying the importance of a centralized system or denigrating the FQEL objective.[2]

1.3 Effective Schools

Let us begin by the end: what is the target impact we seek for schools? The answer may be summarized as follows. A school is effective if the students:

(1)	attend on a daily basis, progress from one level to another, and obtain their diploma;
(2)	leave the school able to read, write and solve problems;
(3)	become reasoning, independent citizens;
(4)	are in a position to be productive after completing their schooling.[3]

Operational measures for effectiveness indicators can include the following variables:

Attendance	- Daily attendance by students of both sexes in all grades and throughout the whole school year.
Progress	- Low repetition and drop-out rates; high continuation rate to secondary school.
Diploma	- High grade 6 success rate attested by primary graduation diploma.[4]
Literacy	- Ability to read, write and understand a text appropriate for the grade level.
Problem-solving skills	- Ability to work with figures but also generally to find logical solutions to problems (examples given in textbooks).
Students as reasoning, independent citizens	- Social skills such as persuasion by rational debate and participation in civil society.
Students as productive Individuals	- Productivity in, and income from, economic activities.

[2] Since the terms of reference (see Annex) target primarily the performance and limitations of the "system", this report deals mainly with the components of that system. Note however that these components appear in an entirely different light when viewed from the periphery rather than from the center.

[3] Methodological aspects of this orientation are discussed in Heneveld (1994).

[4] Currently, grade 7 admissions are the only available indicator of knowledge acquired at the primary level. It would be advisable to complement this indicator other others that can measure cognitive achievements at various levels.

The main factors contributing to this impact are twofold: those related to the school and those related to the system. We have discussed them in seven chapters, which deal, in turn, with institutional development, financial management, teacher training, educational demand, supply versus demand factors, region- and gender-based equity and community participation. Throughout, we acknowledge the tension between the central administration and the community, the "system" versus the school. It is the balance in the forces between these two poles that, to a large extent, determines school success.

2 INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

2.1 Evolution of Education Policy

Following independence in 1958, an initial education reform eliminated the French education system that existed in Guinea. This reform was marked by egalitarian, socialist objectives, expanding primary school into outlying areas, introducing African content, implementing centralized administration based on national standards, and, since 1968, teaching in the national languages. The educational objectives of this phase were adapted to the country's political and cultural realities. Quantitatively, they were resoundingly successful: the primary school population rose from 42,000 to 252,000 in ten years.

A second reform followed in the wake of political change in 1984. French once again became the only language of instruction and there was a massive effort to train teachers and restructure the Ministry. Despite its great symbolic importance, this reform remained incomplete.

The new education strategy of 1989 and the 1990 policy of structural adjustment in education introduced a new coherent orientation, which was clearly attractive for international donors. Its goals were to increase the resources allocated to primary education, increase access to school, improve the system's quality and internal efficiency, promote equity, strengthen the Ministry's capacity for management and stimulate decentralized planning and management. The result was the implementation of a modern system which made little room for local culture and which trained neither farmers nor a labor force for the informal sector, despite the fact that most students would end up in these two sectors. Yet, the quantitative success of the new strategy was spectacular.

The PASE (Programme d'Ajustement Structurel en Éducation, 1990-1994) incorporated the new strategy into its four components: (1) strengthen institutional capacity; (2) train and geographically "target" human resources; (3) build schools; and (4) produce teaching materials. This PASE (now known as PASE I) represented an institutional success from several angles. It united all partners in a common effort and kept them together through carefully selected means of monitoring and follow-up—the Comité de Suivi Interministériel, the MEPU's Comité de Pilotage and the Secrétariat Technique. It survived several major challenges (budgetary crises, reassignment of 1800 teachers) and led to significant expansion of the system from all points of view. Moreover, PASE I mobilized the nation and its partners in a common vision and common actions.

As of 1995, PASE II resulted in various changes. Projects replaced non-project assistance (NPA) and led to more piecemeal efforts. The mechanism of the three strategic planning and monitoring authorities slowed down, reducing dialogue and dissipating efforts. In response to certain criticisms levelled at PASE I, PASE

II targeted primarily the quality of education regardless of the form, rather than access to school.[5] Finally, the new program was implemented in a new political and economic environment in which budget allocations had changed[6] to the extent that one might wonder whether education was still considered the national priority.[7]

To summarize policy evolution over the past ten years, we can observe that, at least at first glance, policy objectives and general focus do not pose a problem. A conventional assessment would have to conclude that many of the target objectives were met, particularly in terms of access and enrolment rates. However, from the viewpoint of school effectiveness, the success is very limited:

- Children are learning less, not more, (see the drop in admission rates in grade seven);
- There are proportionally fewer graduates (currently 20 student-years are needed for a single primary cycle graduate).

If the education policy—albeit modern, generous, properly oriented—has not succeeded in making schools more effective, the reason lies in the terms and conditions governing its implementation rather than in the policy itself. We will seek the causes in the coming chapters of this report.

2.2 Existing Institutions

2.2.1 Ministries

The ministries responsible for education have undergone numerous changes over the past ten years. During the first phase of PASE I, the government created the Ministère de l'Enseignement Pré-Universitaire et de la formation professionnelle (MEPU-FP) responsible for all primary and secondary education and including all services required for PASE I.

The political events of 1996 led to restructuring which, in 1997, created the Ministère de l'Enseignement Technique et de la Formation Professionnelle (MET-FP) and inserted the rest of the MEPU-FP into a Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Recherche Scientifique (MEN-RS). In principle, this structure continues to exist today. In actual fact, it has been replaced by the current practice of dividing the responsibility for education between three ministries:

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[5] Synergy between the two approaches will be discussed later.

[6] Between 1995 and 1998, the share of the national budget earmarked for education dropped from 21% to 17%.

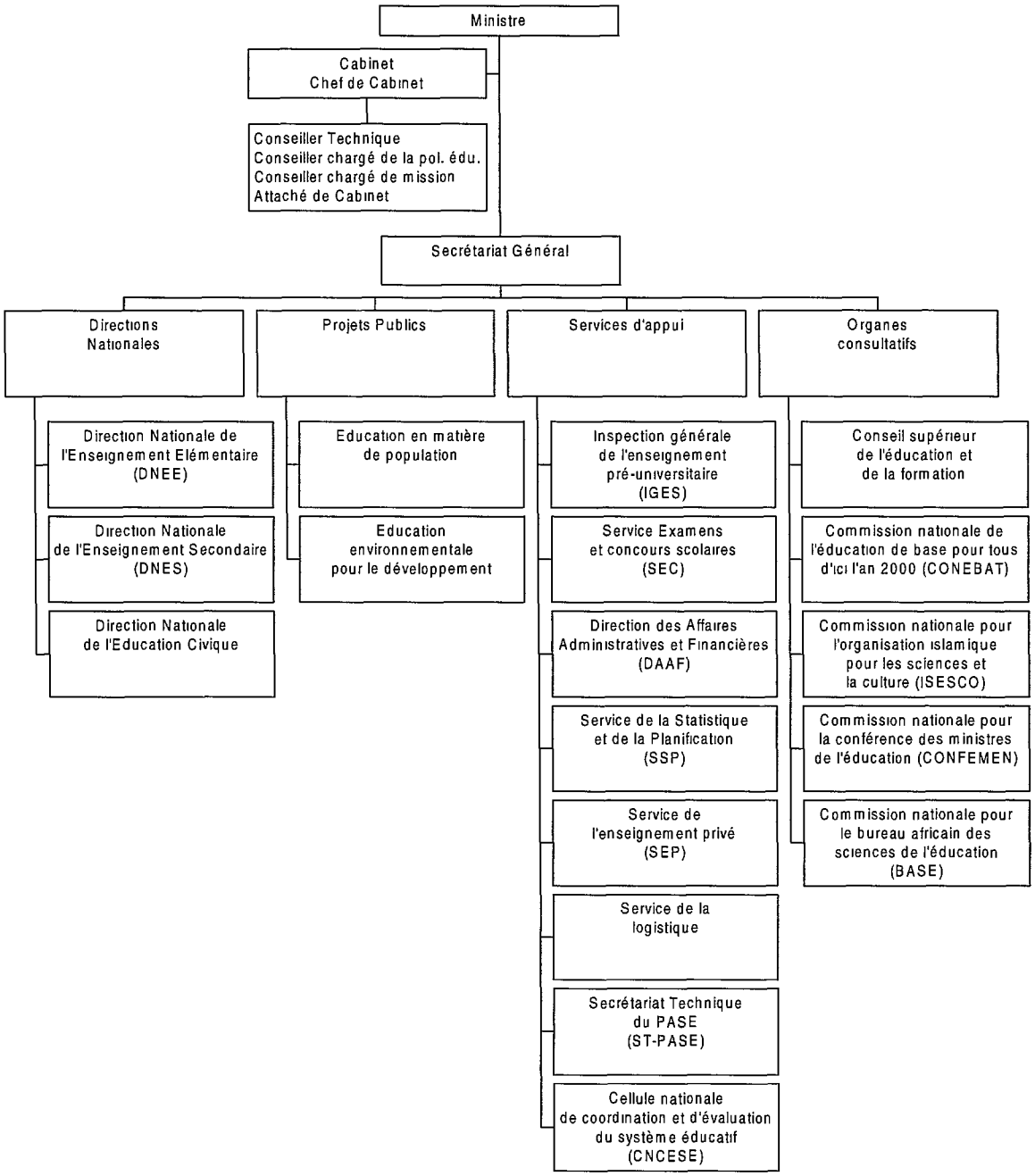
[7] Those involved agree that the national consensus and general enthusiasm have cooled since the end of PASE I. However, the reasons for this phenomenon are not clear. Some cite the departure of Minister Aicha Bah, the lack of donor coordination, the preoccupation with poverty and security, which ousted the concern for education, and simply the success of PASE I which, by opening access over and above the system's capacity, apparently created a plethora of management problems.

1. MEPU-EC is responsible for primary and secondary education (academic), civic education and literacy;
2. MET-FP is responsible for technical education and vocational training;
3. MES-RS groups together university education and scientific research.

According to a draft decree (not yet signed, but reportedly de facto enacted), MEPU-EC is currently organized as follows: [8]

[8] This flowchart, which is based upon a letter from the Minister, is incomplete, omitting such organizations as the Service National d'Alphabétisation and the Equity Committee. The official though still incomplete structure was published in the June 10, 1997 Journal Officiel. It is infinitely more complex than the simplified representation shown on this page.

MEPU-EC ORGANIZATIONAL FLOWCHART



The fact that this flowchart has not yet been officially approved does not seem to adversely affect the Ministry's everyday operations. In fact, it offers a certain amount of flexibility with regard to staff and task assignment. However, the drawbacks of this lack of formality are not negligible: the legal vacuum detracts

from institutional legitimacy[9], medium-term planning[10], autonomy and work continuity.[11] It is therefore essential that the MEPU-EC flowchart be officially approved to combat the negative aspects of the current situation. One of the additional benefits of official approval will be to provide a formal basis for organizations such as the Equity Committee and literacy services.

2.2.2 International Donor Agencies

In the past, a clear distinction between tasks has been observed according to the provenance of the means. Bilateral education assistance—typically that of France—was concentrated in technical assistance while multilateral assistance covered mainly equipment costs. The following table illustrates that this task breakdown has changed considerably. Many bilateral donor agencies limit themselves to equipment while multilateral organizations, at least in the case of the World Bank, also deal with training and pedagogy.

[9] This is frequently the case in certain personalized regimes. There is an entire body of literature on this topic (e.g. Craig, 1990).

[10] This planning is necessarily transferred to international donor agencies since their projects have three-to-five-year horizons.

[11] Some departments suffer from arbitrary staff transfers; elsewhere, the problem is that managers are not reinstated after leaving for training. Both of these seriously impede the independence and effectiveness of these departments. Chapter 3 of this report cites examples of this.

Table 2-1: Involvement of International Donor Agencies[12]

Source: BACC

International Donor, period and implementation organization	Overview of involvement	Cost (M of $)
World Bank 1996-2000 MEPU	"Equité et amélioration des écoles" - Increased access to schools (classroom construction and refitting; maintenance) - Improvement of learning (textbooks, teacher training, nutrition) - System management (tests, communication system, planning, pedagogy, management)	53.7
World Bank (2001-), MEPU	"Éducation de base pour tous" (in preparation)	
USAID 1990-2002 USAID 1995-2002 EDC, World Éducation, Save the Children, Plan International	Education Sector Reform Program (ESRP) "Niveaux fondamentaux de qualité et d'équité" - Improvement of management (management, planning, statistics, consultative process, quality indicators) - Improvement of teaching (professional development, teacher training) - Improvement of equity for girls and rural populations - Pedagogical support (teaching materials)) - Impact evaluation (national evaluation system for students)	10.7 20.0
Coopération française (renewable bi-annually) 15 permanent partners	"Rénovation du système éducatif guinéen" - Strengthening of centralized and regional administrations (reorganization, inspection, personnel files, student cards, Audit Unit, training of civil servants) - Renewal of educational measures (INRAP, action research, program, pedagogy) - Professional development network for teachers (PEN, CPMF, ISSEG, CAPL, APES, multigrade classes)	5.0 (11.7 FF+TA)
Union Européenne 1998-2000, MEPU	- Budgetary support (MEPU, MESRS, METFP) - Construction of classes, ISSEG, Ecole Nationale de Kindia	2.4
Coopération allemande (GTZ) 1996-2001 MEPU	"Renforcement de la formation des instituteurs en Moyenne Guinée" - Labé and Pita pilot project "Construction et équipement de classes" - 800 classes : Boké, Kindia, Mamou, Labé	6.7 (11.5 DM) 14.5 (25.0 DM)
UNICEF 1997-2001 NGOs, Communities	"Éducation de base pour tous" -Literacy, education of girls, multigrade classes	2.9
Aid and Action Period ?, NGO	Primary, pre-school and literacy education depending on needs expressed by the community	
African Development Bank 1998, MEPU	Classroom construction	2.7
Islamic Development Bank 1998, MEPU	Classroom construction	10.0
Coopération Japonaise 1998, MEPU	Classroom construction	0.7
Coopération Japonaise 1999- ?, MEPU	Classroom construction	16.7
KFW (German) 1998, MEPU	Classroom construction	10.1

[12] This summary is necessarily incomplete as are many other efforts in this area. (CAII, 1993) Thus, the "Overview of involvement" can give only a first impression of overall activities.

This summary table gives only an overall impression of what is currently true for foreign aid. However, it does support a number of general observations based on the content of international cooperative agreements:

- The sums involved are significant—approximately $75 per year per student—and support is concentrated heavily in primary education (which may give rise to problems of access to secondary school in the near future).
- Foreign aid affects all elements of primary education, from building and equipping schools and training teachers to mobilizing students' parents.
- Despite a definite will to decentralize, spending continues to be highly centralized, either because the institution targeted is central, as in the case of INRAP, or because an institution located far from the capital city, such as EDC, would see a substantial portion of its funds go through the banks, businesses and other institutions established in Conakry.
- In recent years, the lion's share of aid was channelled through the government and its ministries. However, even the use of non-governmental channels involves the State at many levels.
- The USAID program differs from the others in its use of international NGOs for project implementation.
- More than half of the funds donated are used to build classrooms. This would seem to pursue the PASE I aim of extending access, although suitable classrooms are clearly also a factor in school quality.

From an institutional viewpoint, contributions through international donor agencies continue to constitute a major challenge. To be effective, an institution must enjoy means of management and monitoring which are proportional to its resources. However, in this area, we see foreign organizations making substantial resources available to institutions that are weak in terms of management and monitoring. Efforts are being made to improve this situation through technical assistance and tight accounting controls, sometimes even with some success. But the failures of the recent past, for instance, the last textbook distribution campaign, show that we are still far from an ideal situation where individuals and institutions protect the resources effectively and on an ongoing basis.

2.2.3 The Private Sector

In this section, we will begin by presenting the limited data that exists on private schools in Guinea. We will then look at whether there is potential for significant growth in this sector and, if so, under what conditions. Finally, we will comment on what is no doubt currently the major component of private education: Koranic schools.

Under the colonial system, private education in Guinea was virtually synonymous with French, Catholic or lay schools. The First Republic nationalized private institutions and those run by religious congregations but, after 1984, the

government itself called for certain private schools, especially Catholic ones, to re-open. Once the door had been opened, private education quickly became more diversified. The following was the situation in 1992 and 1998:

Table 2-2: Private Schools by Type

Type of Institution	Conakry		National total	
	1992	1998	1992	1998
Lay schools	15	213	21	297
Catholic Schools	3	8	4	17
Medersa		1	7	20
Franco-Arabic Schools	6	28	37	122
Protestant Schools		4	1	9
Total	24	254	70	465

The category "lay schools" is the largest (297 in 1998) followed by French-Arabic schools (122)—a type that seems realistic politically speaking and well adapted to the Islamic culture. The category which was smallest in 1998 (nine Protestant schools) has probably grown rapidly since 1992 without having earned corresponding public recognition to date. On the whole, private primary schools accounted for 16,484 students or 4.6% of the total in 1992 and 85,683 students or 12.7% of the total in 1998.

The private sector has, therefore, almost tripled its market share in only six years—amazing growth once the legal barriers (until 1984) were lifted and the legal vacuum (until 1993) eliminated. Yet, there is reason to believe that these numbers might be even higher. To operate legally, a private school requires two documents, an "autorisation de création" and an "arrêté d'ouverture". Apparently, these documents can be obtained only after long negotiations.[13] Many persons involved stated that there are hundreds of unauthorized schools that have been unable to obtain one or the other of these documents. They are referred to as "clandestine", but their clandestine nature is far from certain. We observed that the students of one of these unauthorized schools included the entire local elite, including children of MEPU-EC public servants.

According to the MEPU-EC's private education promotion section, there is ample justification for a policy that is even more favorable for private schools. These schools provide more school spaces, release the State from some of its

[13] This procedure can be interpreted as legitimate control exercised by the State or as an example of bureaucratic inefficiency. The fact remains that a good many private schools may operate without being authorized or prohibited by the MEPU-EC agency in charge of monitoring them.

obligations and provide jobs. Since some private schools enjoy the reputation of being the country's best, it is the private sector that actually sets standards of performance that the public sector must take into account. Once the State has done what is necessary to speed up private school certification, to standardize their programs and recognize their diplomas, the public will have complete confidence and private sector growth could become even more impressive.[14]

Figures for Islamic schools are harder to come by. There are two types: Medersa, which the children attend full-time according to a regular teaching program, and Koranic schools, which are much more informal and often consist of twenty to forty students meeting with a teacher for two hours. The children learn the verses, chants and rituals essential to the practice of their religion. Most Guinean children attend Koranic school for several years; many maintain the relation with their teacher throughout their lives, complete with the resulting social and financial obligations. This institution makes no less than four major contributions to Guinean culture:

- Koranic school plays a role in the child's socialization, establishing order and discipline. Authority is defined here and the roles of men and women are learned—in short, it fulfils some functions of any school.[15]
- It teaches the Arabic alphabet and reading. Most children do not learn Arabic but will be familiar with an alphabet even though according to the notions of public school, they will remain illiterate.
- Since memorization is often practised without a full understanding of the texts, Koranic school is a place where the children learn to memorize passages whose content is difficult.
- Koranic school represents economic advantages that have yet to be studied in greater depth. For example, being literate in Arabic permits written communication among the Peuls who have not attended French school, enabling them to write their national language in Arabic letters. A girl who has not attended Koranic school may be at an economic disadvantage when it comes to marriage.

In short, we would suggest that the private education sector is growing very quickly, that its enrollments are probably greatly underestimated in official statistics, that it is subject to very little State control and that it absorbs a very significant portion of education demand—demand which is not met by the public sector. It is possible that, in the near future, the private sector will be responsible for 30% or even 40% of primary education, at least in the cities.

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[14] Our detailed counts in a Conakry district showed nine private schools versus one public school. (See Annex 14)

[15] The ideology and pedagogical practices of Koranic schools may be very different from those of public schools, to the point of opposing them.

2.2.4 Functions and Coordination of Efforts

Let us first note the positive aspects of coordination in the public sector and between the various international donor agencies:

- The sweeping education reform is still in its infancy. It began with PASE I and the momentum created by this program has been fruitful. The joint efforts of all actors working together are responsible for the coordinated, spectacular broadening of access to primary school. Concerted efforts during this phase were no coincidence and the current reactivation of the consultation and concertation mechanisms which, from 1995 to 1997 seemed to have fallen into disuse, augurs well.
- The State, the major international donor agencies and NGOs currently use forums for consultation, media communications, public reports, etc. to ensure that the FQEL are known, understood and discussed. While there are definitely differences between institutions, on the whole, education players agree on the need for better quality and fairer access to school.
- There is no fundamental conflict. All agree, at least in what is said and written, on the objectives of schools, the broad lines of modern pedagogy and the role of the State in regulating programs, standards, diplomas and institutions.

However, there is a burgeoning private sector whose potential far exceeds the State's current regulatory capacity. This may result in curricular chaos, abuse by unscrupulous principal-entrepreneurs and the production of many "educated" illiterates. In Haiti, USAID is trying to offset a similar situation through its FONHEP program. USAID is using this experience as a demonstration model in Guinea. However, it is clear that national planning has not yet drawn all of the necessary conclusions from the Haitian situation to meet the Guinean challenge.

The rapid growth of private schools may be interpreted as a response to the mobilization of PASE I, which would have left the country with insufficient space in the schools. This explanation would be at least partly correct, even though the private sector re-emerged before the onset of PASE. In fact, private schools seem to complement public schools. Their numbers and staff have grown most rapidly in those areas where the lack of public supply is most blatant, i.e. in urban areas. But they also permit the risk inherent in schooling to be diversified and the cost to be reduced even within families. This was one of our findings in the field.[16]

Let us now turn to certain more problematic aspects of how functions are assigned in the public sector. Assignments sometimes seem to result from changes in the Ministry's organization, and sometimes from successive, and not

[16] In order to gain a good understanding of the private education sector, this question would have to be studied. Our cursory field assessment showed that many families divided their children almost equally between modern public schools, private schools, and French-Arabic schools.

always coherent, demands from international donor agencies. Certain duties are the responsibility of more than one Ministry at the same time, for instance:

Table 2-3: Examples of Duplication of Duties in the MEPU-EC

Function	Organization in charge
Program development	INRAP ; Directions nationales
Statistics	SSP ; Directions nationales
Equipment needs assessment	SSP ; SNIES ; Directions nationales
Personnel and movement files	DAAF ; Directions nationales
Planning of Teacher Training	INRAP ; DAAF ; SNFP ; SSP ; Commissions ad hoc
System performance studies	INRAP ; Inspection générale ; CNESE

Such duplication is not necessarily bad. Sometimes it must be accepted in the interest of institutional autonomy. However, in the case of the MEPU, it would be best to make a decision and assign duties to one body once and for all. Current statistics are sometimes contradictory, making management and planning more difficult and even resulting in ineffective staff assignment, to mention only one problem.

International donor agencies, while working jointly in some aspects,[17] sometimes play the same duplication game. For example, they support the PASE Service Technique in charge of supervision and accounting for the various program components—duties that are also the responsibility of MEPU-EC departments such as the DAAF and the Service National des Infrastructures et Équipements Scolaires (SNIES).

The underlying reason for occasional failure where international donor agencies' joint efforts are concerned is no doubt linked to the support structure. During PASE I, donor agencies were united, among other things, by joint endorsement of the conditionalities of structural adjustment. The transition to PASE II eliminated this element. Now, each donor agency may plan, implement, evaluate and renew its projects according to its own requirements and, more particularly, its own schedule. This does not mean that confusion reigns, quite the contrary. All involved agree that the education reform warrants ongoing, coherent support. Exchanges also continue particularly during the informal meetings that the donor agencies organize on a monthly rotating basis. On the whole, the will for coordinated efforts is stronger than each partner's individual interests.

Coordinating donors will remain a priority in the near future for several reasons. First, the challenge of harmonious development has become much greater (a) because support on a by-project basis makes it more difficult to achieve and (b)

[17] Donor agencies seem to continue to meet for regular consultation meetings on a monthly basis.

because a significant and growing component—private schools—is largely free of centralized control. Moreover, the visions and approaches of individual donors are varied, hence increasing the importance of agreeing on basic principles. Finally, certain activities must necessarily be coordinated if they are to have the desired impact. These include program development, textbook production, teacher training (initial training and professional development) and staff management.

Despite donor participation in efforts which are often poorly coordinated and despite the redundancy mentioned above, donors seem largely satisfied with the current level of coordination. We were told on several occasions that the (informal) meetings were useful and sufficient, that support for various projects was well designed and fruitful and that there was neither disharmony nor competitiveness between donors. The message from the ministry was the same, with satisfaction greater than misgivings. Nonetheless, some voices in the ministry would prefer to see a PASE I type of program support.

Though all partners seem to find that routine coordination mechanisms are working acceptably, we feel that it is important to initiate some type of special coordination in two areas: decentralization of the education system and school quality, two new and interrelated issues.

Decentralization: Only the leverage of international aid has the potential to foster true decentralization of resources and power. Despite the good will of certain individuals, the government machine is still so "top-to-bottom", Conakry so dominant and civil society so disempowered that only targeted, decentralized allocation of international aid can change the situation. Periodic contributions by certain donors are a step in the right direction but overall coordination would bring faster results. USAID has launched a very promising decentralization initiative in its work with NGOs, but a more generalized and coordinated mobilization of donors could lead to true decentralization of government services.

School Quality: Repeated euphoric announcements regarding rising crude enrollment rates have caused certain players to forget that what is actually happening in schools is tragic. The fact that three quarters of all students fail or are expelled without finishing is a national disaster. International donors should target access to quality schools rather than access alone, since they are the ones with the comparative experience, research mechanisms and knowledge of optimal investment choices. One possibility might be a "Year of Quality" comprised of research programs, public forums, awards for high-performance schools and teachers, etc.

With regards to cross-relations between government ministries responsible for education as well as those involving other ministries, the LSA team can only repeat certain comments made during the interviews. For instance:

- It is clear that competition for shares of the national budget is ongoing and that the initial successes enjoyed by the MEPU and primary education are no guarantee whatsoever of future funding. This does not promote friendly collaboration among these ministries.
- The fact that essential controls, such as budget monitoring, are carried out by the employees of other government ministries may seem surprising. Such a division of responsibilities and loyalties results in occasional blockages and a permanent feeling of unaccountability on the part of staff.
- Apparently the MEPU has great difficulty hiring and keeping skilled staff. The team heard complaints to the effect that rather than being assigned to outlying regions, teachers preferred to be transferred to another ministry in Conakry, or even to continue their studies and pursue options unrelated to teaching. Salary scales have already been reviewed, and beginning a teaching career corresponds to a higher level on the public sector wage scale. However, the effect of this measure seems to be weak.

Although duplication of duties makes certain services more expensive, some services have trouble finding takers. For example, the pedagogical services of the Inspectorat Régional, already irregular and incomplete in the public schools, seem to be virtually non-existent in private schools, despite the fact that private education clearly falls under the authority of the MEPU-EC. For the time being, the most urgent duties are settled amicably: the principal of an unauthorized private school can convince the Inspecteur Régional to admit his students to the national exams. But much remains to be done before uniform services and standards apply to primary education across the board.

2.3 Current planning objectives

2.3.1 Performance Objectives

The Guinean long-term planning objective is "Education for all". The SSP has extrapolated several variables in order, among other things, to estimate the need for building and renovating classrooms. The following table summarizes this vision of a possible future.

We could also add other estimates related to the need for teachers, textbooks, etc. Some of these figures are mere extrapolations of current trends[18] while others are indicators allowing improvements in the system to be measured from certain viewpoints. It goes without saying that these are neither forecasts nor actual concrete planning but only a rather unrealistic vision.

[18] The SSP seems to apply a constant rate of growth (3% per year) to both the total population and the school age population, a procedure which is questionable but which can be justified from the point of data quality.

Table 2-4: Possible Evolution Toward "Education for All"

	1999	2010
Total population (in thousands)	7 700	10 200
Population aged 7 to 12 years (in thousands)	1 392	1 842
Crude enrolment rate	53,53	100
Number of students (in thousands)	726	1 773
Classrooms (in thousands)	16,4	38,8

The Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels (FQEL) also constitute performance objectives, even if the documents give no temporal goal. These levels are expressed[19] in two forms—what is "targeted" and what is "acceptable".

Table 2-5: Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels: Target and Acceptable Levels

Source: MEPU-EC, 1999.

Indicator	Target Level	Acceptable Level
Percentage of girls to total number of students	50%	40%
Percentage of girls to new enrollments	50%	40%
Number of students per teacher and classroom (rural areas)	40	30 – 50
Number of students per teacher and classroom (urban centers)	50	40 – 60
Double-shift classrooms	0	
Percentage of teachers having education level of BACC1 or equivalent	90%	70%
Percentage of teachers having the required level of professional development	100%	80%
Number of textbooks available to a grade one or grade two student	3	2
Number of textbooks available to a grade three or grade four student	6	4
Number of textbooks available to a grade five or grade six student	7	5
Percentage of students passing grade seven entrance exam	80%	60%
Maximum repetition rate for each level	10%	

These performance objectives contain aspects related to school quality and

[19]For example, in the Ministry's April 28, 1999 newsletter. Four years earlier, the MEPU had stated some of these objectives in a letter on the development of education policy. They are also found in the form of variables in the USAID FQEL project (August 1995) and in USAID contracts with the NGOs.

accessibility.[20] They are presented as "flexible, dynamic, constantly changing. They must be readjusted, adapted and completed bit by bit..." (MEPU-EC, 1999:3). This means that the education system's basic performance objectives are neither specific nor compulsory nor decreed for any given date. They are an expression of hope and good will in the highest echelons. While this is not negligible, their usefulness for short-and medium-term planning is very limited.

2.3.2 Budgetary Objectives

The major change in the funding of education in Guinea occurred during the period of structural adjustment covered by PASE I. Public education expenditures rose from 10% of the overall budget in 1990 to 21% in 1995, with the share slated for primary education increasing from 33% to 36%. The most impressive change occurred at the very beginning of PASE I, when public education expenditures rose from 10% to 19% in a single year. This figure then declined to 17% in 1998.[21]

Current budgetary objectives do not seem to favour the MEPU-EC. According to the Ministère du Plan's macroeconomic framework, its share in the national operating budget will drop from 10.00% in 1998 to 8.52% in 1999, in current FG and in a context in which the national budget increases 7.7%. If, during the same period, we add an impressive number of new contract teachers, the result will necessarily be a high deficit that will worsen as investments increase in the years to come.[22]

At this time, we will limit ourselves to three observations. First, contrary to what recently occurred in many other African countries, the pro-primary education effort in Guinea continues to be considerable and ongoing. Second, needs change so quickly that funding from international donor agencies will remain decisive for progress where education is concerned.[23] The two elements are clearly linked in the sense that it is improbable that the World Bank will maintain its future commitments unless the Guinean government maintains its commitments at current levels.

The third observation looks ahead to the budgetary projections presented in the following chapter. These partial and very conservative projections show that the operating budget (in constant FGs) of primary education must almost double over the next ten years to attain the quantitative FQEL objectives. If one adds the required investment budget, these figures are totally out of reach, even under optimal circumstances. Budgetary considerations alone therefore cast doubt on

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[20] The problem of equity is discussed in another section of this report. For the time being, simply note that it is understood as equality or proportionality as concerns girls' access, and as an acceptable compromise between access and cost as concerns class size in rural environments.

[21] This setback is offset by an increase in the share of primary education, which reached 43% in 1998.

[22] MEPU-EC's share in public investments is supposed to increase from 5.16% in 1998 to 10.41% in 2000 (MPC, 1999: Tables 4 and 5).

[23] Clearly the latter account for the large increase in public investment.

a system which produces mostly high failure and drop-out rates at great cost where these same budget figures could conceivably produce much higher finishing rates.[24]

2.3.3 Institutional Objectives

Reinforcing institutional capacity is an objective that all international donor agencies share. The combination of this will to strengthen the ministries and the institutions reporting to them, on the one hand, and the availability of substantial means, on the other, has produced a situation of considerable dependence where Guinean institutions are supported,[25] infiltrated[26] and sometimes guided[27] by foreign human and material resources. This support is, no doubt, useful and even necessary, but it is not clear how this structure could continue without foreign support. As yet, there is no guarantee of institutional sustainability. Guinean institutions are definitely successful in providing certain services, but the three main annual increased inputs required—more teachers, classrooms, textbooks—are so heavily dependent on foreign support that local institutions would have little chance of surviving without this support.

Since there is no recent document announcing a plan to reorganize government ministries or add new institutions, we must conclude that the institutional objectives can be summarized as the improvement and expansion of existing structures. Some departments have already shown significant improvement. For example, the SSP's quality and mastery of data are better than they were a few years ago, and they continue to improve. Similar observations apply to the DAAF and the INRAP. "Improve management" is an expression that recurs in many international donor agency documents and may be considered the Ministry's prime institutional objective.

It is the system's expansion that currently represents the major challenge for improving management. Some institutions can perform on a small scale but are unable to face the major challenges resulting from the success of PASE I. For example, an ENI can properly train one hundred teachers, but training thousands year after year requires a radical change in the human resource production system.[28] The immediate causes for the major management challenges in this area are:

- The mass of students, schools, teachers and materials to manage has experienced rapid growth that cannot be managed by the existing structures.

[24] This statement is based on 1993-2000 simulations presented in CAII, 1998 (Annex 5). It would be useful to bring these simulations up to date.
[25] See the major amounts in the preceding table.
[26] See the presence of French and other technical assistants in virtually all services.
[27] For example, it was international donor agencies that "suggested" creating a "Cellule nationale" for auditing purposes.
[28] It is not surprising that the production of teachers has become subject to extraordinary measures ("emergency") and that the jobs of these new teachers are also extraordinary, i.e. contractual.

- Since 1990, intervention has been concentrated in more isolated, outlying rural areas which are, consequently, more difficult to manage. The new target populations—rural, poor, female—need new approaches based on the mobilization and participation of populations for whom school does not necessarily constitute a promising investment.
- Progress has been made, but the end goal is still far away: less than half of all children attend school[29] and less than one child in seven completes the primary cycle. Most of the work has yet to be done—in the context of a demographic explosion.
- The deconcentrated institutions: the Inspection Régional de l'Éducation (IRE) and Direction Préfectorale de l' Éducation (DPE) are under-equipped from all viewpoints and unable to manage the new administrative and pedagogical approaches required.

The Ministry possesses a number of valuable planning mechanisms. The PASE's technical secretariat is seasoned, tools such as the SSP and school map (which is a component) are performing adequately and there is a strategic planning team comprising fifteen senior members from a great many directorates and departments (see annex). The conditions are, therefore, conducive for defining institutional objectives that correspond to the will expressed in the FQEL.

These objectives should include genuine decentralization measures. A system that more closely reflects education demand and that is better adapted to true field conditions offers a better chance for meeting the major challenges looming ahead. Which would be the most promising institutional decentralization measures? Some recommendations are:

- Centralized duties and responsibilities must be separated from decentralized ones. Each level has a monitoring and evaluation circuit that must operate independently. To identify priorities and follow-up, the decentralized level must answer to representatives of civil society, for instance, the APEAEs.
- To render decentralized services operational, one must not simply promulgate their founding texts. They need resources, specific job descriptions and a certain degree of genuine autonomy.
- Gradually, communities must become responsible, at the appropriate level, for decision-making, participation in activity funding, execution and evaluation and, especially, means to ensure that school becomes effective.

Currently, the system remains highly centralized, and the reasons for its ineffectiveness reside precisely in this fact. Since to date the deconcentration policy has done nothing to increase school quality or effectiveness, we

[29] The CER is greatly abused; the NER is only 41%. Even if we concede that the number of private schools has been massively underestimated, the NER is definitely not 50%. Worse yet, the 32,000 primary cycle graduates represent only 14.5% of the population aged 12, which is estimated at 220,000.

recommend that a mixed team define and propose associated measures to make it effective. These measures would, no doubt, include training executives at the decentralized level, repairing rooms, equipping inspectors and administrators and other inputs. Central to these measures would, however, be the transfer of authority and responsibility to the decentralized levels (region, prefecture and sub-prefecture). Henceforth, these levels would be held responsible for the successes and mistakes occurring under their authority.

2.4 The Institutional Context

2.4.1 The Administrative and Legal Context

At first glance, the administrative and legal situation surrounding primary education does not appear problematic. The reform has been law since 1989, the administrative units are in place and the fact that the latest ministerial reorganization has not yet been endorsed by the executive does not seem to impede its operation. But, appearances can be deceiving! The fact that the units exist in no way guarantees that they are able to produce what is expected of them. The practical impact of a law is null and void if its application is neglected, impossible or systematically opposed.

If the problem is not a legal vacuum, possible improvements must be sought in the details surrounding its implementation. This is clearly the conclusion drawn by all of the outside international donor agencies that, for years, have helped increase the Ministry's administrative capacity. In this area, two approaches have been tested in similar situations: increase administrative controls at the central level, or decentralize resources and monitoring duties. The first is difficult, costly and often unproductive. All centralized, hierarchical systems are very vulnerable since one defect or weakness may be fatal for the system as a whole. The second may be worrisome for the central authority, which must relinquish control of certain resources. However, it constitutes a critical asset by allowing resources to be controlled and protected by those individuals who would suffer directly in case of negligence, an accident, theft or any other problem.[30]

While it would be very good for Guinea to adopt even more rational and modern laws and regulations, doing so would have little impact per se. In today's weak, variable and personalized administrative context, only effective decentralization would benefit schools.

2.4.2 The Political Context

Power is needed to govern. It is not clear how much power a MEPU-EC minister wields in order to successfully implement a major reform. Although the ministers

[30] To cite only one example, textbook distribution in public schools by a central authority is subject to significant abuse, resulting in the fact that many children have no books. Distribution is less problematic in private schools since a principal would lose his reputation, clientele and income if the students had no books. His personal interests coincide with the pedagogical objectives targeted. In a hierarchical public system, no public servant would lose a cent if the students had no books.

of this decade have succeeded in significantly increasing the share of the budget allocated for education, they were able to do so only thanks to pressure from multilateral agencies and the injection of major sums of money from outside the country. This context has not changed. Donor agency support and influence both remain strong.

Therefore, it is the broader political context—government leaders and heads of foreign agencies—that, to a great extent, determines the choice of aims and slogans "Education for all" and, by the same token, limits the implementation of innovative approaches. That which is centralized and conventional is accepted by the national government, for instance, the continuing education of teachers, which increases the human capital under State control. It is difficult to achieve anything innovative and decentralized, such as the real transfer of resources to independent associations of parents.

There are indications of the lesson that MEPU strategists and certain funding organizations have learned from this. One of the biggest current projects, that of USAID, promotes effective decentralization. The Ministry's deconcentration and decentralization measures have also resulted in more professionals being stationed far from the capital. However, much remains to be done because, more often than not, these individuals are "antennae" for the central power rather than islands of autonomy and independent action.

2.4.3 The Economic Context

Guinea's economic constraints are real, but are not the sole reason for the urgent needs of the country's schools. First, public education has fared rather well, having substantially increased its resources in the past ten years, to the detriment of other sectors.[31] Next, the private resources mobilized in the recent explosion of private education indicate that the lack of public funding does not necessarily curb the system's expansion. Finally, it is not at all clear that abundant financial resources will guarantee an improvement in the education system and production of a more educated labor force. If this were the case, Nigeria would not be where it is today and textbooks would not have disappeared in Guinea.

All of this suggests that budgetary constraints are not responsible for the education system's lackluster performance. While it is true that school construction, teacher training and school supplies are costly, often it is not a lack of funds that has made enforcement of the reform impossible. Teachers have been trained, only to be sent home without teacher's manuals and textbooks. Such "training" should be considered null and void. It represents not a partial success ("training given") but a complete failure (quality of school unchanged). Schools were built but have no teachers. Funding was slated for the production of books that were never printed. Textbooks were distributed and later

[31] Although its share of public expenditure was reduced to 17% in 1998, there has been an overall increase of approximately 70% since 1990.

reappeared outside Guinea. It is likely that those responsible for these breaches did not suffer any consequences. It is time that implementation and resource control mechanisms changed.

2.5 Institutional Capacity and Institutional Development

2.5.1 Comparison Between Institutional Capacity and Institutional Development

Institutional capacity can be compared to a toolbox. We might ask whether a given institution possesses the tools needed to carry out its tasks. If this is not the case, needs can be assessed and what is lacking can be supplied. The assistance received by the MEPU since PASE I is a good example of this approach. Examples in each of the six main areas are:

Table 2-6: Institutional Capacity and Development

Institutional Capacity	Examples of support given to MEPU
Programming	Technical assistance in preparation of action plans
Strategic leadership	Support for PASE technical secretariat
Human resources	Continued presence of French technical assistance
Material resources	Computer equipment and vehicles to school construction; for all intents and purposes, international support takes the place of an investment budget.
Links between institutions	Function of PASE technical secretariat; meetings with international donors.
Management	DAAF technical assistance

Institutional capacity alone is not sufficient. It does not explain why some work is done well and other work is left undone. International aid for development is a graveyard of failed institutional strengthening efforts—failed in the sense that new human resources have not been used to serve the institution and the target populations.[32] Institutional capacity building should never be confused with institutional development. They differ in terms of the coherence and legitimacy of the actions taken.[33]

The legitimacy of an action designed to result in institutional reinforcement is not measured in terms of whether it corresponds to programming or budget guidelines. The population that is to benefit from it is the judge. This is a universal truth. An institution may be very modest, but, if it is adapted to the needs of its beneficiaries, acknowledged to be useful and connected to the structures of legitimate power, it will be considered legitimate. This is often true for religious institutions or health establishments. If, in addition, its actions are coherent and adapted to social realities, it may enjoy a long life. If, on the other

[32] This does not mean that managers and evaluators consider these projects a failure. As long as expenditures were in keeping with procedure, any project can be declared a success.

[33] In a program's Logframe, institutional capacity is documented as an input while institutional development is part of the impact.

hand, an institution acts in a manner that is poorly adapted, for example, by ignoring local values and authorities, cultural traditions or the interests of those who are ultimately supposed to benefit, it will be illegitimate. It may be tolerated, but it will not have a development effect.[34] If, in addition, its actions are incoherent, it will lose all credibility.

How do we know whether an activity constitutes true institutional development and whether it has a chance of success and sustainability? Such activities are distinguished by three elements:

- First, there is an in-depth study of the "baseline". To measure progress, it is necessary to know the starting point—not only in terms of quantifiable indicators, but also in terms of social environment, complex causalities and rationale for existing systems.
- Second, there is an ongoing concern for understanding what is happening, not only in terms of the headway made, but also the processes responsible for this headway. There is a major, independent monitoring and evaluation service.
- Third, there is sustained, unflagging interest in the activity's impact at the target level, not only in inputs and immediate products.

The FQEL project has certain shortcomings where each of the three elements is concerned. In-depth studies on the baseline are virtually non-existent. Certain aspects are known, particularly through the work of the SSP and the school map (e.g. the school attendance rate for girls), while others have not been studied despite the fact that they are of critical importance for the project (e.g. the presence or absence of the APEAEs). In terms of comprehending processes, the emergence of private schools is not yet clearly understood. Why are impoverished parents prepared to pay large amounts for these schools but refuse the modest contribution required by the APEAE? Ultimately, the lack of concern for impacts is a serious shortcoming. To mention only a few examples: What is the impact of the presence of the technical assistants in the departments and institutions? What is the impact where schools are concerned? What was the impact of training teachers who now continue to work under pre-reform conditions?

To date, the PASE program has virtually only reinforced institutional capacity. It has produced schools, teachers, services, books, etc., in significant—though inadequate—numbers. But the system is no better for it. In terms of quality, it is worse than it was ten years ago. The institutions have not developed to make the work effective and to enhance the impact at the classroom level; without this impact, institutional capacity is useless.

[34] To quote an education researcher: "Educational planning will not succeed unless it is based on the aspirations and expectations of the majority of the population ..." (Foster, 1975: 375).

2.5.2 A Typical Case of Institutional Capacity: Geographic Information Systems

Geographic Information Systems (GISs) are gems for spatial analyses and programming of social and administrative variables. With them, one can combine the statistical variables available for an administrative unit with specific geographic data to visualize, for instance, student density per population, a school's distance from a major road and the risk of flooding and disease in certain localities.

GIS systems are costly and complex. The purchase price ($25,000 - $40,000 for the computer, digital data entry tables, large-format colour laser printers, etc.) is just the tip of the proverbial iceberg. Initial training is quite long. In Canadian universities, it represents at least two consecutive courses, or the equivalent of three months' full-time studies for an adequate introduction. Continuing training is also considerable: it too is costly and rarely available in Africa. The most important element to take into account is the labor market. It is rather unlikely that a government ministry would be able to keep an individual with GIS training on staff long. To keep one GIS professional on staff, at least five need to be trained, and only the least competent one will stay. Moreover, GIS-related work is generally done in teams. It is rare that an isolated individual will continue to perform GIS-related tasks well. Finally, without constant data updating—to ensure that information is relevant and reliable—the GIS system rapidly loses its value.

In Guinea, one GIS service currently operating is the university's. The SSP has proposed (for the past year) equipping itself with this new technology and using it in the decentralization of services. The reasons cited are that the IREs are not yet able to make decisions concerning staff, budgets, exams, etc., and that access to GIS technology, or at least its results, would allow these decisions to be made.

The SSP's request, expressed in a recent document (SSP, July 1999) is understandable, but raises a whole range of questions. Are the staff, funds and especially operating budgets available to implement such a complex tool? Certainly not on a long-term basis. Do they have the experience required in similar areas? The long, laborious and costly story of the school map that took years and still is not completely operational, suggests not. More important: is there a need for such a costly, complex gem? We strongly doubt it. What is currently lacking is the effective flow of reliable data and its use in planning. A GIS system would not change this in any way.

Rather than implementing a second GIS service in Guinea, the MEPU's SSP might consider collaborating with the existing service. If this collaboration were to prove constructive over a two-year period, the usefulness of implementing a GIS service within the SSP could be re-evaluated.

2.6 Institutional Support Options

Until now, there has been a tendency to view support for Guinean educational institutions as a choice between two extremes: programs or projects; centralized or decentralized institutions; access or quality; infrastructures or staff. PASE I favored centralized institutions and access to school and infrastructures through a single, centrally coordinated program. In making these choices, the partners of the time opened the door to implementing an intrinsically cohesive set of reforms. The results, schools which were accessible but very ineffective, are the target of this report.

Ironically, PASE II, which offered a type of support that was much less homogeneous and difficult to coordinate, emphasized the need for cohesive reforms, without which schools are destined to remain ineffective. Only now is there a growing realization that the main inputs are interdependent: schools without teachers are useless; teachers without tools cannot teach; students without books cannot learn.[35]

If budgetary support has not produced cohesive reforms, while project support has led towards such cohesion, how can these two approaches be compared? Evidently, it was not their reciprocity that made the difference. Since each approach produced the results expected of the other, it is unlikely that the choice of approach was the determining factor in the success of reforms. Rather, the successes were due more to the motivation of certain individuals than to any support strategy. Therefore, we do not recommend returning to the PASE I stage. If the project support approach allows reforms to be carried out in a coordinated, integrated and effective manner, it should be viable despite any management difficulties involved.

On the other hand, we argue strongly for decentralization. All too often, support at the central level has lead to stunning failures. Delegating certain administrative functions to the periphery can considerably improve management at the national level. Educational resources and those who control them must be brought together closer to the classroom, at the school and préfecture levels. Other chapters of this report propose concrete measures for achieving such decentralization.

For now, suffice it to say that centralized PASE I support merely contributed to making schools, which were already weak, even more ineffective while the option of decentralized support (e.g. through USAID projects) offers the potential of being more effective.

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[35] Although there are exceptions and certain teachers have done extraordinary work in dire circumstances, these cases will not be discussed here as they cannot serve as models for a more general reform.

2.7 Summary: The Institutional Challenge

This overview of the institutional context surrounding primary education should clearly be accompanied by a detailed assessment of concrete projects. For this, we must rely on past evaluations (e.g. CAII, 1993; AED, 1998; Fox et al., 1999). These show that while the programs were implemented enthusiastically and intelligently, they often failed to move beyond the level of aid and capacity building. Real institution development requires something else. We are pleased to note that the FQEL stresses the legitimacy of action by involving local communities to a great extent and that it promotes coherent action by stressing school quality rather than mere accessibility for those unfortunate children who will never get as far as grade six.

Let us come back to the fundamental problem discussed in this report, school effectiveness, which is the objective of institutional development. What institutional arrangements would be required for schools to increase their effectiveness? We propose the following three:

- First, the school principal must ensure that a climate conducive to learning reigns, along with conditions and processes that facilitate learning. Currently, there is no incentive for the principal to reduce class size or to hire and motivate innovative, competent teachers. Schools will be more effective when their effectiveness is in the principal's interest. The principal must be able to benefit from the fact that the school is effective, not only from the fact that enrolment is high.

- Second, the principal currently has only limited control over the means required to render the school effective—appropriate class size, hiring of responsible staff and the presence of textbooks and other teaching materials. Once he has this control, he will be able to achieve the desired impact.

- Third, in private schools, the principal's personal profit depends largely on the school's effectiveness. This is healthy. However, in public schools, the principal may be the cause of the ineffectiveness. His work must be monitored by those who are most directly interested in the children's academic success, that is, the parents. It is logical that the APEAE should be the body to supervise resource management, particularly those resources that are indispensable for effectiveness, such as buildings and books.

We would therefore make the following recommendations with regard to institutional structures, capacity and development:[36]

[36] Here we have limited ourselves to overall aims. Clearly, the recommendations made in the other sections of this report all have an institutional side.

General Recommendation: Focus on Impact Rather Than Inputs

1. We recommend that the FQEL be maintained as the long-term planning objectives but that short-term planning efforts, support and research be oriented toward the impact of inputs rather than the inputs themselves. This means promoting any activity that increases the desired impact and seriously questioning any activity that does not contribute to this impact.

Specific Recommendations Concerning True Decentralization

2. We recommend that the decision-making power and the material and human resources required for a class of students to succeed be available to the school and its principal and controlled by the community to which the school belongs; that the principal be accountable, be able to implement quality standards, and be held responsible for academic success in his school.

3. That the duties and responsibilities of centralized institutions be separated from local (decentralized) ones. At each level, there should be an independent monitoring and evaluation circuit. A first communication, follow-up and evaluation circuit should cover the flow of resources between the Ministry and the prefectures. A second communication, follow-up and evaluation circuit should cover the flow of resources between the prefecture and the school. The results of the evaluations should be published at the end of each school term.

4. That to identify priorities and follow-up, the decentralized level report to the representatives of civil society, e.g. the APEAEs. The Prefecture and school principal should submit written accounts to the APEAE every school term on resource allocation, reception and use (teachers, training, construction and repairs, furnishings, books and teaching materials, etc.).

5. That the communities must gradually take over decision-making at an appropriate level, participate in funding, carry out and evaluate activities and especially control the resources for ensuring that the school becomes effective. The APEAEs must debate and periodically approve (at least once a year) all matters related to resource use by their schools.

Public Institutions: Establish Bases for Sustainable Development

6. That consultation and cooperation be strengthened (a) between central and decentralized levels, (b) between MEPU-EC and international donors, and (c) between donors and peripheral actors such as NGOs. The consultation mechanisms can be those of PASE I, but be adapted for a true decentralization of power and resources.

7. That efficiency and realism in strategic planning be strengthened, especially through improved follow-up, monitoring and evaluation of the everyday experience of schools.

8. That instead of establishing another GIS in Guinea, MEPU collaborate with and subcontract GIS services at the University. After two years of successful collaboration the feasibility of establishing a GIS service at SSP should be evaluated.

9. That the MEPU's current organizational structure be made official.

10. That the decentralized services be rendered truly operational. This requires more than simply promulgating their founding texts. They must be given resources, specific job descriptions and a degree of genuine autonomy.

Promotion and Supervision of Private Schools

11. That the expansion of the private education sector be promoted as a means of meeting parents' demand and that it be supported by intensifying inspection of its programs and performance.

12. That the Ministry conduct an exhaustive survey of private schools, their status, needs in terms of monitoring and pedagogical support.

13. That the list of all certified private schools be published on an annual basis, before the school year begins.

14. That the international donor agencies and the Ministry determine whether it would be feasible to offer private schools a line of credit. This measure would increase the enrollments in private schools while giving the Ministry a tool needed to ensure quality control (this argument is developed in Chapter 8).

3 FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING

From the viewpoint of planning and financial management, effective schools are sustained through ongoing measurement of efficiency indicators and estimation of the means to achieve efficiency. This requires:

- An efficient mechanism for information collection and analysis.
- Short-, medium- and long-range planning of means to implement efficiency.

The mechanisms in question include skills development through communication and training, as well as capabilities in the areas of data collection and analysis and planning.

3.1 Operating Budgets

Budget information is available from many sources. Unfortunately, each of those sources differs slightly from the others, and none of them, with the exception of a summary report by the MEPU, fully covers the period 1991-1999. This section draws from the following two sources:

a) For proposed budgets and the proportional share of primary education: the summary report of the MEPU in follow-up to modifying financial legislation, i.e., the final statement of proposals (available budgets). In this report, the same allocation key is always used to distinguish between primary education and other jurisdictions (other education levels and administration) so that evolution of the budget allocated for primary education can be properly tracked.
b) For implemented budgets: the disbursement reports obtained from the National Budget Branch (DNB).

3.1.1 Evolution of Operating Budgets Allocated for Primary Education

PASE I, a formal program for educational reform, contained a set of conditions meant to reinforce support for education, with emphasis on primary education. Basically, those conditions were expressed as targets for education as a proportion of public expenditure and primary education as a proportion of the overall education sector. Those conditions also concerned minimal levels of educational expenditure per student. Failure to meet that first set of conditions would mean discontinuation of the program.

PASE II is not a new reform program but instead reflects a project-oriented approach. Still, it sets out objectives regarding educational expenditure per student (equivalent of US$7.00 for teaching materials per primary school student). Those objectives are contained in the Policy Letter on Development of the Education Sector (Lettre de Politique de Développement du Secteur de l'Éducation), dated May 5, 1995.

Commenting on evolution of the MEPU budget is somewhat of a challenge given the repeated restructuring that occurred between 1995 and 1997 (separation of technical and pre-university education and fusion and re-separation of higher education). It would be preferable to examine the estimated primary education share of the BND budget rather than MEPU's, as the BND allocation represents proportionally the efforts expended towards primary education in the government budget. This share rose dramatically upon the introduction of PASE I and continued to grow until 1994. Growth has since been limited in absolute terms, for primary education as a proportion of the National Development Budget (BND) dropped somewhat and stabilized at the 1993 level of 7.2%, then climbed back to 8.8% in 1999 (on the basis of the original budget). This limited growth in absolute terms until 1998 when compared with inflation and the increase in enrollments over the same period clearly shows a decrease in operating costs per student over this period.

Table 3-1: Budget Allocated for Primary Education and Its Proportion of BND

Millions of Guinean francs *Source: MEPU-DAAF Information Systems Section*

	BND[1]	Education sector[2]	MEPU	Proposed[3] primary	Education/ BND	Primary/ Education	Primary/ BND
1991	178 224	45 831	34 390	12 037	25.7%	26.3%	6.8%
1992	236 238	59 442	47 116	16 491	25.2%	27.7%	7.0%
1993	251 355	65 434	50 164	18 059	26.0%	27.6%	7.2%
1994	265 039	61 677	51 373	20 035	23.3%	32.5%	7.6%
1995	250 376	69 443	51 125	18 405	27.7%	26.5%	7.4%
1996	280 669	71 850	53 187	20 211	25.6%	28.1%	7.2%
1997	286 268	76 702	57 293	20 820	26.8%	27.1%	7.3%
1998	301 338	77 810	51 310	21 671	25.8%	27.9%	7.2%
[4]*1999*	*323 207*	*96 680*	*62 661*	*28 307*	*29.9%*	*29.3%*	*8.8%*

1. BND. As of 1999, includes investments borne by the government (as opposed to foreign-funded investments, which are not included).
2. Includes pre-university, higher and technical education, and teacher training.
3. Primary education proportion after breakdown of budget proposals through use of a constant allocation key for the period.
4. These figures are based on the original budget, as the data we received for the adjusted budget do not allow us to estimate values for education overall or for primary education.

The figures given for 1999 are not the same type: they reflect the original budget (LFI), since LFR data available from DNB do not allow a breakdown between primary and secondary education. In order continue the table into 1999, it was decided that LFI data would be used. The difference compared to LFR is discussed below. Furthermore, starting in 1999, the budgets include Heading V (Investments), which explains the strong increase in the figures over those for the previous years. Still, the figures show appreciable growth in primary education shares as a proportion of government operating expenditure relative to 1998 (more than 8%). The adjusted budget puts the MEPU's proposed budget at

59,716 million FG, or 57,582 million FG when Heading V (Investments) is omitted to make the 1998 and 1999 budgets comparable.

3.1.2 Comparison of Allocated and Implemented Budgets

We assessed budget implementation through two sources, i.e., the evaluation report for the EEO project (World Bank, 1995) for 1991 to 1993 and BND documents for 1995 to 1999. The allocation key for the budgets for primary education and the other education levels differs slightly between the first source and the series shown in Table 3.2. Consequently, the figures given for the proposed primary education budgets are different but clearly reflect the rate of implementation through payment authorizations (the only budget implementation indication available at this writing). The second part of the table shows proposed master budgets (in which primary education is not singled out) and highlights pedagogical expenditure in those budgets. The DNB documents do not provide for breaking down expenditure by education level prior to 1999, but the substantial improvement in implementation rates between PASE I and PASE II suggests virtually total implementation for primary education and for MEPU as a whole. As of 1999, appropriations can be broken down by education level for both proposed and implemented budgets. The 1994 and 1995 figures could not be accessed. Disbursement data was acquired through November 30 for 1995 and 1997, through December 31 for 1998, and through June 30 for 1999.

Table 3-2: Budget Implementation

Sources: First part: World Bank, 1995. Second part: DNB

		Proposed	Authorized	%
1991	**MEPU**	**35 390**	**30 892**	**87.3%**
	For primary education	15 145	13 727	90.6%
	For teaching resources	*2 722*	*1 511*	*55.5%*
1992	**MEPU**	**47 116**	**40 316**	**85.6%**
	For primary education	20 718	17 576	84.8%
	For teaching resources	*3 671*	*2 541*	*69.2%*
1993	**MEPU**	**50 164**	**40 254**	**80.2%**
	For primary education	22 469	18 024	80.%
	For teaching resources	*4 784*	*2 485*	*51.9%*
		Proposed	Implemented	%
1995	**MEPU**	**51 125**	**37 768**	**73.9%**
	For teaching resources	2 820	2 494	88.4%
1997	**MEPU**	**57 293**	**50 168**	**87.6%**
	For teaching resources	1 849	1 891	102.3%
1998	**MEPU**	**51 310**	**50 350**	**98.1%**
	For teaching resources	3 228	3 032	93.9%
1999	***MEPU***	**59 716**	***31 096***	***52.1%***
	For teaching resources	4 693	*3 965*	*84.5%*
	For primary-school supplies	2 800	*2 763*	*98.7%*

The table shows an appreciable increase in disbursements for teaching resources between PASE I and PASE II: from 52% in 1993 to 85% and over from 1995 on. That relates, for one, to the suspension of appropriations in 1996, which did away with complicated budgetary management for purchases made by deconcentrated structures and introduced central grouped purchasing instead. The disbursement for teaching resources can be regarded as complete, and data available at June 30, 1999, confirms this trend for the current year. Looking at teaching resources, including different types of supplies and materials, we see that as of 1995 school supplies have the best disbursement rate (almost 100%) owing to group purchasing procedure after 1995.[37] Teaching materials fall under guaranteed budget disbursements (an effect of EU budget guarantees).

3.1.3 Unit Costs

Gross unit cost is not the best indicator of real expenditure per primary school student in that administrative expenses may be included in that cost. It does indicate, nevertheless, the upturn in spending per student. That trend was upward during PASE I (from 35,500 FG in 1991 to 45,800 FG in 1994), then dropped back in 1997 to its level at the start of PASE.

Table 3-3: Gross Unit Cost per Primary School Student

Sources: DAAF Information Systems Section; SSP data

	Gross unit cost (FG)
1991	35 500
1992	48 100
1993	45 600
1994	45 800
1995	36 700
1996	38 000
1997	35 400
1998	36 800
1999	45 700

The unit costs presented above relate staffing for the budget year to public-sector personnel for the current school year (1992 unit cost = 1992 allocations / 1991/92 personnel).

The strong increase in gross unit cost allocations per student between 1998 and 1999 is explained by increased teaching material allocations per student and the inclusion of apprentice teachers' salaries in personnel expenditure (3.8 billion Guinean francs). In 1998, non-salary allocations came to only 5,100 FG per student, and pedagogical expenditure per se to 2,800 FG per student (compared to US$5.00 projected by education policy guidelines). In 1999, these figures are

[37] Unfortunately improved disbursement rates do not signify greater efficiency in teaching material purchases, as they do not reflect distribution efficiency for these materials.

7,400 FG and 5,000 FG, respectively (revised budget). Though the improvement is impressive, it still falls short of education policy guidelines.

The budget breakdown does not provide a picture of the primary education payroll. That would require a fully implemented salary budget that was properly broken down between primary education, secondary education and administration. It is possible, however, to identify the increase in payroll relative to personnel growth based on the salaries of full-time teachers and additional contract teachers. A full-time teacher earns 130,000 FG (Class B), augmented by a chalk allowance (for classroom teachers), a regional allowance ranging between 5,000 and 10,000 FG, a transportation allowance of 5,000 FG and a housing allowance of 5,000 FG, for a total of 140,000 FG to 150,000 FG per teacher. Public sector contract teachers are paid 80 000 FG monthly with no hiring premium, and 90,000 FG starting with the fourth contract (payment for nine months out of the year).

3.1.4 Education Policy: Definition, Limitations and Obstacles to Implementation

The main bottleneck in the education policy concerns the capacity to recruit teachers to handle the growing flows of primary school students. This is a definite trend that already existed during the time of PASE I, when contract teachers were recruited in waves. Under present conditions, it appears impossible to recruit more than 1,500 new teachers a year. Attrition among existing teachers and the growth in the school-age population (about 3% a year) are two mechanisms that already require considerable annual deployment of new teachers to hold the gross enrollment rate at its current level. This would make recruitment capacity the chief factor limiting enrollment rate prospects.

3.1.5 Cost projection for primary schools, 2005 and 2010

The scope of work for this assessment makes no mention of cost projections. The time available for the sector study would, at any rate, have been insufficient for carrying out such a delicate task in the necessary detail. However, one can hardly talk about educational reform without asking questions about the financing of such reform in the coming years. The projections presented below would have deserved more discussions with the various institutions involved; they can thus not be more than a first sketch of what will have to be drawn out later. The table includes both cost projections in constant dollars and the proportion such costs would represent in the national budget.

Table 3-4 : Budgets for primary education and proportion of national budgets (projections for 1999-2010, in constant 1999 US$ '000)

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2005	2010
Crude Enrolment Rate Target	53.53%	57.76%	61.98%	66.20%	70.43%	78.88%	100.00%
Total Enrolment	726 561	796 003	875 868	959 324	1 046 504	1 232 584	1 773 080
Proportion in Private Schools	14.7%	14.7%	14.7%	14.7%	14.7%	14.7%	14.7%
Public School Enrolment	619 925	679 175	747 318	818 526	892 911	1 051 680	1 512 848
Student/Teacher Ratio	50.0	49.0	48.0	47.0	46.0	45.0	45.0
Public Sector Teachers (PST)	12 404	13 861	15 569	17 415	19 411	23 371	33 619
Additional Teachers (Contractuals)	0	1 457	3 165	5 011	7 007	10 967	21 215
Annual Salary of New PSTs	0.686	0.686	0.686	0.686	0.686	0.686	0.686
Pedagogical Expen./Student	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007	0.007
Present Salary Budget	27 403	27 403	27 403	27 403	27 403	27 403	27 403
Salaries for New Contractuals	0	999	2 170	3 436	4 805	7 520	14 547
Total Salaries	**27 403**	**28 402**	**29 574**	**30 840**	**32 208**	**34 924**	**41 951**
Current Costs Excl. Pedag. Exp.	1 050	1 050	1 050	1 050	1 050	1 050	1 050
Pedagogical Expenses	2 212	4 754	5 231	5 730	6 250	7 362	10 590
Total Current Expenditures	**3 263**	**5 805**	**6 282**	**6 780**	**7 301**	**8 412**	**11 640**
Total Including Salaries	**30 666**	**34 207**	**35 855**	**37 620**	**39 509**	**43 336**	**53 591**
Total Gov. Current Expenditures	220 000	220 000	220 000	220 000	220 000	220 000	220 000
Share of Primary Education	13.9%	15.5%	16.3%	17.1%	18.0%	19.7%	24.4%

These cost projections are based upon the following assumptions :

- Constant proportion of private school enrollments (14.7%).
- Declining student/teacher ratios reaching 45 in 2010.
- New teachers are hired in contractual positions, at salaries remaining constant in US$. Such a hypotheses appears unrealistic, given the presently very low salary levels—80,000 FG per month or US$ 686 per year.
- Other salary payments are kept constant, including those of teachers in permanent civil service positions.
- Pedagogical expenses are kept constant at 1999 levels.
- The Adjusted Budget for 1999 serves as reference and a constant exchange rate of 1,400 FG per dollar is maintained throughout.
- All figures are for current expenses; investment is excluded.
- The government budget is kept constant in terms of US$.

This projection is based on a set of simple and conservative hypotheses but has the advantage of attracting attention to one very urgent question about educational policies : will the Government be able to allocate 20% of its current expenditures to primary education alone, in 2005, and 24% in 2010? The answer will most likely be negative, especially after adding investment expenditures to the bill. Rather than focusing on crude enrollment rates it would thus make more sense to start thinking about producing graduates of the primary education cycle and about school quality rather than increasing enrollments.

3.2 Financial Contribution from Communities

The 1994-95 survey on household living conditions conducted by the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation estimated average expenditure per child attending primary school at 22,000 FG per year, or about 30,000 current FG given currency depreciation and rising prices. In other words, the contribution of households to the primary education of their children just about matched the government's contribution. About a fourth of that contribution went for the purchase of school books and supplies, a fifth for school uniforms, a sixth for school cafeteria meals or board and roughly a seventh for school costs (including registration fees).

That contribution was far from uniform throughout the country. Whereas it was much higher in the capital (73% above average), it amounted to 86% of the average in the other urban areas and only 50% of the average in rural areas. The differential size of contributions per child attending school reflects the map of gross enrolment ratios and the socio-economic development of the natural regions, i.e., contributions in Lower Guinea equal the average, while contributions in Forest Guinea, Middle Guinea and Upper Guinea amount, by decreasing order of magnitude, to roughly half of those in Lower Guinea.

These are direct costs payable by parents. To be added are the indirect costs, i.e., loss of earnings due to a child's school attendance (especially for rural areas and small enterprises) and the impact of disruptions due to children's schooling.

Whereas the cost to parents is a recognized obstacle to access to education, it is not emphasized enough, especially in the case of girls, for whom indirect costs and opportunity costs (contribution of girls to housework) are higher. The effort to increase schooling, especially for the least schooled target populations (girls in rural areas) could involve cost-related incentives, such as reducing registration fees or parent contributions, grants or schedules sensitive to local needs (e.g., better adapted to children's free time and thus allowing girls to help with household duties).

3.3 DAAF, Its Services and Regional Sub-branches

3.3.1 Situation of DAAF and Relations Among Its Services

Traditionally, the Administrative and Financial Affairs Branch (DAAF) has comprised the following three sections: a) Finance/Accounting, responsible for routine accounting and budgetary operations, b) Material and Equipment, responsible for procedures for the procurement and distribution of supplies, equipment and materials through the BND, and c) Personnel, tasked with managing ministerial personnel. More recent additions consist of: d) Information Systems Section, e) Counterpart Funds Management Unit, renamed ST-PASE Management Unit and attached to that technical secretariat, and f) Budget Unit, now the Audit Unit.

The first three sections operate in accordance with their highly specialized terms of reference and have had their share of ups and downs, especially since the double government reorganization that extended from 1995 to 1997 and seriously disrupted operation of the DAAF by watering down its responsibilities. Relations among these sections are infrequent given that their terms of reference are quite distinct. They are normally channelled through the Director of Administrative and Financial Affairs.

The Personnel Section is largely an arm's-length unit, with preferential links with the Ministry of Public Service. Its functions are concerned chiefly with contract management (contract teachers), transfers and competitions. French technical assistance, temporarily suspended for reasons of personnel assignment, has aided in creating a personnel file that is 95% complete. The present challenge as regards optimum operation of the section involves the commissioning of this large database, its transmission to section personnel and the availability of applications to update and utilize the database file (much of the routine work in the section consists in drawing up nominative lists of employees).

The Audit Unit is a direct offshoot of the former budget monitoring unit tasked with following up budget implementation. Its chief mission is audit and training of DAAF structures at the central and deconcentrated levels. The operation of this unit was long hampered by the shortage of material resources (especially for travel in the regions) and uncertainty owing to government reorganization. At present, it enjoys renewed support through technical assistance, audit training and new equipment, and Audit staff members' recently visits with the SAAFs. In light of the DAAF's new policy directions, there is every reason to hope that the Audit Unit can finally fulfil its mission. Support for this unit is especially important in that it may be the necessary, but currently limited, link between the DAAF and the SAAFs.

ST-PASE Management Unit, formerly the Counterparts Fund Management Unit, was initially removed from the DAAF and attached to the ST-PASE with a view to more independent and more efficient monitoring of counterparts' funds received

from lenders during PASE I. This structure lived on after PASE I and now provides management and accounting assistance for the ST-PASE, mainly through managing the funds contributed by the World Bank.

Intervention of lenders in the DAAF. These two units, Audit and ST-PASE Management, were established and moved to arm's length at lenders' request in order to boost management efficiency in a particular sector (counterpart funds for the Management Unit) or reinforce a normal DAAF function (internal audit and communication function for the Audit Unit). Those interventions had considerable secondary effects, withdrawing some of the most highly skilled officers from DAAF (or SAAFs) for exclusive assignment to particular tasks. Given the focused build-up of certain potential activities of the DAAF, a few of the Branch's best management personnel were mobilized exclusively for those activities. This is one example of the secondary effects of lender interventionism in the workings of the sector.

The Information Systems Section of the DAAF carries out a number of joint missions: budget preparation and monitoring (the monitoring component being shared with the Audit Unit) on the one hand, and information systems training and equipment maintenance on the other. In the past two years, the section chief has also been entrusted with preparing and monitoring the examination procedure. At present, the section lacks adequate resources to carry out these functions as it should. It does not have enough skilled technicians and its materials, especially for training purposes, are very inadequate.

Under the purview of this section, the **Computer Training Center** trained 376 ministerial agents between 1994 and 1998. Thanks to its action, there was no need to call on the private sector to service computer equipment (such recourse being greatly complicated by the chronic shortage of operating resources and the reluctance of private concerns to fill government orders). The center helped to introduce the computer culture within the MEPU for what turned out to be a small initial outlay. This initiative would have been even more cost-effective had it not been for the questionable original choice of Macintosh hardware in an environment heading straight towards the dominance of IBM-compatible hardware.

MEPU's in-house and continuing training of its management staff appears to be the best solution for two reasons. First, there is the limited specialized ability of Guinea's private sector, which cannot offer equivalent continuity (not to mention the additional costs involved). Second, in-house training that involves continuing training sessions definitely helps build up the institutional capability of the Ministry. It would be good to: a) acquire new equipment for the Training Center (equivalent of 13 computer workstations), b) boost human resources to enhance the training capacity of the center, and c) establish indicative plans for initial and continuing training, with regard for the requirements of the different sections of

the MEPU. One requirement for the acquisition of new training equipment should be protection against defective power supply and theft protection.

Computer equipment contributed by USAID. The investment dates back to 1994 and can therefore be regarded as obsolete, given the four years customarily allowed for amortization of computer equipment. The choice of Macintosh machines hampered development of computer capabilities suited to the work process, especially within the DAAF. Despite that impediment, that equipment aided in the rapid development of strong computer know-how within the Ministry (especially for word processing). Six high-end computers out of the fifty originally procured through USAID support are still operating. Some of them remained in the MET-FP (Ministry of Technical Education and Vocational Training) at the time of government reorganization. Note, too, that besides the computer workstations, the training aids (data show, network connection, screen and furniture) are still operational.

Rationalization of DAAF's routine activities. The DAAF has little time to look beyond time-consuming routine activities to explore rationalizing its services or planning. As regards rationalization, the DAAF would do well to computerize certain routine functions, e.g., monitoring budget implementation, stock-keeping, managing year-end exams, and certain aspects of personnel management. This would be done through computerized mini-applications (created by the Information Systems Section, where possible) focused on a particular aspect of management. In-house development of targeted mini-applications would eliminate complications, delays in development and the needs for specific training and subsequent maintenance. The two primary characteristics of such applications should be flexibility and management capability. The main application was conceived and programmed some time ago. Indeed, the chief of the Information Systems Section programmed an initial budget monitoring application in 1994 or thereabouts, but unfortunately used software that could not be widely installed (Macintosh environment). That effort was followed by a proposal to develop a more comprehensive application (cf. note from F. Abillama, MEPU–DAAF technical assistant, 1996. *Application de suivi budgétaire* – Budget Monitoring Application).

3.3.2 DAAF Relations with Outside Partners

Budget implementation: relations with Finance Ministry and Treasury. DAAF relations with the Ministry of Finance and the Treasury have been marked at times by denial of the priority nature of the sector and the blockage of certain operating expenditures (other than salaries), depending on available Treasury funds or measures stemming from structural adjustments. This has led to notorious dysfunctional situations, such as the reluctance of most suppliers to do business with the education sector and the resulting obligation to call on suppliers with sufficiently high profit margins to offset long payment delays due to budgetary restrictions (delays of more than one year or even several years at

times). However, in an environment of budgetary constraint, the exceptional quality of the budget proposals presented by the MEPU-DAAF has allowed for confining the adverse effects of budgetary constraints through the use of reserves carefully planned upstream. Since PASE I, budget proposals have been presented by level of education.

Distribution of budget information. Many sectoral stakeholders and partners regret the poor distribution of information on proposed and implemented budgets. Proposed budgets are public documents that should be available on request. The dissemination of information on implemented budgets is a more difficult matter at present, for it supposes handling data without the aid of computer applications or an *ad hoc* procedure. Considering the additional workload involved in frequent provision of such information, one possible solution would be routing it to MEPU Service d'Information, de Documentation et des Archives (SINDA), which would then distribute that information as part of its regular activities.

3.3.3 DAAF Relations with Regional Sub-branches (SAAFs)

DAAF has practically no relations with the SAAFs (either SAAF/IREs or SAAF/DPEs) at this time. This is a dysfunctional situation in that the SAAFs depend as much on the DAAF as on their IREs and DPEs. The DAAF's mission as regards the SAAFs is multifaceted. It consists of initial and continuing training as well as orientation for the SAAFs (not all trained accountants by any means); appropriation of funds for local use; and oversight of the use of those appropriations. The training of SAAFs (see below) has proven a powerful driving force in vitalizing DAAF-SAAF relations.

In 1996, the Ministry of Finance suspended appropriations to deconcentrated education structures. That measure has had many consequences. The SAAFs have been divested of their main activity. Action plans (the basis of budget proposals) now serve no purpose and are no longer executed at deconcentrated levels, thus eliminating the main opportunity to express, organize and respond to school needs. Lastly, as a result of the dire shortage of operating funds, every school-focused project, e.g., the Programme de Petites Subventions aux Écoles (PPSE) could be regarded as a source of auxiliary financing, with the risks of diversion that could entail.

Though the need for austerity is given as the reason for suspending appropriations, budget control could also be a factor. Indeed, vouchers were hard to come by and procedures were not always properly applied. The suspension of appropriations perhaps replaced one ill with another, for all signs indicate that grouped purchasing of supplies by central services is not the best way to meet needs. In addition, the transfer of SAAFs from around the country to the DAAF to eliminate the salaries of contract workers does not spell efficiency, given all of the potential disadvantages and dependencies. These are all arguments in

favour of reinstating decentralization, not only of certain resources but also of part of requirements planning through action plans.

The SAAFs appear to be the current focus of numerous training programs including ISSEG correspondence courses in Maneah, the FQEL training program and others. It is clear from other comments and attitudes of education partners or stakeholders that the SAAFs are seen as a major potential level of resource decentralization. In fact, as far as the accounting and financial chain is concerned, they form the link closest to the schools. Their level of skill and efficiency as well as their training and supervision therefore deserve close monitoring, especially through the DAAF, the central authority to which they report.

The trips of several SAAFs to Conakry and abroad showed the interest of—and in—the training that they received in 1993 and 1994. Training manuals and exercise books have been carefully preserved, even by those who did not attend the training but inherited those materials from their predecessors. All SAAFs encountered were strongly in favor of training.

The proposed computer hook-up of the IREs to central services could be a new means of vitalizing DAAF-SAAF relations. Any measure that helps to strengthen those relations will be beneficial.

3.3.4 Impact of Training Delivered under PASE: Follow-up

The Ministry has not capitalized on the long-term training delivered to DAAF personnel. One trained staff member, responsible for the DAAF's Material and Equipment Section, was simply reinstated in his job after a measurable amount of time. Furthermore, the technical assistant delegated to train the DAAF's Audit Unit personnel could not deliver that training properly because employees were not granted training leave.

The training abroad received by the chief of the DAAF's Information Systems Section proved more profitable, for he was able to head up automation of the DAAF and other sections and direct the computer training provided within the Ministry. That training has greatly benefited the Ministry, where computer use has become widespread in the space of several years.

Long training courses. Lengthy training courses abroad for ministerial management personnel is not producing the desired return on investment. The system still seems unable to capitalize on the training gains of its management personnel.

a) Those courses should be replaced in part by shorter training initiatives that are more sharply focused and better distributed.

b) Management staff headed abroad for training should be subject to preliminary evaluation to determine whether they meet the prerequisites (language, technical ability, sufficient familiarity with computers) and whether there are plans for reintegration and specific work upon their return.
c) There should be a formal agreement with the Ministry setting out the job positions and activities of the staff members upon their return and identifying the practical training outcome that is expected.

On-the-job Training. This type of training already exists and should be further developed where it fills a need expressed by the system (through calls for assistance). It is highly cost-effective and probably the training scheme that produces the fastest return on investment. The software training administered at the SSP and the current training of the Audit Unit within the DAAF are good examples of what can be accomplished and extended. The needs certainly run deeper than meets the eye. The very positive attitude of education management personnel about the training courses will aid in their success.

Computer Training. Computer training is not seen as an end in itself but as a means of improving management and planning capabilities. Impressive progress in the use of computers has been achieved during PASE, but there is still a lot to do to support the management and planning capabilities expected of the system.

Given the impact of the Computer Training Center since the start of PASE relative to the small investment cost, it would be good to
a) Upgrade the training center equipment.
b) Build up the training team.
c) Develop two in-house training plans for initial and continuous training (with emphasis on spreadsheet programs and database management systems – DBMS).

3.4 Information and Planning System: SSP

Statistics and Planning Services (SSP) comprises the following four sections: Statistics, Planning, School Mapping and Investment. A technical assistance report dated January 1996 (Thomas LeBlanc, SSP technical assistant, quarterly progress report) underscores the need to *"establish closer organizational links between the different SSP sections, with the other units of the Ministry (at the central and deconcentrated levels) and with lenders."* Other possible institutional players could be the ministries of Planning and Cooperation, Finance, and Public Service. This issue is still on the front burner.

Technical Assistance and Training. During PASE, the SSP received almost permanent support through technical assistance, but that assistance did not always coincide with SSP objectives, resulting in side-by-side operations and scaled-down or even minimal joint action. The SSP's request in this respect has always focused strongly on computer training in order to efficiently meet data

queries. It was just recently, starting in 1995 to be exact, that technical assistance answered that request (*op. cit.*). This explains the limited benefit of the many long and shorter training sessions provided to the SSP. Database management ability is still unsatisfactory; current output depends heavily on the network of local technical assistants made available to the SSP. The medium-term solution to this problem would seem to lie in reinforcing its management personnel with specialized recruits more seasoned in computer use, database management and education planning principles.

Main Databases and Their Use. The presence of a technical assistant assigned to statistics, together with the SSP's computer equipment (mainly through USAID) and the preliminary training of SSP management personnel have yielded results. The current statistical yearbook was produced from a genuine database available at the appropriate time. It is now a matter of providing for the transmission of know-how from the technical assistant to divisional management. School mapping merits additional action (normally planned in connection with the EEO project, funded by the World Bank). For now, things are at the stage of collecting and editing school mapping data, and there have been no major planning activities (except for those involving school openings or expansions) or projections. No actual mapping has been done from those data. Lastly, although data for the school map and the statistical yearbook are collected at the same time and the same generic code is used to map the schools, there is no effective link between the two database files.

Data Production and Planning Requirements. The yearbook is put together in a way allowing little room for distinction between urban and rural areas. This is nonetheless an issue of growing importance for primary education planning in Guinea, given that strategies for enhancing quality and equity differ more and more between urban and rural areas (cf. FQEL indicators). It would be good to revise all yearbook indicators to distinguish between urban and rural areas and between boys and girls and thus cover the different populations targeted by the objective of universal education.

Planning Capability. The SSP has some planning capability, but it is limited. For the most part, it produces statistical and planning data and has only limited capacity to take on actual planning. The statistical component of the various education strategies is in the hands of a few management staff, mainly the director. There is limited coordination with the other planners involved in the sector (e.g., the Ministry of Planning).

Status of technical assistance within SSP. Technical assistance within the SSP does not provide typical technical assistance but rather carries out a mission, fulfilling its own objectives and having little time or resources to provide continuing assistance for the planning function and thus build up SSP capabilities. One example is the present status of the FQEL team within the SSP, tasked with its own mission. It would appear desirable to rework the technical

assistance mission to reinforce SSP capabilities and know-how by incorporating that mission more effectively in the current operation of the unit.

3.5 FQEL Planning Tool

3.5.1 Context

The planning tool known as Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels (FQELs) translates national objectives in terms of micro-planning and terminal objectives of quality and equity. This makes it a powerful instrument for planning and monitoring the efficient use and final destination of resources implemented to achieve quality and equity objectives.

After two years of consultations, however, this tool is still not operational. The approach has even confused the input and output indicators (levels). By consensus, a summary of those indicators is proposed to illustrate an overall level of satisfaction with the FQEL indicators. Is this approach rational and functional?

The process is result-oriented, but overlooks the cost factor in a context of scarce financial resources. Even if the sector were to receive assistance from lenders to achieve FQEL objectives, would it not ultimately have to call on its own financial resources to maintain them? Given this, what is the cost of attaining and sustaining those fundamental levels? Should priorities be set? If so, what should the criteria be? Actually, the literature about the education sector does not lack for studies indicating the most cost-effective factors for achieving the final outcomes of FQEL strategy, which is to give more children access to quality schools. Thus, investing in textbooks and teacher's manuals is seen as one of the most cost-effective factors.

3.5.2 Possible Use of Indicators as Operational Tools

Among other things, the FQEL process is a means of making cost-effective use of scarce resources. It should be accompanied by close attention to costs and the observation of results. This calls for addressing both the cost of achieving FQEL objectives and the efficiency of the investment, in case limited resources make it necessary to set priorities. To apply this process productively, one needs an idea of the possible quality and equity outputs stemming from the inputs. This calls for:

a) A review of the literature on the efficiency of primary education inputs, with emphasis on those chosen for the FQEL process.
b) Adaptation of the statistical collection mechanism to measure and edit FQEL inputs and outputs on a per-school basis (cf. Planning).
c) An initial statistical analysis to relate inputs and outputs for Guinea.
d) Subsequently, periodic statistical analysis to identify the impact of the inputs on fundamental levels and primary education outcomes (completion of Grade 6).

In the first stage of identification, the statistical study should draw on a descriptive analysis of the universe of the identified inputs. The present status of desired outputs (multivariate descriptive analysis) would be projected onto that analysis. The process would give a clear picture of input-output relationships but would not identify the underlying causality. This would be done in the second stage by relating outputs and inputs through statistical analysis models (e.g., multiple regression models) that could be applied from year to year. The current school mapping mechanism could be used in collecting data for this analysis.

3.6 The DAAF and the Service du Personnel

In this section we shall examine the interactions between the DAAF and the Personnel Service in the attainment of the education strategic objectives of USAID (SO3). These strategic objectives aim at improving the quality of teaching and learning in primary schools in an expanding, more equitable system. The DAAF and its services as well as the Personnel Service are expected to contribute to this objective by making human and material resources available, i.e., teachers and pedagogical supplies. The SSP can help them with this task by estimating future growth of the school-age-poulation. The DAAF is basically concerned with three issues: population growth, equity and school quality.

The issues of school-age population growth and regional equity must be addressed in budget planning. If this is done in an efficient way, the DAAF will have complied with the strategic objectives in education. The DAAF has less influence over school quality issues and will only react when needs are expressed specifically.

In our view the principle contribution the DAAF (including the Personnel Service) makes to the attainment of the strategic objectives lie in (a) the anticipation of needs and (b) the channeling of resources to their destinations.

Anticipating needs. Short-term anticipation of the growth of the numbers of students and teachers leads to the formulation of budget lines in the annual budget plans; it will also lead to administrative measures such as the extension of contracts for teachers. The DAAF depends for these growth estimates upon the SSP. If the latter cannot supply the estimates on time, the DAAF will have to expand its own planning capacity. One of the elements currently lacking is a reliable estimate of the annual attrition of teachers; of this, the Service du Personnel has no more than some vague impressions—we have heard figures reaching from 5% to 15%. What is the current situation in estimating population growth? In elaborating the budget plan, the computing division of the DAAF is indeed using enrollment projections produced by the SSP, but these projections could be improved upon if there was better communication between the two services. Even within the DAAF the relatively complex operation could be improved by a more balanced participation of various offices; e.g., the finances and accounting division should be able to master the necessary skills for its own

good. At any rate, communication is essential: the Service du Personnel should always be informed of the latest projections. How else can it plan the allocation of teaching resources?

Channeling resources to destination. In this part we shall deal with material resources since the DAAF has little influence over the allocation of human resources. The SAAF are the key element in this channeling of material resources to schools, whether the purchase is made collectively by the central authority—as is actually the case—or in a decentralized way by use of local action plans allowing a claim on decentralized resources. The SAAF need to be able to communicate efficiently with central services, especially the DAAF, for transmitting orders and administrative arrangements. They also need good communication with the schools to take note of precise needs. In a decentralized system, the SAAF will have to participate actively in the elaboration and execution of the action plans.

Strengthening the administrative and planning capacity of the SAAF is of crucial importance if the strategic objectives are to be attained. The need here is even more crying than building up the planning capacity of the entire DAAF and its various services. As we have just stated above, the DAAF at this point is already using some planning tools. It would be sufficient to strengthen them even more and to make their use a routine part of the daily functioning of the DAAF. The DAAF is responsible for organizing its services in a way conducive to reaching the strategic objectives. It is unlikely to make much headway unless it can rely on a SAAF that is more highly trained, better equipped and more generously staffed.

3.7 Recommendations

Short Term

Training

15.[38] Re-evaluate SSP and DAAF training requirements, particularly for the Audit Unit, so as to reinforce both the operational nature and planning capability of those units. Training and assistance for the Audit Unit are a priority.

16. Draft a computer training policy that includes initial training and continuing education.

17. Designate a computer training room with the necessary security and conformity guarantees.

Budget Information

18. SINDA: Obtain education budgets annually from the finance ministry through the revised budgets. (Establish a routine.)

19. DAAF: Transmit budget projections to SINDA once they have been sent to the finance ministry.

Information Network

20. SSP: a) Publish more detailed statistics with breakdowns for urban centers and rural areas based on the Annuaire statistique; b) Link Annuaire statistique and school map data.

21. FQEL: Review recent research on effectiveness of primary education inputs, especially those targetted for FQEL.

Planning

22. Increase DAAF/SSP/CDMT joint action for medium- and long-range planning of requirements and resources.

USAID

23. Negotiate a strategy and training plans with MEPU.

24. Obtain guarantees for the security of materials and availability of training room.

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[38] Recommendations are numbered consecutively throughout the document.

25. Renew computer training center equipment.

26. Study the possibility of a computer network linking deconcentrated structures (IRE, DPE), including:
    - network cost and technical feasibility;
    - combined needs of the various deconcentrated users occupying the space (IRE, DPE, SAAF, statistics personnel);
    - synergy with World Bank's current experiences.

27. Evaluate in a detailed fashion the effects of long-term training provided to MEPU personnel.

Medium Term

DAAF Work Process

28. Computerize the DAAF work process as much as possible by programming a series of targeted mini-applications that require little specific training. Develop budget and management mini-applications. Systematize budget preparation tools. Ensure resource and materials monitoring, etc.

29. Rewrite the budget follow-up application that was available in the Macintosh environment.

Training

30. Repeat 1994 SAAF training and establish a routine follow-up plan. (The Audit Unit should be involved in this process.)

Information System

31. Adapt the data collection apparatus to measure and edit FQEL inputs and outputs on a school-by-school basis.

32. Conduct an initial statistical analysis attempting to relate Guinea's inputs and outputs.

USAID

33. Support SAAF training.

34. Evaluate and reorganize current and new training plans to favour short-term training integrated into the work process where possible.

35. Support FQEL statistical analysis.

Long Term

FQEL Information System

36. Conduct periodical statistical analyses designed to identify the impact of inputs on fundamental levels and on primary education results (grade six success).

USAID

37. Support FQEL statistical analysis.

4 IMPROVING PRIMARY EDUCATION: DESCRIPTION AND OVERVIEW

This chapter deals with the educational process at the primary education level in Guinea. The underlying hypothesis of all analyses prior to our own is that one cannot identify any single effectiveness factor of education, be it type of classroom organization, teacher training, availability of textbooks or social or macro-economic environments. The optimistic hypothesis also maintains that it is possible to identify school profiles which can be associated with increased educational effectiveness and which can, in part, compensate for the negative effect of an unfavorable environment.

What are these factors and what is there current status? Primary education in Guinea is currently in increasing demand while supply, as defined by availability of teachers and textbooks, cannot keep pace with this trend. As a result, many schools are closed for lack of teachers, and those that are open are not always able to obtain textbooks. Within this system, the repetition rate for female and male students combined rose from 35% in 1992-93 to 43.6% in 1999 for sixth-graders. One must then ask whether the current system is effective. If it is not, what must be done to lay the foundations for sustainable, effective education?

In seeking to answer this question, we identified two themes: teacher training and the balance between educational supply and demand. What is the current status of teacher training in the Guinean education system? What internal and external factors have contributed to the imbalance between supply and demand, and why? Finally, how can examining this information contribute to future solutions?

4.1 Teacher Training

Teacher training can be examined along three major lines:

- Initial teacher training; (pre-service teacher training)
- Professional development for teachers; (in-service teacher training)
- Training of trainers.

4.1.1 Initial Teacher Training

Guinea is currently experiencing a trend towards educating school-age children, which is putting pressure on schools and thus creating an imbalance between educational supply and demand. Concurrently, classrooms closed due to lack of teachers are a reality of the education system. In an attempt to remedy this situation, the government has implemented an emergency policy of initial teacher training. Another factor shaping the reality of the country is a duality between rural areas with low population density and (mainly urban) centers having a high population density. In the former case, schools tend to consist of a few multigrade and double-shift classes. In the latter case, classrooms are typically overcrowded. This context of teacher shortages and demographic duality should be taken into account in teacher training.

Guinea has eight teacher training schools, Écoles Normales d'Instituteurs (ENI), located in Conakry, Kindia, Labé, Kankan, N'Zérékoré, Boké, Dubréka, and Faranah. However, only ENIs in Conakry, (and Dubréka, which is Franco-Arabic) Kindia, Labé, Kankan, and N'Zérékoré, which have sufficient operational infrastructures, have been mobilized for initial teacher training. Only very recently, these schools, which came under the jurisdiction of the ministry of pre-university education, were placed under the jurisdiction of the ministry of technical and professional training.

For 1998-2001, the quantitative objective set in terms of recruitment to Guinea's initial teacher training project Formation Initiale des Maîtres de Guinée (FIMG) was 6,000 teachers. It is unlikely that this objective will be reached if current recruitment rates for 1998 and 1999 are maintained and nothing is done to remedy them. Enrollments totalled 1,529 in 1998 and 1,451 in 1999, falling short of the projected figures (2,000 and 2,500 enrollments respectively). This translates into a short-term deficit of enrollments for both years (-25.5% and -41.96%). While the deficit is negligible for these years, the trend, if continued in the years 2000 and 2001, will hinder ENIs from reaching their objectives of supplying sufficient teachers for the schools built by government, the community and donors. Consequently, these schools will remain closed for lack of teachers.

The goal of initial teacher training is to provide future teachers with the knowledge, skills and training needed to provide intellectual and moral education to children. ENI training includes theoretical and practical aspects through classes given at the institution and practical training in the classroom (ENIs and associated schools (Écoles Associées)). The approach is one which alternately integrates theory and practice. It also breaks with tradition in terms of length of training: as of the 97-98 school year, the Guinean government, with help from The World Bank, adopted a two-year teacher training program.

The program began with a six-month, intensive, two-module emergency training course, which was part of a one-year on-the-job training program in a primary classroom context. The program then became regularized, alternating one year of theory-practicums with one year of on-the-job training. Henceforth, initial teacher training thus consisted of two years of study, compared with the three years required by earlier programs. Candidate recruitment continues to be carried out officially, on the one hand, from among BACC graduates (BACC1 for female students, BACC2 for male students) who have not gone on to university and, on the other hand, from among university students or university graduates who are on the job market.

Recruitment is by presentation of required documents (diplomas and health certificate) rather than by competition and is conducted in two sessions. The results of the second session, designed to offset any numerical shortfall of

candidates as per the quota set for each ENI, are not posted until after the official start of classes.

The table below gives an overview of enrollments for 1998 and 1999.

Table 4-1: Teacher-Trainee Candidate Enrollments in ENIs (1998 and 1999)

ENI	Women		Men		TOTAL
	1998	1999	1998	1999	
Conakry	111	143	199	158	**611**
Kindia	95	71	383	169	**718**
Labé	65	162	218	186	**631**
Kankan	53	103	163	192	**511**
N'Zérékoré	46	46	196	221	**509**
Total	**370**	**525**	**1,159**	**926**	**2,980**

The data in this table reflect the national policy for recruiting women candidates in ENIs in the education system. Female student enrollments are on the increase, rising from 370 in 1998 to 525 in 1999, while those of male students are declining, having dropped from 1,159 to 926 over the same period. Despite this development, the discrepancy between female and male students remains considerable, with male students still in the majority.

Evidently, teacher training seems to be an important factor in ensuring high-quality, effective primary education. Choosing candidates from among BACC1/2 graduates is, as such, a valid option in the quest for quality teachers. The question remains, however, whether it is the best and most realistic option. We feel that the policy of recruiting female candidates from the BACC1 pool does not serve the cause of equity and can be devastating to women in the medium and long term. An equity policy that would most benefit women is one which, all other things being equal between the sexes, favors female candidates over male candidates. Moreover, Baccalauréat graduates are not necessarily those best trained to provide quality education. Even if they were, these candidates frequently plan to continue their education at the university level (rather than going into teaching).

4.1.1.1 Training Methods

ENIs offer three forms of initial teacher training, that is, theory, practicums, and on-the-job training.

4.1.1.2 Theory

Theoretical training, which alternates with three practicums, is provided in the first year by professors of the "école normale" (PENs). Emphasis is placed on four areas of education theory: educational psychology in child development,

general teaching strategies and classroom organization, testing and the educational system, and finally, partnering. Training targets mastery of skills and professional development for teachers (Ministère de l'enseignement technique et professionnel FIMG 1998, p.5)[39]. It is based on four guiding principles: a constructivist approach to learning, emphasis on creativity and child development, academic success, development of autonomy and sensitization to social responsibilities.

4.1.1.3 Practicums

In addition to mastering theoretical concepts of the primary curriculum, teacher-trainees are introduced to the methodology of these concepts at the different levels (preparatory (CP), primary (CE), and intermediate (CM)) through three practicums in participating (associated) schools.

A report in the form of reflective analysis must be submitted after each practicum by teacher-trainees, who are placed under the guidance of three practicum supervisors:

- the associated teacher, chosen on the basis of competence and availability to assist trainees with any problems that arise;
- The principal of the associated school (for schools of 6 or more classes), where this person does not have a teaching load, leaving more time to devote to trainees;
- The CPMF educational supervisor, specially designated, trained and assigned to provide support for some twenty, on-the-job teacher-trainees.

The three supervisors hold a meeting with trainees every Thursday to field issues as they arise and make adjustments as needed. These meetings also provide an opportunity to transmit messages from ENIs.

Initial teacher training made a number of innovations, such as covering teaching strategies for individual subjects (French, arithmetic, etc). However, the instructors themselves had received only one workshop on teaching strategies, and the training they had received at the Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Éducation de Guinée (ISSEG) did not provide them with adequate skills in this area. One must therefore ask whether these instructors have sufficient mastery of the reflective approach advocated by the program to make the transition from theory to classroom application. Moreover, are practicums, which are meant to complement theory, consistent with the training received in class? One would hope that teacher-trainees' supervised practicums enable them to put their natural aptitude and theoretical knowledge to the test. The teacher-trainee should be exposed to a variety of experiences, each of which should be discussed with the supervisor, who would provide correction and guidance as needed. Practicums in associated schools should be supplemented by activities

[39] Ministère de l'enseignement technique et professionnel. Modules de formation des maîtres associés et des Directeurs d'école; FIMG Conakry 1998.

such as other practicums, course-work and seminars in general methodology given by experts in a discipline or group of related disciplines. These courses and seminars in teaching methodology should be organized and run by instructors of ISSEG and researchers of the Institut National de Recherche et d'Action Pédagogique (INRAP). To the extent that these institutions work in educational research, they should also work in close collaboration with ENIs to enhance their training methods and to gain from the practical experience of ENIs, which they could then translate into practical tools for the initial teacher training program. No such link exists between the three institutions, which is lamentable, as research and teaching should be complementary.

Moreover, we found no signs of concertation between ENIs and the national testing branch (la cellule nationale d'évaluation) as regards evaluation of in-class work and practicums. Evaluation of teacher-trainees in ENIs necessarily constitutes an essential tool of the training system. It must contribute to highlighting and promoting areas of improvement in Guinea's primary education system.

Supervisors must also provide the teacher-trainee with an opportunity to self-evaluate and discuss each practicum with them. This approach will help teacher-trainees become aware of skills or areas of improvement which they might otherwise not have focused on and will encourage them to discover their own optimal strategies for teaching their classes. Practicums should be conceived of as true educational and psychological laboratories which reinforce theoretical class work and enable teacher-trainees to gradually develop desirable teaching skills.

4.1.1.4 On-the-Job Training

The second year of the ENI initial teacher training program is dedicated to on-the-job training. Under the supervision of CPMFs, teacher-trainees are assigned to one class. As needed, the CPMFs identify any areas of improvement and transmit them to the ENI which, in turn, designates a PEN or CPMF to develop the course or courses needed to provide further training in these areas. This type of training is provided by distance education to allow trainees to complete it while continuing on-the-job training.

4.1.1.5 Status of ENI Graduates

Upon finishing the training program and in accordance with the provisions of the 1997 program, teaching graduates are officially granted the title of contractual instructors (contractuels). This means that these teachers do not have the status of civil servants, unlike teachers who received their training prior to 1997. Technically, this is rationalized by the fact that the government cannot increase the number of civil servants, in accordance with the hiring freeze on salaried positions in the national budget, one of the conditions of the IMF and of The World Bank in the framework of structural adjustment. On an administrative level, however, and to the extent that contracts are not renewed unless these

new teachers are found to perform satisfactorily, this contractual status can be beneficial in the medium and long term for quality of education. It is also a way of discouraging candidates who apply to the program due to unemployment rather than motivation or in order to gain admittance to the civil service.

Generally, effective training in ENIs is hampered by deterrent factors that can reduce the quality of training and effectiveness of the training system:

- Despite several attempts at correcting the situation, the current training program has yet to be fully developed, validated and approved and its ties to the primary training program have yet to be demonstrated. Moreover, certain subjects, such as art, are omitted, even though they are part of the curriculum, nor is teaching multigrade classes taken into account.
- The instructional teams are composed mainly of instructors who are themselves inadequately trained in education and teaching strategies. Although PENs are trained by a teacher training department, there is still a great need for pedagogical training. There are no apparent ties between ENIs and other educational institutes, notably INRAP and the Cellule Nationale de Coordination de l'Évaluation du Système Éducatif (CNCESE).
- Professional training is under-targeted, the largest part of the current training timetable (24/34 hours per week) being devoted to providing more in-depth knowledge in academic subjects.
- The current ENI candidate recruitment procedure, while addressing certain problems related to aging, does not guarantee an adequate standard of living for teachers. Moreover, the BACC1/2 recruitment pool does not seem to be very receptive to the recruitment efforts of authorities, who rely on this group's participation in primary education to enhance quality of education.
- Lack of appropriate infrastructures and teaching materials as well as insufficient documentation in ENIs hamper their quality of teaching.

4.2 Professional Development for Teachers: Definition

Professional development for teachers in the primary education system makes training and support available to primary teachers who are responsible for implementing the curriculum and to personnel in charge of supervising and supporting teachers in the classroom. Training therefore targets both teaching and non-teaching personnel. The practical training modalities for these two categories of personnel are far from uniform. Inspectors and counselors operate within a very formal context favoring intensive action and tight control. In contrast, school administrators and especially teachers are unable to dedicate more than very limited time to professional development. They therefore require more flexible and varied measures.

4.2.1 Brief Overview of Professional Development in Guinea

On a functional level, the education system and all educational institutions (INRAP, ISSEG, DNEE), fall under the jurisdiction of the Inspection Générale de l'Éducation Pré-universitaire (IGEPU) which generally informs them of the orientation and policies to be adopted as regards training. Centrally, the Service de Développement des Ressources Humaines et Évaluation (SDRHE) remains responsible for professional development.

On a national level, INRAP's Division Curricula et Formation Continue was given jurisdiction over curriculum design as well as development, supervision and technical support of all professional development for teachers. On a regional level, five Directions Provinciales de la Formation Continue (DPFC) were created to act as satellites of INRAP and coordinate professional development activities for teachers within each region. Prefectural professional development centers were set up in each of the 33 préfectures and 5 communes to provide training and support to teachers. The CPFC infrastructure is inadequate. Equipment and materials are insufficient and in poor condition. Ties between INRAP and ENIs are not well defined: although ENIs train primary teachers, they do not collaborate with INRAP, although the latter provides quality resources (programs, teaching materials, teacher-trainee services) which are recommended to teachers by DNEE.

Regional professional development directors are located in a local office, l'Inspectorat Régional (IRE), and are responsible for coordinating all training activities for the region. En 1990, under the aegis of PASE, a training council for teachers and those who train them was formed to draft national guidelines for professional development for teachers. Subsequently, this council created an operating unit to administer and coordinate professional development programs. However, since 1992, the council has ceased to play an active role in developing or administering professional development.

Since the inception of PASE, there has been no clear policy on professional development. Designation of authority and responsibility for implementing professional development programs is vague and often simply *ad hoc*.

The main participants are closely-linked teaching teams: primary school inspectors, CPMFs, and resource persons from teachers' professional development services. Inspectors are most often perceived by teachers to be watchdogs. Yet the primary function of educational supervisors should first and foremost be to improve rather than censure the quality of teacher performance.

Activity groups are one example of a positive initiative in professional development for teachers, as it brings together groups of (5-10) teachers from neighboring schools for short-term activities. However, teachers who participate in these groups as well as those who have received periodic upgrading sessions organized in this way are dissatisfied with the content, saying that the material they are taught is almost always theoretical and cut off from all innovations or

practical application. Several of the teachers interviewed deplored that they had often been promised that material taught would be put into practice with well-defined objectives for their training, yet these promises were seldom kept. Moreover, these group meetings are often inadequately funded. Professional development of practicing teachers is thus fraught with difficulties due in large part to the over-extension, limited size and especially the insufficient educational organization of structures such as CFCs, CPFCs and activity groups.

Parallel to these training provisions, certain professional development activities conducted in close collaboration with teachers have indeed benefited these teachers. One example is the Programme des Petites Subventions d'Écoles (PPSE), which promotes close collaboration by implementing projects among groups of teachers. It also develops autonomy in initiating educational projects.

In 5 préfectures in which enrolment rates for girls are lower (Dalaba, Dinguiraye, Gaoual, Télimélé, Koundara), local school projects (École – Milieu) are financed by UNICEF and piloted by INRAP. The approach used here is to attempt to make the content of training more interesting and less dry.

4.2.1.1 Distance Teaching for Professional Development

From 1991 to 1994, Guinea participated actively in the experimental distance teaching project for francophone countries financed by Consortium International Francophone de Formation à Distance (CIFFAD) (ACCT). The program's goal was to improve language and academic skills. Audio-visual material was prepared by the division for educational support and distance teaching (Appui Pédagogique et Formation à Distance). Subsequently, INRAP undertook a number of professional development projects, especially teaching in training practicums. This training seeks to improve teachers' language and academic skills using media, needs-based action research and professional development methods.

The Institut Supérieur des Sciences de l'Éducation de Guinée (ISSEG) also provides distance teaching in school administration for support staff.

The Educational Development Center (EDC/FQEL) has implemented a multi-channel approach to distance teaching for professional development through the creation of PASE II. Aimed at improving the quality of teaching and learning in classrooms, EDC uses various methods to promote learner-centered education. Interactive radio provides support for direct, in-class teaching and provides teachers with a model for role-play lessions lessons, choice of local teaching materials and promotion of equity. There are radio programs and posters corresponding to each lesson. This training targets teachers and students in the first and second grades. Programs are broadcast on Mondays, Tuesdays and Fridays for one half-hour per grade. The suggested exercises provide French immersion in a primary curriculum subject and require cooperative work in groups having equal numbers of girls and boys. The radios, which are crank-operated, are financed by the World Bank. Judging by what happened with textbooks, it is to be

feared that these radios will disappear over time. If this were to happen, the multi-channel approach would be seriously compromised.

For the first grade, there are four posters, three of which are devoted to language. The fourth promotes equity through pictures of equal numbers of girls and boys.

In addition to being compromised by the possible disappearance of the radios, this approach also has the disadvantage of reinforcing oral over written skills. Moreover, no provision seems to have been made for a Guinean representative trained to ensure continuity should EDC withdraw.

However, the approach has many advantages: it provides on-the-spot activities for students and teachers; the exercises involved require groups of equal numbers of girls and boys, promoting equity; the game-oriented approach to learning is innovative and popular with both students and teachers, as learning and teaching take place in a fun environment.

4.2.1.2 Self-Evaluation and Professional Development

Teaching is a skilled profession in which skills acquired through practice are far more important than theoretical knowledge (Calderhead, 1993; Leinhardt, 1990; Pratte & Rury, 1991; Schön, 1987). Within the reality of the classroom, teachers continually face new problems and challenges which cannot be solved simply by applying theoretical concepts learned in ENI classes. Before making a decision or taking action, teachers must consider and assess a multitude of factors, each as important as the others. This process encompasses understanding of pedagogical concepts whose application is reflected in the results obtained. Through this process, teachers build their own theories and educational practices and thus establish a personal system of knowledge and beliefs about their professional role as teachers. (Buchmann, 1986; Kelchtermans, 1993). Conversely, beliefs about their role can also affect their teaching practices. Moreover, it is generally acknowledged that in both industrialized and developing countries teachers acquire this professional skill mainly through their in-class teaching experience rather than through initial training (Brown & McIntyre, 1993). Such acquired expertise is rarely mentioned, yet it guides the daily actions of teachers and affects their teaching practices in a routine and subconscious manner.

It is possible, however, to bring about positive and significant changes in teaching methods if teachers are provided the opportunity to reflect upon and self-evaluate their teaching attitudes, beliefs and skills (Bullough, 1989; Clift, Houston & Pugach, 1989; Ferguson, 1989; Florio-Ruane & Lensmire, 1990). One way of providing this opportunity to reflect is to implement a variety of strategies throughout their training, such as mini-lessons, action research, journaling or discussion of daily occurrences in the teaching environment (Morine-Dorshimer, 1989; Elliot, 1985; Kelchtermans, 1993; Richert, 1991; Shulman, 1992; Witherell & Noddings, 1991). Implementing such strategies can, in fact, be of great value

for teachers especially as regards evaluating their perceptions and teaching skills and understanding how their actions are affected by their beliefs. This strategic approach to teacher training is felt by many authors (Bell & Gilbert, 1996; Schön, 1987; Tatto, 1998), to be crucial in teachers' self-evaluation and in changing their perception of their role and the exercise of their profession.

In seeking qualitative variables which, when taken into account in the primary education process can help improve teaching, we administered a three-part Likert questionnaire[40] totalling 20 questions to 106 teachers in the administrative regions of Conakry and Labé.

Results and Analyses

Most of the teachers who participated in the survey seem to have difficulty planning and organizing classes: 50% judged themselves to be incompetent, while 20.8% judged themselves to be competent. The same applies to class presentation and structuring, where 63% consider themselves incompetent and 32% competent. On in-class evaluation, 50.9% graded themselves as incompetent (vs. 47%) while 51% felt they were incompetent in the area of in-class decision-making compared to 39.6% who felt they were competent.

In contrast, 60.4% felt that they were competent in the subjects taught and 61.3% graded themselves competent in terms of their rapport and interaction with students.

Some 43.3% considered that their skills in terms of beliefs and teaching values had been developed through the training program, while 65.1% expressed a desire to further their professional development as teachers.

These results indicate that training needs must be diagnosed and identified in close concertation with teachers. Moreover, during focus groups which followed the survey, we heard many teachers say that, over several years of teaching, this was the first time they had been asked to evaluate themselves and identify their own areas of improvement.

Educational authorities must act upon these results and observations by instituting a regular formative evaluation procedure and providing remedial measures in the form of made-to-measure training. Such an approach can only be viable to the extent that it is implemented within a training structure of experienced, dynamic instructors supported by evaluation experts. In turn, such a structure cannot truly complement teaching unless its supporting role is clearly understood and it is used only for professional development at the school level.

[40] See Annex for questionnaire details and methodology.

4.2.1.3 Suggestions for Professional Development

Professional development courses must be adapted to teaching needs, qualifications and professional needs. Courses could first target teacher upgrading and adjustment to new methods or programs; other, more specialized courses could target either specific retraining, preparation for promotion or completion of more advanced degrees. Other courses could broaden teaching skills and culture without necessarily having any immediate impact upon the teacher's status or pay scale. Still others could train teachers to handle new responsibilities, paving the way towards an increased pay scale. However, these courses should not be closely tied to teachers' pay scales, rather cultural and professional interest should remain the focus of concern. Neither should teachers be encouraged to consider that minimal initial qualification is sufficient, counting on chance opportunities down the road to finish their training.

4.2.2 Training for Trainers

One of the greatest weaknesses of teacher training measures is the absence of a body of experienced, constant trainers in ENIs. Teacher trainers (PENs and CPMFs) are themselves trained by ISSEG according to a program which evidently lacks coordination with initial teacher training, professional development, and curriculum development. The program, financed by Fonds d'aide et de Coopération, is designed mainly to train a body of teacher trainers for teacher training preparatory schools. The teacher trainers' role is to supervise practicum teacher-trainees in the ENI-associated schools and oversee professional development. Although the program has not been formally evaluated since its implementation in 1990, reports[41] suggest that graduates are unsuccessfully prepared for their professional role.

CPMFs (who currently number 195, with 80 in ENIs) should have the following profile:

1. Trainer: has gained mastery of the teaching and administrative process; has knowledge of educational psychology; has in-depth knowledge of ENI programs and primary and pre-school programs;
2. Creator: propose relevant curriculum contents and create teaching tools;
3. Leader: has good group-facilitation and leadership skills;
4. Evaluator: has mastery of techniques for evaluating learning, teaching, curricula and practicums;
5. Agent of change: fosters pedagogical innovation; remains in touch with the needs of the community; promotes value assessment and problem solving skills.

In reality, CPMFs were found to have skills in the areas of course presentation and group leadership but not in teaching material conception or evaluation.

[41] Eric Allermo; Mouussa Kourouma; Denis Lacasse; Schuman. E. S (1994)évaluation technique partielle. Analyse sélective de la réforme sectorielle de l'enseignement élémentaire en Guinée. USAID/ Guinée 1994.

4.3 Recommendations

Initial Training: Short Term

38. Continue to recruit BACC graduates for teacher training but recruit female and male candidates from the same level, i.e. BACC1. Reduce the training period from two years to one year so as to train more candidates in one year and thus offset the lack of candidates. The current, one-year, on-the-job-training portion should be discontinued and replaced by professional development.

39. Make available two training options to broaden the recruitment pool: 1.) a short, one-year option for graduates with BACC1 and higher degrees. In this case, the current training program remains in effect; 2.) a longer, three-year option for BEPC graduates. These candidates could be subject to an admissions exam testing related areas of expertise and cultural disciplines. Given the current teacher shortage, it would be inexcusable to reject candidates with potential simply because they have not received the same education as BACC graduates.

40. In place of the longer option broadening the recruitment pool to BEPC graduates, the government or MEPU should implement a series of incentives to attract more BACC candidates. This could take the form of increased salaries or designated housing for teachers. MEPU should establish a national commission to study the relative cost of the recommendations outlined in 2 and 3.

Initial Training: Long Term

41. Convert ENIs into higher education institutions by linking them to ISSEG or converting them into university departments of pre-school and primary education. At the end of the academic year, any BACC graduates who have not been accepted in another faculty should automatically be steered towards this department. Candidates oriented in this way would be able to attend a higher education institution, giving them the psychological advantage of feeling closer to the university studies to which they aspire. NB: An amended version of recommendation 2 was adopted by members of the symposium held in Conakry on October 7, 1999. There are long-term plans for recommendation 4.

Professional Development: Short Term

42. Relocate professional development into the school level and establish a formative evaluation grid enabling teachers to evaluate themselves and identify their own areas of improvement. Ideally, each DPE should provide a counselor skilled in measurement and evaluation whose task

would be to assist schools and teachers in identifying teacher training needs and translating these into made-to-measure training courses.

43. Establish a training research and documentation center.

Professional Development: Medium Term

44. ENIs must assume a leadership role in professional development by developing distance teaching opportunities and integrating into initial teacher training all pedagogical approaches which can improve primary teaching skills. We feel it useful to consider integrating the EDC multi-channel approach into ENI initial teacher training and distance teaching. Distance teaching should be made available to practicum teacher-trainees, practicing teachers and school principals.

45. Summative evaluation of teachers should be further developed at the DNEE level by putting in place a dynamic structure or reinforcing the existing one. Among other things, this structure should ensure well-defined, continuous working links between initial teacher training and professional development.

Training ENI Teacher Trainers : Short Term

46. PENs and CPMFs should receive training in teaching strategies. PENs and CPMFs should also be allowed to benefit from formative evaluation so that they can retroact upon their course or practicum and improve their personal and teaching skills.

47. Teachers are in the best position to observe their teachers and supervisors and should be given the opportunity to evaluate them at the end of every PEN course and CPMF-supported practicum according to an evaluation grid.

A Reliable System for Evaluating Learning and Teaching: Short Term

48. ENIs should benefit from the services of accredited evaluation experts to evaluate teaching and learning. Moreover, they should work together with ISSEG, CNCESE and EDC to further develop their methodology in terms of teaching, teacher evaluation and evaluation of future teachers and PENs.

5 DEMAND FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION

5.1 Cost and Benefits as Determinants of Demand

Educational demand in Guinea is currently stronger than ever. Despite the country's low average income, a growing portion of the population is not only prepared to send their children to school, but also to bear certain educational costs. The crude enrolment rate rose from 29% in 1989 to 54% in 1999, an increase of nearly 85% over 10 years. This has created an imbalance between educational supply and demand in terms of classrooms, schools, teachers and students.

However, the increase in the crude enrolment rate does not necessarily reflect a keen interest in education in Guinea.[42] Although, at first glance, the crude admission rate for Grade 1 (CAR=51%) suggests that most parents send their children to school, the net rates reveal a different reality: Only 42% of children aged 7 to 12 attend school and only one 7-year-old in five is enrolled in Grade 1. Once Guinean children reach 12 years of age (and, theoretically, Grade 6) only a minority (barely 40%) are still in school, all grades combined. Moreover, many of these students leave school before obtaining a diploma. Therefore, educational demand for 12-year-olds is weak.

When the figures are broken down by region, we find that the country is practically split in two. Demand is high in Conakry (CER=86%; NER=69%; NAR=40%) and certain cities, and extremely low in rural areas (CER=47%; NER=36%; NAR=20%).[43]

Rather than congratulating ourselves on the fact that the situation is improving, we must explain the following two phenomena. First, why is there initial demand for education among most city dwellers but only among a minority of the rural population? Second, why does parental demand evaporate even before children know how to read and write?

Let us first examine the *direct costs* of registration, uniforms, textbooks and transportation. In Guinean francs (FG), these costs vary widely from one region to another. According to the 1994-1995 household budget survey, such expenses amount to 26,000 FG per child: 46,000 in Conakry, 19,000 in other urban centers and 11,000 in rural areas. In theory, the cost of schooling is similar everywhere. The wide variation is due to the fact that books and supplies are simply not purchased in rural areas, a situation that can doom children to failure. As a proportion of family income, direct costs are higher in the countryside than in the city. When we add on the higher *opportunity cost* (of child labor) encountered among farm populations, we obtain a city-countryside differential

[42] As elsewhere in this report, these figures come from the most recent statistical yearbook of MEPU-EC. They underestimate the number of students enrolled in private schools.

[43] In the absence of data for rural areas, we have used averages for regions outside Conakry. Actual rural rates are no doubt even lower.

that in itself largely explains the difference in Grade 1 admission rates between urban and rural areas.

The expansion of the private education system should not be cited as a reason for disregarding the impact of costs on enrolment rates. The growth of this system involves only a minority of parents, most of whom are relatively better off and live in the city. It does not negate the effect of costs on the number of children who attend school.

As for the *economic benefits* of education, there is once again a sharp contrast between the city and the countryside. Occupations where literacy skills and school diplomas translate more directly into higher incomes are concentrated in urban centers, while those where there are few direct benefits from schooling are pursued far from cities (e.g. farming, fishing and mining). Economically speaking, investing in the education of children in rural areas only makes sense if they are going to emigrate to the city or will at least have sufficient contact with urban markets to profit from their diplomas. [44]

Viewed from this perspective, the *cost-benefit ratio* is one of the main reasons for the difference in admission and enrolment rates between rural and urban areas. However, it also partly explains the increase in these rates. The Guinean countryside is less isolated today than it was a generation ago. It receives all kinds of information from the capital, including that disseminated by the "awareness" campaign of 1993-1995. In addition, demand from the rapidly growing urban market has spilled over into the country, leading to road construction, more transportation of goods and the traveling, seasonal migrations and other forms of exchanges that integrate rural populations into systems dominated by cities. For a growing portion of the rural population, investing in their children's education is gradually becoming more promising, even though for most rural inhabitants it still does not make much sense. Therefore, the cost-benefit ratio is changing, and the rural enrolment rate along with it, at least among people who are more fully integrated into communication networks involving cities.

In view of the very low net enrolment rates and the decline in parental demand for education once children reach 12 years of age, it might be asked whether even more awareness campaigns are needed to reverse these trends and to encourage parents to enrol and keep their children in school. This would be a fatal mistake, based on an erroneous interpretation of the facts. Given the current ineffectiveness of existing schools, it makes no sense to make them even more accessible. The weak demand on the part of parents does not reflect their ignorance but their

[44] Costs and benefits here refers to those as perceived by parents. Clearly, governments and international donors can have good reasons for fostering education for rural children and, when supported by the necessary subsidies, such policies can succeed. However, in the absence of new "modern" employment opportunities in rural areas, the primary impact will be to cause a rural exodus towards cities, a phenomenon experienced in many places around the world.

wisdom: in the vast majority of cases, sending children to school is very expensive and not very productive. Unfortunately, schools often hold out false promises, and most children leave school even before they learn to read and write properly. Parents are aware of this situation and act accordingly - a phenomenon that is amply confirmed by the very critical attitudes reported in the study *Recherche-action sur l'école-milieu* prepared by INRAP (1997).

This economic interpretation of low education levels does not apply equally everywhere. There are also cultural factors (discussed below) as well as inadequate supply factors in certain regions. On might also ask whether drop-outs are motivated more by parents (who see the writing on the wall) or by schools (which expel discouraged students and replace them with others who are still willing to pay the price of their illusions). The result is the same, and it is tragic.

5.2 Cultural Explanations for Weak Demand

In addition to economic factors, there are cultural factors that currently limit educational demand, either directly or in conjunction with economic considerations. We must make a distinction between factors that affect all children and those that affect only girls.

First, it must be noted that regular public schools do not have a monopoly on socialization and learning processes. In Islamic culture, children must attend Koranic school, but they are also allowed to attend public school. Koranic schooling, and not regular public schooling, is the minimum cultural standard in education. Therefore, it is perfectly acceptable culturally not to attend a public school. Parental demand for Koranic schools is strong, much stronger than for regular public schools, especially in places where the Islamic culture has still not been affected very much by modernization trends.

Language of instruction is another cultural factor. It is hard to learn to read and write, especially in a language other than one's mother tongue. Children who find themselves in the latter situation sometimes fail or drop out of school and often feel discouraged and excluded. School reforms have attempted, with limited success, to improve this situation through the use of "national" or vernacular languages, at least in the first two grades of primary school.[45] Whatever the particular situation, educating children in a language other than their mother tongue contributes to the dropout rate and the decline in educational demand.

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[45] Language of instruction is a controversial subject that should be discussed primarily by local authorities; foreigners would be well-advised not to get involved. Under ideal conditions, initial literacy training in vernacular languages has sometimes had good results; however, ideal conditions are rare. In general, studies show that academic performance is much more dependent on the quality of schools than on the language of instruction. For a summary of empirical results concerning Haiti, Nigeria, the Philipines and Guatemala, see Dutcher, Nadine, *Use of First and Second Languages in Education: A Review of International Experience*. World Bank: PIDPS, 1997.

We will discuss the cultural factors that specifically limit demand for the education of girls in another chapter of this report. We will note only two points for the time being. First, the difference between the enrolment rate of boys and girls has not decreased despite the expansion of the school system. In fact, the gap widened during the PASE I and II decade. Second, the reasons for the exclusion of girls are extremely varied.[46] Solving one problem, especially without taking all repercussions into account, will do nothing to achieve our goal of ensuring proportional representation of girls at all levels of instruction. The problems in this area are varied and complex, and so are the solutions.

5.3 Consequences of Increased Demand

5.3.1 Double Shift

Guinean schools, especially those located in densely populated urban centers such as Conakry or Labé, do not have enough classrooms to meet the demand. Despite a ready supply of teachers and students, infrastructure is sadly lacking. Therefore, a number of schools offer double shifts. These classes, which are often overcrowded, sometimes still have a high ratio of students per classroom. In the Prefecture of Conakry, there are 64,159 students for 484 classrooms. In the country as a whole, 30,818 students take their courses in 1,202 double-shift classrooms.

5.3.2 Multigrade Classes

This situation is similar to the preceding one in that schools can count on a supply of teachers and students. However, the number of students in each grade is generally too low to create separate classes. This phenomenon is encountered in rural areas and in sparsely populated urban centers. In the Prefecture of Conakry, 2 305 students attend 101 multigrade classes, for an average of 23 students per class, while at the national level, the ratio is 34. Multigrade classes are offered in order to maximize resources, classrooms, teachers and students. Children at different levels of learning are grouped by level in the same classroom and taught by the same teacher.

5.3.3 Schools with Students but No Teachers

The presence of schools with no teachers stems from a desire to educate children in certain outlying regions. The 1993-1995 awareness campaign, among other things, prompted the construction of schools by communities, international donor agencies and even the government, without regard for the problem of filling teaching positions. Communities in these regions are sometimes prepared to offer room and board to teachers who agree to teach in their village.

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[46] "Out-of-school" cultural factors such as issues relating to the reproductive and productive role of girls seem to have an enormous impact on their enrolment, while "in-school" factors such as proximity, separate washrooms and pedagogical adaptations seem to have more of an impact on their staying in school (Tietjen, 1991).

5.3.4 Schools with No Teachers or Students

Newly built schools must meet the construction standards of the SNIES before they can be occupied. In 1998, emergency funds were used to repair school roofs and the walls of 866 classrooms. Some of these classrooms cannot be put into service. This year (1999), there are a total of 16,497 classrooms in Guinea, only 85% of which are used: the remainder do not conform to SNIES standards or are in an advanced state of disrepair.

5.4 Conclusions Regarding Educational Demand

First, faced with a demand for increased access to education, government, international donors and sometimes even local communities have generously and understandably reacted by increasing the number of schools and seats. However, they acted with almost no regard for quality factors, with two results. One the positive side, this action increased the number of students enrolled in school and the number of students who finish. On the negative side, this increase in volume with no increase in quality in fact lowered internal efficiency and greatly increased the number of drop-outs and the overall disaster. What is offered to the population today is a very poor-quality service that produces poor results in the majority of cases.

Second, parents are perfectly aware of this situation and act accordingly. It is very expensive for them to educate their children and it is only families who live in the city or who are integrated into communication networks with urban centers that reap the benefits of sending their children to school.

5.5 Recommendations

49. We recommend that the public authorities not launch any more general public awareness campaigns aimed at stimulating educational demand until the system can offer schools that comply with FQEL standards.

50. We also recommend that efforts to stimulate demand focus solely on the education of girls and only in communities where FQEL standards can be met and where it is possible to act on Equity Committee suggestions regarding washrooms and free textbooks.

51. We recommend that MEPU-EC develop a system for calculating teacher availability on the job market based on sex, age, origin, departure, arrival, etc., in order to better satisfy the demand of specific sub-populations.

6 EDUCATIONAL SUPPLY AND DEMAND FACTORS

The demand for primary schooling in Guinea has led to a school construction boom so extensive that several schools have remained closed for lack of teachers. The resulting imbalance can only be rectified with full knowledge of the factors governing supply and demand. Among these factors are the types of schools, distribution of teachers, teacher/student ratios, teacher recruitment and assignment, etc.

6.1 Teacher Supply in the Different Types of Schools

Table 6.1 shows that public schools, with 76.54% of all teachers and 81.67% of all students, are by far the main educational supply and demand players in terms of teacher and student distributions in the different schools. They are followed by private, lay schools, with 14% of teachers and 10% of students enrolled in the primary school system. Protestant and Medersa schools, having 48 and 73 teachers respectively, are in the bracket of schools with less than 100 teachers.

Student/teacher ratios in private schools are below the national average (47), ranging from 32 to 38 compared to ratios of 50 or higher in the public schools.

Recommendation

To bring these ratios to an acceptable level as planned the Guinean government must:

- provide more multigrade schools in rural areas. This will mean attracting more teachers to these areas.
- build more public schools in high population density urban centers such as Conakry.

Short-Term Recommendation

Give priority to recruiting women to teaching positions, either in their own villages or in their regions.

Table 6-1: Type of School, Number of Teachers and Teacher/Student Ratios

Source: Annuaire statistique SSP 1998-1999. MEPU

TYPE OF SCHOOL	Number of Teachers	Number of Students	Teacher/Student Ratio
PRIVATE CATHOLIC	141	4,530	32
PRIVATE PROTESTANT	48	1,664	35
PRIVATE LAY	2,144	70,237	33
PRIVATE FRANCO ARABIC	702	26,435	38
PUBLIC LAY	11,874	593,432	50
PUBLIC FRANCO ARABIC	530	26,493	50
PRIVATE MEDERSA	73	3,770	52
TOTAL	15,512	726,561	47

6.2 Classroom/Teacher Ratios and Projections[47]

Given a constant teacher/student ratio of 43, teacher/classroom ratios can be expected to improve from 15,512 in 1999 to 28 665 in 2005 with an estimated classroom/teacher ratio of 1 as shown in table 6.2. However, teacher shortages will continue to hamper expansion of the primary school system in Guinea. To reduce the teacher shortage and meet the demand, it would be necessary to hire an average of (28,665 – 15,512) /6 or 1,859 teachers per year between now and the year 2005.

Table 6-2: Projected Numbers of Teachers Required

(The figures in the columns entitled *Number of Classrooms* , *Number of Students,* and *Number of Teachers* are taken from the 1998-1999 Annuaire statistique edited by SSP MEPU-EC.)

YEAR	Number of Classrooms	Teacher/ Student Ratio	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Classroom/ Teacher Ratio
1999	16,510	47	726,561	15,512	2
2000	17,280	43	796,003	18,512	1
2001	19,038	43	875,868	20,369	1
2002	20,876	43	959,324	22,310	1
2003	22,795	43	1,046,504	24,337	1
2004	24,800	43	1,137,543	26,454	1
2005	26,893	43	1,232,584	28,665	1

[47] Projected numbers of teachers for the period 2000 to 2005 are based on data from the 1998-1999 statistical almanac (Annuaire statistique) edited by SSP for numbers of students and classrooms. Where figures were not available for the number of teachers, we hypothesized basic acceptable levels in terms of a ratio of 40 for rural areas and 50 for urban centers. We then hypothesized student numbers at 70% for rural areas and 30% for urban centers. A weighted average gave a teacher/student ratio of 43 (40x70+50x30) /100 which we kept constant in calculating the number of teachers.

6.3 Teacher Recruitment and Assignment

FIMG has set quantitative objectives of 6,000 teacher-trainees from 1998 to 2001. Recruiting is decentralized to facilitate assignment of teachers to positions and professional integration,. More importantly, local authorities, including the IRE, DPE, and ENIs are made aware of their responsibilities.

Recruitment quotas are set for each of the 5 ENIs targetted to provide training based on their capacities and the need for teachers identified by DPEs and DCEs (directions communales):

CONAKRY	310
KANKAN	478
KINDIA	295
LABE	348
N'ZEREKORE	267

Recruitment is carried out by a committee that examines candidate applications on-site, that is within each ENI region. Applications are based on diplomas and health certificates. The official list of accepted candidates is then posted. Recruitment is from among BACC graduates (BACC1 for female students, BACC2 for male students) as well as from among university students and graduates on the job market.

Teacher recruitment faces difficulties related to macro-economic problems and to the baccalaureat recruitment pool. Generally, BACC graduates aspire to continue their studies at the university level. There are also problems with the way teachers are assigned to teaching positions, as positions are assigned according to real needs expressed by schools rather than by teachers' preferences.

Assignment of teacher-trainees follows strict principles of decentralization of responsibilities. Each DPE/DCE makes known its teacher needs through SSP/MEPU, which transmits them to ENIs. These, in turn, negotiate with interested teacher-trainees and set up lists of names by préfecture and commune for IREs.

Governors acting upon IRE proposals approve the assignments, which are then passed on to the Minister of Pre-University Education, who, in turn, sends them to the finance ministry so that new teachers can be placed on the payroll.

Given the two problems related to recruitment and assignment, one must ask how schools and their enrolment capacities can be qualified if there is no way of recruiting sufficient personnel and it is not always possible to assign recruited teachers according to the real needs of schools.

Short-Term Recommendation

We feel that the current assignment process is a step in the right direction for supplying all regions with teachers. Two areas of improvement can however be identified: a) recruit for specific positions, decentralize authority in each Préfecture, and allow interested candidates to have a choice; and b) Give preference to women and allow them to teach in the place in which they wish to live.

Medium-Term Recommendation

c) The government should set up a study commission to define parameters for outlying or inaccessible regions in order to make recommendations concerning isolation pay incentives for contractual teachers assigned to these regions by choice or otherwise.

6.4 Multigrade and Double-shift Classes

In Guinea, as in most African countries, step-by-step efforts are being made to educate all school-age children, including those who live in rural areas with very low population densities. In these regions, it is unfeasible to structure schools in such a way that they provide a separate class for each grade. Either enrollments in each class would be too low or students would have to walk long distances to get to school. Alternative solutions allowing all school-age children to be accommodated in schools include classes containing various sections. For example, classes might group together CP1 and CP2 students, CE1 and CE2 students or CE2 and CM2 students. Such classes are called multigrade or multilevel classes. In high population density areas, there is often a high student demand for a very small number of classes, resulting in double-shift classes. These consist of two groups of students, each with their own teacher, which alternate use of classroom space, one group using the classroom in the morning, the other in the afternoon or evening.

Table 6-3 illustrates the extent of these two types of classes. Double-shift classes are less frequent in the Labé, Mamou and Boké regions, which have a high concentration of rural areas. In contrast, they are relatively numerous in the préfectures of high population density regions such as Conakry, Kindia, Kankan and Faranah. Multigrade classes are found most frequently in the Kindia, Kankan and Faranah regions, which also have rural areas.

These two types of schools pose problems for effective management of teaching as well as by creating a duality in the type of education available in Guinea depending on whether one lives in an urban or rural area. Given the characteristics of these types of schools (i.e. at least two grades in one classroom or overcrowded classrooms) can one expect teachers of these classes to devote as much individual attention to each student as they would in

single-grade classes with a maximum of 50 students? If not, what are the educational quality criteria in these classes? These questions can only be answered by close cooperation between DNEE, INRAP and FIMG to set and define parameters for quality education in these classes.

For example, in the very short term ENIs should develop a teaching approach for multigrade classes, and all teacher-trainees should be officially and systematically trained to deal with this situation. In fact, multigrade classes are a reality which the system must learn to manage, especially in training schools, where they provide an invaluable testing ground for pedagogical experience. For example, they could be targetted as practicum placements for those who, upon graduating from ENIs, will have to face the difficulties of rural and multigrade classes. The approach should focus on respecting program guidelines, time management, useful and effective class preparation, marking and regularity of written exercises, etc. In this context, it seems justifiable to train more CPMFs to serve as resource persons and pedagogical counselors in schools and to provide guidance for the approach.

Double-shift classes are a product of inadequate planning between school-age population growth and classroom needs, especially in urban centers. Moreover, the lack of classes at all grade levels in rural areas has led to a rural exodus. Children come to urban centers where schools offer more advanced grades than those in their home towns. There is an urgent need to address the infrastructure planning problem in the very short term so as to gradually eliminate double-shift classes by constructing schools as needed in high population density areas but also by increasing the number of multigrade classes in rural areas to counteract the rural exodus.

Table 6-3: Distribution of Double-shift and Multigrade Classes (1998-1999)

Source: SSP 1998-1999

	Double-shift			Multigrade		
REGION	**Schools**	**Classes**	**Students**	**Schools**	**Classes**	**Students**
Boké	44	113	11,209	58	87	3,392
Conakry	93	484	64,159	35	101	2,305
Faranah	32	102	9,768	135	198	6228
Kankan	53	151	16,315	145	217	7,265
Kindia	77	238	21,019	130	230	8,750
Labé	23	51	4,037	107	127	4,714
Mamou	41	66	4,143	70	95	3,331
N'Zérékoré	39	110	11,382	71	97	3,461
Total	358	1,202	130,818	693	1,065	36,054

6.5 Distribution of Teachers by Region

Table 6-4 below shows that, with the exception of the Conakry region, where teachers are located in urban areas, the majority of teachers are located in rural areas in all administrative regions. What is even more striking, is that male teachers are more numerous in rural areas while female teachers are more numerous in urban areas. This can be partly explained by the fact that married teachers in Guinea cannot be assigned to positions more than 25km from their spouses, who tend to work in urban centers.

Table 6-4: Distribution of Teachers by Region

Source: SSP ; Annuaire statistique 1999.

REGION	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
Conakry			
Urban	2,342	1,357	3,699
Rural			
Boké			
Urban	291	155	1,553
Rural	958	149	
Kindia			
Urban	486	367	2,089
Rural	979	257	
Faranah			
Urban	269	204	1,264
Rural	924	47	
Kankan			
Urban	294	242	1,569
Rural	827	106	
Labé			
Urban	274	234	1,448
Rural	787	153	
Mamou			
Urban	209	155	1,099
Rural	654	81	
N'Zérékoré			
Urban	696	237	2,791
Rural	1,729	129	
TOTAL	**11,729**	**3,873**	**15,512**

6.5.1 Availability of Teachers on the Job Market

The total number of teachers is currently estimated at 15,512, distributed between public and private schools and between regions. Out of this number, however, no figures were available to determine the teachers actually in place in specific locations, taking into account the following variables: sex, age, pension plan, status (term-certain, part-time, permanent, etc.), and arrivals (internal and external). External arrivals are those who were previously unemployed and now have a teaching position; internal arrivals are government employees who change positions. Apparently, FAC has begun computerizing teaching personnel data, but we were unable to confirm this information.

In light of these facts, we recommend that MEPU (through SSP) implement a system of calculating teacher availability on the job market based on the variables listed above.

6.6 Training Program Reforms Since 1990

The army take-over of April 3, 1984 was an important milestone in the history of Guinea's education system, marking a break with the past on all fronts. For example, it allowed the primary education program reform process to be launched. Initiated by the Conférence Nationale de l'Éducation, held in May-June 1984, this reform reintroduced French as the language of instruction, eliminating national languages from primary and early secondary education. Other objectives included restructuring the education system, improving teaching quality and strengthening management, planning and educational administration capabilities

Implemented by the Conférence Nationale de l'Éducation held in May-June, 1984 this reform allowed French to be reintroduced as the language of instruction. It also adapted teaching to a more open society than under the first republic. Objectives included restructuring the education system, improving teaching quality and enhancing education management, planning and administration capacities.

These guidelines, which were, in fact, simply content lists that did not specify the role of the teacher, were considered provisional by Guinean authorities.

From 1984 to 1999, several steps were taken to improve education system goals especially in the framework of the PASE adjustment program (Programme d'Appui au Secteur de l'Éducation) launched in 1990. In 1987, INRAP, known as IPN at the time, developed a new generation of programs based on pedagogical objectives. However, this did not adequately define objectives or structure contents. For example, there was no consistency between strategies, goals and objectives because these were not universally understood, especially by teachers. Moreover, the program did not take affective and psycho-motor skills into account.

Since then, successive studies conducted by national and international institutions have attempted to identify gaps in the education system and propose solutions which have essentially revealed problems such as:

- Low enrolment rates for girls;
- High drop-out and failure rates;
- Stereotypes perpetuated in textbooks;
- Traditional teaching methods used by teachers;
- Development of automatic response behaviors in students and inability to apply acquired knowledge in complex situations.

In 1990, these conclusions led to a redefinition of the 1987 program.

Consequently, INRAP prepared a new methodological basis known as competency-based admission. Curriculum decisions were henceforth based on the skills that students were to acquire throughout their education. The new curriculum presented to teachers was a framework allowing great flexibility rather than the precise catalog it had been in the past.

1. Children need concrete teaching and creative activities;
2. Primary teaching in Guinea must take into account individual differences;
3. Primary teaching in Guinea must provide children with intellectual training and work skills that prepare them for secondary school;
4. Primary teaching must enable children to adapt to the life-style of their environment as well as to modern life.

Undeniably, though skills are defined in accordance with the current logic of disciplines, the program itself must be validated through the results of action research conducted by INRAP before being approved. Theoretically, the program has therefore yet to be implemented. This curriculum, which is considered to be in the experimental stage, was first tested in reduced form, then gradually applied in all schools.

Generally, the new programs are structured and organized as follows:

- Expected performance at graduation;
- Intermediate skills;
- Specific skills;
- Lessons;
- Related content;
- Teaching and learning strategies.

Program Consistency

Overall and in theory it seems that each revision of the curriculum has enhanced learning by modifying pedagogical organization of teaching, general and specific educational methodology and the role of the teacher. This transformation is characterized by changes in the type of knowledge gained, that is:

1. The concepts and facts which students must learn and master (knowledge);
2. The skills, behaviors, techniques and processes which students must acquire (skills);
3. The attitudes, values, behaviors, and ways of interacting which they must learn (life skills).

Under life skills, one should mention the addition to the curriculum of civic and moral education whose goal is to produce aware, responsible citizens.

The changing demands which this curriculum made on teachers' knowledge and skills also had significant repercussions for teachers' roles and training.

Analysis of the various teaching programs (primary, ENI, ISSEG teacher training) revealed that, although ENIs train teachers who will be expected to apply the primary curriculum, they do not make many links between their program and the primary program.

The teachers' manual (Le Flamboyant) which we were able to examine is a unique, universal document that can be adapted to the reality of the context of Guinea's specific program. We were told that it tends to lag behind textbooks so that teachers do not have time to learn how to use it. On the other hand, when they are trained to use it, they find that the manuals help them in their preparations.

Curriculum target skills were internally consistent in nature, development and scope with what students are expected to learn under knowledge objectives.

The life skills portion of the curriculum calls upon students as well as teachers to be moral role models. From 1984 to 1999, programs broke with the past practices of an inward-looking society to become ever more open to the world.

These observations show that:

1. There was a break between the 1966-1984 programs and those of 1984-present;
2. There is great continuity between the 1984-1987 programs and those of 1987-present despite certain shortcomings.

Each program revision built upon previous ones, thereby gaining maturity and evolving both on the level of educational administrative structures in the school system and on the level of subject matter taught and teachers' knowledge and skills.

Curriculum Development Through Projects

In parallel with school curriculum development the Education Ministry made provisions for implementing various innovative pedagogical programs. These programs, called projects, were funded by organizations such as the European fund (Fonds européen), USAID, etc. and developed in experimental schools in a variety of geographic areas. They shared common strategies for planning programs and other teaching aids (action plans, program guides, teaching pamphlets). New teaching materials such as textbooks, comic strips, newsletters, and posters were added to existing ones.

Some Programs

Développement de programmes de l'élémentaire;
Formation des cadres de l'INRAP en développement curriculaire;
Éducation en matière de population;
Éducation à l'environnement(1990-1991);
Éducation manuelle et technologique(1990-94);
Projet CPFC de Dubréka (1988-1990);
Projet croix rouge Guinéenne (Coyah 1988-1990);
Projet interdisciplinarité de Dubréka (1993-1995);
Éducation civique et orale(since1996).

The results of these initiatives demonstrate the need to integrate the programs into a single one, as the lack of exchange of ideas and experiences between these programs drives them apart. They lack a definite goal, and do not seem to conform to national priorities.

6.7 Teaching Materials: Textbooks

Textbooks are one of the essential elements of PASE II whose priority is improving the quality of teaching and learning. When PASE was launched in 1990, the ratio of books per student in Guinean primary schools was on average 1/7 for all subjects. To offset the shortage and enable the education system to meet the demand, the government made a commitment to provide quality teaching aids to Guinean schools with the support of PASE's international donors.

6.7.1 Production and Distribution Mechanisms

Several studies[48] report that as part of INRAP's textbook writing projects under the revised education project, its French language section spearheaded the writing and testing of a language textbook containing readings for the first grade.

In 1992, within the framework of PASE I, the ministry asked Coopération française to finance publication and printing of the grade one language textbook. This was added to the grade three science, arithmetic and history textbooks with their teachers' guides, locally conceived and produced by IPN. In addition to financing publication of the book, Coopération française also had to finance reprinting of 60,000 copies of the third-grade arithmetic textbook edited by INRAP.

6.7.2 Status of Local Publications

The World Bank and the African Development Bank (ADB) provide short- and medium-term financing for publication of school textbooks. USAID also finances publication of 1,600,000 student booklets and 20,000 pamphlets for teachers.

[48] Denis Lacasse et al. (1998) – Analyse de la distribution et de la gestion des manuels scolaires en République de Guinée. USAID – Academy for educational development.

Table 6-5: Textbook Financing by the World Bank from 1998 to the Year 2000

Primary Education Level

N°	Textbook Discipline	Quantity	Publication
1.	Grade 1 arithmetic + guide	247,927	Local
2.	Grade 2 arithmetic + guide	142,746	Local
3.	Grade 3 arithmetic + guide	120,238	Local
4.	Grade 4 arithmetic + guide	96,191	Local
5.	Grade 5 arithmetic + guide	94,412	Local
6.	Grade 6 arithmetic + guide	85,829	Local
7.	Grade 1/2 sensori-motor exercises + guide	390,673	Local
8.	Grade 1 French + guide	247,927	Local
9.	Grade 2 language and reading + guide	142,746	Local
10.	Grade 3 French + guide	120,238	Local
11.	Grade 4 French + guide	96,191	Local
12.	Grade 5 French + guide	94,412	Local
13.	Grade 6 French + guide	85,829	Local
14.	Grade 3 science + guide	120,238	Local
15.	Grade 4 Science + guide	96,191	Local
16.	Grade 5 Science + guide	94,412	Local
17.	Grade 6 Science + guide	85,829	Local
	TOTAL	**2,362,029**	

It should be noted that the credit awarded by the World Bank towards education does not depend on macro-economic indicators but rather on criteria specific to the education sector.

Table 6-6: Local Medium- and Short-Term Textbook Publication Financed by ADB

Primary Education Level

N°	Textbook Discipline	Quantity	Publication
1.	Grade 3 History-Geography + guide	106,595	Local
2.	Grade 4 History-Geography + guide	42,400	Local
3.	Grade 5 History-Geography + guide	34,206	Local
4.	Grade 6 History-Geography + guide	33,128	Local
5.	Grade 3/4 Moral and Civic Instruction + guide	320,000	Local
6.	Grade 5/6 Moral and Civic Instruction + guide	250,000	Local
	TOTAL	**786,329**	

ADB credits are managed by a national infrastructure and school equipment service (Service National des Infrastructures et des Équipements Scolaires).

USAID finances local publication and editing of French, math and science booklets for primary education as well as posters and teacher pamphlets. These publications are part of a multi-channel strategy for distance teacher training and improved learning.

6.7.3 Distribution Mechanisms

From 1990 to 1993, the Education Ministry used two textbook distribution mechanisms based on textbook sales to students. First, private sellers were used, but they were not able to ensure effective textbook distribution, and ministry planners had failed to plan the operation effectively. Consequently, textbooks did not find their way into schools and money from textbook sales was not recovered by the ministry.

This first experience did not allow the government's quality and equity objectives to be met.

Subsequently, educational organizations were used to ensure better textbook distribution and sales to schools. Asking students to purchase the textbooks was a deterrent to accessibility as very few students actually did purchase it. This second experience produced the same results as the first: textbook and financial losses were recorded, and few textbooks actually reached the students.

6.7.4 Managing the Distribution Process

After 1997, a textbook repair and reuse fund was set up on an individual school basis. Each primary-level child was asked to pay a yearly lump sum, varying over the years from an initial 1,000 FG to 700 FG before being fixed at 500 FG three months ago. The funds collected in this way were placed in an account and managed by a textbook management committee under the aegis of the parents' association of each school (APEAE). This committee was also mandated to monitor optimal textbook use, conservation, repair and reuse. APEAE offices and the management committee in the presence of local elders and elected officials ensure that schools receive textbooks, which are stamped with the school's seal and a code number to identify them in case of loss or theft.

Comments

It is difficult to learn without books, yet most schools operate with virtually no textbooks or teaching aids. Bright children in pre-school classes must learn to count on their fingers with the help of a teacher who has no textbook support. [49]

To date, the primary education system relies on a national textbook monopolized by a small handful of publishers. Many books end up on the trays of ambulant traders, who sell the books on the black market at prohibitive prices.

[49] Despite the general inadequacy of textbook distribution, there are some factors which give cause for hope. Distribution seems to be more successful for 1999/00 than in preceding years. Some schools were able to salvage books from previous years, and a new system based on local choice and privatization seems to be gaining ground.

Guinea does not have a publishing industry *per se*. The few small businesses such as the Société Africaine d'Édition et de Communication (SAEC) or Soguidip must face competition from highly organized and funded international competition. Any country which depends on foreign books to meet its national educational and cultural needs must be subjected to the influence of foreign ideas.

6.7.5 Towards a Book Policy

We feel that policy of opening the publishing market to Guinean and international competition would result in more books for more students.

Volunteer groups of teachers and subject-area experts should be formed to write and produce textbooks, with pedagogical quality control and publication being ensured by INRAP.

In the short term, one should encourage production of pamphlets such as those developed by INRAP (e.g. multi-subject student notebooks) in the framework of the FQEL project with USAID financial assistance and EDC technical assistance. This would develop Guinean expertise and offset the lack of textbooks in schools while reducing the book/student ratio in the short term pending publication of textbooks.

Regardless of the publisher, textbooks should be chosen by teachers from a list supplied by the ministry.

The policy of leasing textbooks for a lump sum should be maintained, but more APEAE members should be trained to manage this fund.

Teachers' manuals should be published concurrently with textbooks and made available free-of-charge to teachers.

Each school should have a well-stocked, working textbook library to offset the disadvantages of working from a single textbook. Above all, textbooks should be used as a reference source rather than as the final authority on subject matter. Teachers must change the way they use textbooks through much-needed practicum sessions, work sessions and teamwork. They must also learn to make use of audio-visual techniques, teaching workshops and materials, the children's background and social environment.

6.7.6 The Need for Continuity Between Primary and Secondary Levels

While implementing measures for quality primary education, one must keep in mind the need for a smooth transition from the primary to the secondary level. Upper primary grades should resemble the lower secondary grades and primary schools should prepare students in such a way that they can adapt easily to the

secondary level. The secondary level should work from student entry levels, gradually becoming more differentiated from primary school.

The education system must serve the needs of all students by offering them a certain level of education in arts, sciences, language and technical skills. The main goals of the secondary level should include: enabling each student to develop those areas corresponding to their aptitudes and preferences while avoiding premature overspecialization; providing those with more immediate needs with some degree of specialization; ensuring a balance between general knowledge and practical education for all; cultivating an interest in and respect for disciplines and areas which lie outside a student's preferences.

With these objectives in mind, secondary education would benefit from developing according to the comprehensive school model, i.e. one designed to accommodate all students coming out of primary schools and provide them with the basis of a well-rounded education.

6.8 Recommendations

Short Term

52. We feel that the current assignment process is a step in the right direction for supplying all regions with teachers. Two areas of improvement can however be identified: a) recruit for specific positions, decentralize authority in each Préfecture, and allow interested candidates to have a choice ; and b) Give preference to women and allow them to teach in the place in which they wish to live.

53. The government should set up a study commission to define parameters for outlying or remote regions and make recommendations concerning isolation pay incentives for contractual teachers assigned to these regions by choice or otherwise.

School Use

55. If ratios are to be brought to an acceptable level as planned by the Guinean government, it will be necessary to: provide more multigrade schools in rural areas and attract more teachers to these areas; build more public schools in high population density urban centers such as Conakry; create more multi-grade classes in rural areas to counteract the rural exodus.

Multigrade and Double-Shift Classes

56. In the very short term, ENIs should develop a teaching approach for multigrade classes, and all teacher-trainees should be officially and systematically trained to deal with this situation.

57. There is an urgent need to address the infrastructure planning problem in the very short term so as to gradually eliminate double-shift classes by constructing schools as needed in high population density areas.

7 EQUITY

7.1 Guinea's Education System: Equity and Primary Education

It is recognized that in Guinea, as in many developing countries, not all children have equal access to education, the least privileged being girls and children in rural areas. This unequal access problem cannot be resolved solely at the community or primary school level: it must be a common concern for all internal and external players of the education system. In Guinea, educational reform has focussed on equity problems, and much action has been taken since 1990 by government and communities with the aid of development partners.

7.1.1 Access to Primary Education

Primary education crude enrolment rates (TBS), which compare the number of enrolled students to the total population of children aged 7-12, increased steadily from 29% in 1989/1990, to 40% in 1993/1994, and 53% in 1998/1999. The last figure attains the accessibility objectives targetted by the Guinean government (GG) for the year 2000. On this general level, all those who have contributed to educating Guinean children since the reforms implemented in 1990 are to be congratulated for attaining the objective before the target date. Fortunately for minorities and under-schooled areas, this objective is to be attained for all children throughout the country. The national indicator does not therefore translate into true attainment of the objective, especially as regards equity access to quality primary education. The same indicator must therefore be measured in each region and urban or rural area for girls as well as boys.

Table 7-1: Crude Enrolment Rates

CRUDE ENROLMENT RATES								
Projections								
	1990/1991	1993/1994	1995/1996	1996/1997	1997/1998	1998/1999	2004/2005	2009/2010
Girls	19.66	25.7	31.54	35.53	36.94	39.98	60	85
Boys	44.44	55.16	62.37	65.69	65.71	67.65	90	100
Together	31.81	40.14	46.57	50.46	51.04	53.53	75	90

7.1.2 Access and Equity

All primary education studies note that girls and children in rural or peripheral areas have less chance of being enrolled in school.

In 1998/1999, girls had a crude enrolment rate of only 40%, compared to 67.65% for boys and 53% for the national average. To be more precise and to avoid comparing all students to school-age children, we must examine net enrolment

rates (TNS), which show 33/100 girls aged 7-12 attending school, versus 48/100 boys in the same age bracket. Girls seem to be highly underprivileged compared to boys in all 8 administrative regions of Guinea.

In and of themselves, these regions do not represent environments favoring equitable universal education. Mamou and Labé together have crude enrolment rates of between 37% and 40%; they are followed by Faranah and Kankan with rates of 46.19% and 43.81% respectively. The four other regions have enrolment rates of over 50%, bringing the national average to 53%. Thus, some regions have low enrolment rates overall, but the educational profile of each region is not homogeneous. In fact, within each region, the sous-préfectures, especially those in rural areas, have lower enrolment rates than others for various reasons related to supply and demand. As stated in the statistical almanac (Annuaire statistique 97-98):

In Conakry, the commune of Matoto attained a TBS of 122% and a net rate of 89% while the commune of Kaloum, with a TBS of 46% showed a net rate of 35%. In the region of N'Zérékoré, the préfectures of N'Zérékoré and Beyla had rates at extreme ends of the scale (TBS=66% and 28% respectively). Similar disparities are found in other regions where préfectures around large cities have much higher rates. There seems to be a relationship between enrolment rates and the socio-economic level of the area. Thus, urban centers have higher rates than rural areas. The following table shows the préfectures with the highest and lowest rates for each region.

The préfectures with the lowest enrolment rates in each region are more rural, and their low rates are due to low demand as well as low supply capacities. Direct costs, opportunity costs and uncertain goals of schooling are all factors which contribute to continued low demand. On the supply side, factors such as country schools which are more than 5 km away along untravelled roads, schools that do not offer all grades (two- or three-level), do not encourage parents to enroll their children. Sometimes the schools simply cannot provide the grades needed to continue primary education for figures (see Annex 7).

Table 7-2: Low and High Rates by Region

Annuaire statistique, SSP/MEPU 1997-1998

Regions and Préfectures		TBS	TNS
BOFFA	FRIA	79.6%	56.5%
	GAOUAL	27.3%	22.3%
CONAKRY	MATOTO	122.5%	89.6%
	KALOUM	46.6%	35.3%
FARANAH	KISSIDOUGOU	57%	43%
	DINGUIRAYE	24.5%	19%
KANKAN	KANKAN	57%	45%
	MANDIANA	28.5%	24%
KINDIA	KINDIA	69.8%	54%
	TELIMELE	24.3%	20%
LABE	LABE	52.4%	39.5%
	MALI	26.2%	19.8%
MAMOU	MAMOU	51.8%	37.3%
	DALABA	27.5%	19.4%
N'ZEREKORE	N'ZEREKORE	66.6%	49%
	BEYLA	27.9%	21.5%

7.1.3 Internal Efficiency and Equity

The access disparities noted between regions and sexes are reflected within schools. Girls have a lower success rate than boys and tend to drop out more readily. Overall, however, not all students have equal chances of succeeding given repetition rates. While drop-out rates are on the decline, they remain higher for girls, and repetition rates are unfortunately on the rise, having increased steadily in the primary system from 28% in 1993-1994, to 31.2% in 97-98 and 30.4% in 98-99 (see annex, Table 3).

In grade six, repetition rates are more dramatic, exceeding 40% for girls and boys. For a hypothetical sample of 1000 students, keeping performance rates constant (pass, repetition, drop-out), only about 5% of students would successfully complete primary school in 6 years. If one allows for 2 repetitions, bringing the primary cycle to 8 years, graduation rates would jump from 5 to 25%, that is, of the students enrolled last year (and thus having already completed one school year) 25% would successfully complete their primary education in 5 to 7 years, for a total of 6 to 8 years of schooling.

Given the repetition and drop-out rates cited in several studies and by institutions at local and centralized levels, we can conclude that equity is an objective yet to be attained. Access must be improved and performance enhanced for all children and for girls and children in rural areas in particular.

Table 7-3: Internal Efficiency—Primary Education

SSP/MEPU-EC

	Performance Rates					
	92/93	**94/95**	**95/96**	**96/97**	**97/98**	**98/99**
Boys and Girls						
Pass Rate	70.38%	69.70%	69.51%	69.33%	65.13%	66.66%
Repetition Rate	24.21%	24.44%	25.68%	28.23%	28.92%	28.20%
Drop-Out Rate	5.41%	5.86%	4.81%	2.44%	5.95%	5.14%
Girls						
Pass Rate	65.32%	65.63%	52.55%	65.43%	61.62%	63.05%
Repetition Rate	27.64%	28.07%	38.13%	31.67%	31.21%	30.39%
Drop-Out Rate	7.04%	6.30%	9.32%	2.91%	7.18%	6.56%
Boys						
Pass Rate	72.72%	71.59%	78.05%	71.37%	67.10%	68.77%
Repetition Rate	22.63%	22.75%	19.41%	26.43%	27.64%	26.92%
Drop-Out Rate	4.65%	5.65%	2.54%	2.19%	5.26%	4.31%

7.1.4 Access and Quality of Supply

Poor performance of schools has a detrimental effect on quality and access. The results or impact of efforts to increase demand could be heightened by improving the quality of supply and demand.

If performance rates were higher, i.e. average repetition rates below 15% or 10% as targetted by FQEL, real drop-out rates below 8% and pass rates of at least 77%, they would translate into economies of nearly 3,000 student-years out of a sample of 1,000 students over a full primary cycle. Such enhanced performance would also increase access and greatly increase demand as well as enrolment rates. Quality performance also benefits access by encouraging communities who see their educated children succeed. For this reason, quality must not be sacrificed to accessibility. Instead, a minimum or acceptable level of effectiveness should be maintained or reached to guarantee more children access to quality primary education. This strategy bears with it costs which must be assessed if it is to be implemented effectively: it requires a sweeping training campaign adapted to needs, a series of measures for investing in infrastructures, and recruitment of well trained, well equipped teachers to reduce overcrowded classrooms and guarantee adequate geographic coverage.

Poverty and cultural factors are often quoted as demand factors causing low enrolment among girls (wb28 sept 95); they affect demand both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quality of demand affects quality of supply: children who are expected to perform a surplus of domestic tasks or work in the fields are less likely to succeed, which lowers the performance of schools. Past-school-age children are also less likely to succeed and drop out of school more readily (child marriages and unwanted pregnancies for girls). Children who must regularly

walk 5 km cross-country to get to school or who often go hungry do not have the same chances of succeeding as others.

To enhance performance, efforts should be directed not only at teaching quality (i.e. supply) but also at quality of demand, in particular the demand for education for girls.

To improve access, demand must be increased and performance enhanced, as noted earlier.

There is thus a close relationship between quality of education, quality of demand and access to education. Poor quality caused by low performance rates has a detrimental effect upon all access figures, limiting access and reducing the impact of sensitization efforts to encrease demand.

However, with a national crude enrolment rate of 53% in 1998-99 compared to 29% in 1989-90, one must recognize that progress has been made and that all players have made primary education a priority over this decade.

7.1.5 Evolution of Indicators and Progress

Enrolment rates have risen steadily. Crude enrolment rates for girls have doubled from 19% in 1989-1990 to 40% in 1998-1999. In areas benefitting from MEPU and development partner projects, figures are even higher. For example, in one school in the Douné sous-préfecture there was one girl to 25 boys in 1994, and 86 girls to 153 boys in 1998-1999. In Lélouma, the crude enrolment rate increased from 14.20% in 1991-1992 to 26.58% in 1997-1998; the same trend was noted in the eight préfectures targetted in 1991 (see table in annex). Access has increased noticeably throughout the country but many efforts have yet to be made to guarantee quality education for all, where relative quality must be defined in concertation by players from within and outside the education system to effectively plan and program action. The results obtained so far have been obtained through the efforts of all players at the level of both supply (increase and enhancement) and demand (increase).

Action taken to date includes action taken in the framework of government programs and strategies, action taken by international donors and educational development partners supporting the government, including especially those concerned with education for girls such as USAID, UNICEF, FAC, GTZ, CIDA, and the Guinean community.

7.2 The National Context: Policies and Strategies

7.2.1 The Republic of Guinea Education Policy

The Government of Guinea, in its 1995 Déclaration de Politique Educative identified education and specifically primary education as priorities. The objectives are as follows (Lettre de politique éducative):

- Increase access to primary education to a larger segment of the population
- Promote education for girls at all levels
- Make the primary cycle a terminal cycle
- Implement an optional practical program in all primary schools to serve as a *transition* between school and working life.

To attain these objectives, GG developed an educational sector support program for 1995-2000, PASE II, to follow the educational structure adjustment program of 1990-1994, PASE I. Within the framework of the equity and school enhancement project, Equité et amélioration des écoles, financed by the World Bank and with technical and financial assistance from USAID, specific actions taken were:

School Infrastructures: Approximately 600 classrooms are currently under construction, moreover ahead of schedule. Over 1000 classrooms are also to be renovated under this project.

Equity Committee: In 1991 the MEPU, in collaboration with USAID, formed an Equity Committee made up of six members including one representative of the social affairs ministry (Ministère chargé des Affaires Sociales), and later broadened to include other ministries. The committee's objectives are as follows (report of the Equity Committee during PASE I):

1. Promote further research;
2. Develop strategies for increasing the national crude enrolment rate and attenuate disparities between sexes and regions;
3. Ensure that gender and equity measures are effectively implemented in all educational areas of influence.

Action taken by this committee under MEPU includes revising the text expelling young, pregnant girls from school definitively and conducting a study on eliminating discriminatory stereotypes from programs.

With the technical and financial assistance of USAID, the committee launched a vast community awareness campaign whose effects are still being felt. To carry out this campaign, the committee trained *education promoters*, recruited locally from among educated elders and, especially, religious leaders.

The committee publishes a quarterly information and sensitization newsletter on education for girls. This newsletter, whose publication is made possible by UNICEF, provides role models for girls as well as testimonials and comic strips to encourage them.

Policy of Tolerance Towards Pregnant Girls: In a memorandum dated September 9, 1992, the government of Guinea decreed that pregnant girls would only be temporarily barred from schools, and should be readmitted afterwards. This widely publicized measure brought back as many as 66% of girls targetted in some areas.

7.2.2 USAID Education Program and Projects

Within the framework of the FQEL project run by EDC, action was taken to sensitize teachers to gender problems. Teaching aids were produced in the form of laminated posters illustrating equity and excluding discriminatory stereotypes. EDC is also conducting a study on follow-up of education for girls.

7.2.2.1 GWE/Girls' Education Project - (SAGE)/Plan Guinée

This project as described in CSP 98-2005 of USAID/Guinea, set the following objectives:

- Provide continued technical assistance to the Equity Committee in conceiving, planning and managing activities to promote education of girls and children in rural areas;
- Broaden the circle of players in the education system to include other governmental sectors and non-governmental organizations;
- Work in the community with parents and children to take innovative action and implement strategies to improve access to quality education for girls.

From 1996 to 1998, the project conducted a study on factors influencing education of girls. This study showed:

- 64% of those consulted indicated that unwanted pregnancies blocked education for girls;
- 58% identified poverty;
- 58% felt that the cause was high education costs;
- 42 % felt that parents were not aware of the importance of education for girls.

This study mobilized various sectors and partners to sensitize communities to education for girls. It also led to the creation of several structures:

- Alliance Nationale, formed in September, 1997 and composed of nearly 150 members;
- Groupe de travail national, formed in November, 1997 and made up of 12 members of Alliance Nationale;
- Groupe media, set up in 1998 and comprising one dozen members;

- Local Alliances in 18 Moyenne Guinée communities, formed essentially in 1997-1998 and having approximately 10 members each.

Were structures such as the local Alliances locales and the Alliance Nationale working group needed to carry out the activities of the project? What resources were available to them? What is their relationship with existing local structures? Local Alliances seem to be made up of community elders, women representing various associations, NGOs, and education promoters. These Alliances are given technical support under Plan Guinée and thus benefit from the expertise of full-time Guinean employees as well as that of international consultants.

Following completion of this study, the project assisted communities in developing action plans for implementing low-cost, practical, realistic solutions promoting education for girls. These action plans were implemented, followed up, publicized and integrated into the national strategy. To this end, Plan International, recently organized a national forum for these communities with the presence of a highly credible government delegation. Several local elected officials, education promoters and religious leaders participated very actively in the discussions. Resolutions adopted at this forum more precisely define objectives for education of girls and strategies for to be implemented by all players including communities, the private sector, government, and development partners such as USAID. This list of resolutions is once again a sort of "wish list" to which no formal commitment has been made. Even so, implementation of local action plans is an important step towards implementing the first sub-component of the USAID Strategic Objectives in Education; communities must be strengthened to pave the way for education system players to develop and take action promoting education for girls.

We suggest that, to effectively support communities, USAID provide long-term technical assistance and financial assistance for their development; developed communities readily participate in school life and promote child learning. Technical assistance should be skilled and in tune with local realities. The goal of this assistance is to develop communities economically and socially with particular focus on women so as to promote education and school success for girls. Focussing the role of this assistance on local communities means that USAID support must be complemented by other support so that schools and the education system can benefit as well.

Equity Committee

From 1993 to 1995, the Equity Committee, with the assistance of USAID, carried out a vast sensitization campaign in 8 pilot préfectures:

- Boffa and Télimélé in Basse Guinée;
- Koubia and Lelouma in Moyenne Guinée;
- Dinguiraye and Mandiana in Haute Guinée;
- Macenta and Beyla in Guinée Forestière.

The objective of this campaign was to change the attitudes and behaviors of families and parents towards school so as to increase educational demand and improve school retention rates by:

- training education promoters whose role would be to facilitate activities and initiate sensitization measures at the community level;
- holding sensitization sessions in the form of seminars, forums, broadcasting of radio and television plays at the community, media and administrative level;
- developing action plans;
- awarding prizes; 1438 students received prizes in the form of school supplies.

Increased awareness and the fact that education promoters were residents of their communities led to lasting results. Enrolment rates for girls continue to increase in the pilot regions. Education promoters have maintained their level of participation in education for girls by monitoring student attendance and teacher awareness. They also play a role in parent associations. One should note that many of these education promoters are middle-aged men. However, in these communities, elders are always middle-aged men, and they tend to be the most listened-to members of the community. Ideally however, this training should also be extended to women so that they can become education promoters and monitor education of girls.

Regions and areas such as Koula and Balaya in Lelouma Préfecture, the community and MEPU have worked together to provide children with a school in which they can enroll.

7.2.3 UNICEF and NAFA Centers

UNICEF provides technical and financial assistance to MEPU by establishing training centers for children who are past school age or have no schooling. These NAFA centers or "second-chance schools" provide a bridge back into the formal secondary system. Many children have been able to enroll in regular schools after spending three years at one of the 95 NAFA centers in existence today.

7.3 Objectives for Promoting Education of Girls and Equal Access to Quality Teaching

To guarantee equity access to basic quality teaching, the following two objectives should be explored simultaneously with the participation of all players in the system: enhancing the performance or effectiveness rate and increasing demand.

Enhancing the performance rate of boys and girls in rural and peripheral areas would lead to increased supply capacities and reassure parents. Action could target:

- improving teaching quality ;
- improving the quality of demand ;
- increasing supply capacities.

7.3.1 Enhancing Performance Rates

Performance rates are tied to both supply and demand factors. Identifying the costs involved in meeting the local needs identified will allow the most economical and effective action to be taken. However, one can already identify certain measures which would have to be assessed on an individual school basis with the participation of all players.

On the Supply Level

- Make available professional development in participatory pedagogical approaches adapted to their situations (e.g. multigrade classes) to teachers.

- Train teachers in gender and equity issues in the classroom. Girls and children in outlying areas should no longer be victims of the system or of certain teachers who are not always aware of the impact of their attitudes. Within the framework of professional development, teachers receive a training module on equity in the classroom with special emphasis on discriminatory stereotypes against girls;

- Introduce curricula which address community concerns, with themes and content being determined by student exit profiles. Ideally, teaching and lessons should be based on local realities. For example, parents should be invited to schools to talk about their occupations and give workshops on local occupations, and educational fieldtrips into the community should be organized.

- Publicize and enforce laws protecting children and especially girls (sexual abuse)

Improving School Quality

- Reduce overcrowded classrooms. The chances of achieving high performance levels in a class of more than 60 students are very low, regardless of the training the teacher has received.

- Renovate or build classrooms or schools in areas where needs are justified;

- Adequately equip each classroom by: assigning one teacher per class; limiting class sizes to 60 students; providing at least one blackboard per

classroom; providing enough washrooms proportional to each school's enrollments, with separate washrooms for girls and boys; management committees involving parents; providing school feeding programs in schools more than 3-5km from the villages they serve. To achieve this, basic levels of school quality must be defined more completely and more precisely for each category (school environment and community inputs, learning processes, equitable learning and teaching processes for all, school management, pedagogical and administrative supervision, performance or evaluation processes, purpose of schooling—match between school/community and school/profile of graduating students, etc.). Once these indicators have been defined by a participatory process, local, regional and central programs must be developed and budgeted to bring each school to the basic level for a given period. Thus, each player or group of players will assume responsibility for the areas that relate to them and together they will contribute to making schools rewarding and effective.

- Make NAFA centers generally available for underschooled children and especially for those with no schooling who are too old to enter first grade.

On the Demand Level

To enhance school performance, implementing the following measures in the community and the family would contributer significantly to education for girls:

- Send children to school from a very early age (6-7 years) (current regulations, which may change, specify age 7). This would reduce the greater drop-out rate of girls who reach puberty while still in primary school, thereby running the risk of unwanted pregnancy. In general, children over age 14 who are still in primary school are more likely to repeat and drop out of school;

- Offer introductory reproductive biology classes to students over age 15;

- Promote learning by lightening student workloads at home and in the fields;

- Create daycare centers for children under age 6 so as to provide more free time for mothers and older daughters while preparing children for primary school;

- Ensure that students are healthy by offering classes in hygiene and nutrition to parents and children;

- Provide guidance and encouragement to girls by creating a mentoring system between girls and local persons who have left the community. Such mentoring should provide mainly moral and intellectual support; mentors would keep track of their charges' studies and invite them to come and stay

with them for a visit. Mentors should not be concentrated in cities to avoid creating an image that encourages the rural exodus.

7.3.2 Increasing Demand

On the Supply Level

Renovate or build classrooms or schools in localities which do not yet have any is imperative for equity access to education. Accessibility norms should be taken into account on the school map and should define the maximum radius served by the school and the maximum distance students can travel to get to school.

A classroom or school without teachers is nothing more than a building which must be outfitted with teachers and teaching materials. Women could be encouraged to teach in localities with low enrolment rates for girls by being offered housing and a start-up kit.

Awareness of cultural values of the environment would bring schools closer to this environment and gain the confidence of the local population. For example, teachers should dress in such a way as to blend in with locals.

On the Demand Level[50]

Continue efforts to sensitize localities that are reticent about or indifferent to education for girls and children in general as currently under Plan Guinée through creation and strengthening of local alliances. Sensitization must emphasize quality demand: the living conditions of girls affect their predisposition to succeed.

Providing financial support to girls in poor socio-economic areas can be a very cost-effective measure with a direct, immediate impact. Past experiences of the Equity Committee, Coopération canadienne, and other national NGOs are encouraging. However, "consolation funding" should be made available to boys in the same schools.

7.4 Recommendations

General Recommendations: Integration and Synergy

58. Integrate equitable access to quality education with all sectors of the school environment (education system, school, community, private and public sectors) and there must be synergy in the action taken.

59. Identify the roles and responsibilities of each player to avoid redundancy and conflicts such as those which seem to arise between existing

[50] There is no point in stimulating demand if the demand cannot be met according to FQELs. Thus, there is no contradiction between the positions taken in chapters 5 and 7 of this report.

structures e.g. the Equity Committee and newly-formed local alliances, both of which operate awareness campaigns at the community level. Within communities, one could rely upon existing structures whose concern is to develop the community, such as elder councils, development associations, women's groups, religious leaders, and education promoters.

60. Define in a participatory manner and make known the school's goals and the objectives to be attained for equity access (sex, region, area), performance and school effectiveness.

61. Identify action to be taken for equity access to education in all sectors of the education system including the environmental level. See the table in the Annex for a list of actions to be taken or objectives to be attained by each player at each level of responsibility. This could be used as a starting point for a workshop.

62. In accordance with the strategies to be implemented and action to be taken, define the roles and responsibilities of all sectors directly or indirectly related to the education system, including: the public sector, teachers citizens, the private sector, students and children, the media, the community, families and development partners. The workshop mentioned above could serve as a framework for redefining the roles and responsibilities of each.

63. Develop a complete definition of fundamental levels of quality and equity, so as to plan and follow up the impact of action taken at the school level. This definition should be revised periodically.

64. We suggest that the Equity Committee and Alliance Nationale coordinate activities at the public sector and community levels respectively for local, prefectural and national levels. One should distinguish the role of local and national Alliances from the assistance role of Plan Guinée. The Equity Committee should certainly focus on the public sector and schools. Another alternative would be to identify geographic areas of intervention for local alliances and the Equity Committee, allowing each organization to coordinate the activities of all sectors within these areas. This alternative is less satisfactory and causes dissipation of resources.

Gender Equity

Short- and Long-Term

65. Organize a mentoring system for girls in areas that are already sensitized to ensuring that girls stay in school. To achieve this, education promoters assisted by the Equity Committee and adequate resources distribute

uniforms and school supplies to needy girls. They could also organize meetings between these girls and local alliances to encourage them to perform well. The mentoring system could pair up girls with locals (preferably women) who have left the community or region.

Longer Term

66. Take a census in target regions of all school-age girls and enroll them systematically in school at age 7. It would also be beneficial to create vocational training centers of the NAFA type enabling girls who wish to do so to enter the formal system.

Regional Equity

Short- and Long-Term

67. *Demand:* Once schools in rural areas have been equipped according to FQEL standards, launch awareness campaigns to increase the demand among underprivileged clienteles.

68. *Supply*: In underprivileged areas, school feeding programs should be provided in schools equipped according to FQEL standards.

Long Term

69. Recruit enough teachers, providing incentives for rural and underprivileged areas. Support rural areas by developing women's groups and cooperatives.

8 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

This section examines the role which the community plays (and should play) in efforts to educate all school-age children. It begins by reviewing the approaches used to ensure community participation in FQEL[51] and explores the methodological problem of measuring the impact of FQEL sub-contracts. This is followed by a historical overview of community participation in basic education and by an examination of the legal environment created to promote such participation. Finally, we examine the roles and responsibilities of the various government partners in strengthening community participation in quality education.

8.1 FQEL : Implementation and Impact Assessment

8.1.1 Integrating Community Participation into the FQEL

Implementing the FQEL project created an interesting dynamic within the education system by allowing new ideas to enter the on-going debate. Specifically, NGO action within regions generated initiatives and proposed alternatives which at times shook up the ingrained habits of civil servants within school administrations—a positive factor of change. However, the hopes and aspirations expressed by communities at the grass-roots level towards FQELs could have been addressed more fully if a different method had been used to assign sub-contracts to the agencies designated to carry them out.

In early 1997, four agencies were designated to implement the FQEL project. EDC/RTI/CAII consortium, was assigned the imposing task of helping the MEPU manage the project and bringing school administrations and all other partners involved in FQELs to the table. Additionally, three international NGOs, World Education/Guinée (WEG), Save the Children/USA (STC), and Plan International/Guinée (PlanIG), were chanrged with managing those aspects of the project specifically concerned with community participation at the grass-roots level.

The two WEG and STC sub-contracts were, in fact, based on proposals made by these organizations and incorporated into the FQEL, leaving it up to them to define the quality and equity indicators targetted by their activities. Both of these NGOs promote reliance on national NGO support to carry out activities, an approach that has proven successful elsewhere, notably in Mali and Benin.

Training materials[52] developed by WEG and STC in Mali and Benin were used to train their community organizers and local NGO personnel. For STC the

[51] The acronym FQEL is used in two ways in this document: a) in the singular, it refers to the USAID/GDG bilateral project; b) in the plural, it refers to indicators used to measure progress made towards achieving quality schooling in Guinea.

[52] These materials include an excellent reference manual for parent groups (Manuel de référence des Associations des parents d'élèves) circulated by WEG (WEG, November, 1998).

emphasis was on addressing the needs of the community in setting up schools, which meant, in particular, allowing communities to determine timetables and allowing national languages to be used as the language of instruction in the early primary years. These two policies met with resistance from Guinean school administrations in Mandiana, Kankan, and Conakry, which held different views.

PlanIG, began by introducing an approach based on social marketing (i.e. education for girls) and using strategies such as creating a national group of opinion leaders. PlanIG already had experience with equity under girls' education projects, the notion of equity referring mainly to increasing school access for girls. FQELs expanded this notion of equity to include regional disparities and rural/urban differences.

In May and June 1998, more than a year after the project was launched, FQEL conferences were organized with EDC support. Various stakeholders closely connected with the education system, including ministry officials, teachers, inspectors, NGO partners and some APEAE representatives, participated in these conferences in Conakry and different regions of the country. The objective was to reach a national consensus on FQEL indicators, which were subsequently to be revisited with all partners according to different modalities. According to an EDC brochure (EDC, July 1999), "FQELs are flexible and constantly evolving...to better reflect progress made." This vision is very important and must be shared, as it will allow community contributions to be taken into account in FQEL debates.

In September 1999, EDC organized the first public FQEL forum, Atelier sur le forum public NFQE, in Mamou which was supported by INRAP and held at the request of WEG. This conference targetted a diversified audience including WEG and NGO community organizers. The community organizers had already begun to raise awareness to FQEL issues among DPE, DPSP and APEAE partners using materials developed outside of Guinea.

The two separate yet simultaneous processes of targetting awareness of FQEL objectives undertaken by the prime consortium and the three sub-contractors may have created a certain amount of confusion. While WEG (in its 1998 annual report) focused on four aspects of FQELs (quality, accessibility, equity and infrastructures), EDC (July 1999) adopted and publicized ten indicators or learning conditions, none of which, for the time being, focuses on the physical school environment (washrooms, drinking water, furniture, etc.). Approaching the issue from two different perspectives is not an insurmountable problem, as there are ways of linking the two approaches and exchanging ideas, as at the public forum in Mamou (one of the great benefits of this activity). However, from the perspective of overall project planning, FQEL is not an integrated approach, as it is based on four juxtaposed components, each with their own, autonomous reasonings which might lead them in divergent directions. To avoid this risk of divergence, frequent coordination meetings between the NGOs are needed, a

desire expressed by all parties but rarely put into practice. USAID/Guinea attempted to establish this type of synergy by launching a common project in 1997, but much progress remains to be made before there is true synergy between sub-contracts.

What other approaches could have been adopted to identify FQELs? Would it have been possible to begin with grass-roots consultations in each of the sub-projects? Could community participation in drafting FQELs have been promoted from the beginning? Perhaps, but if so, it would have been necessary to adopt a completely different project planning approach, for example by taking the time to develop a common methodology which each organization would have had the task of putting into practice.

8.1.2 Obstacles Confronting FQELs

What obstacles currently stand in the way of FQEL implementation? On one hand, as evidenced by the many meetings in which LSA team members participated in Conakry and different regions of the country, FQEL principles are certainly being widely publicized in the school environment, and the different stakeholders certainly seem sincere in their efforts to put them into action. On the other hand, a problem with this great undertaking is that the different players in the school system perceive these FQELs as new regulations sent down from central administration and the national capital.

This perception of FQELs as new regulations was voiced by one Mamou region school principal interviewed by the LSA team. When asked about his understanding of the term equity, he responded: "We received orders to recruit 20 boys and 20 girls. That's not a problem. All you have to do is go to the villagers for recruitment."

Two other Kankan center school principals stated that the FQEL regulations would come into effect in October 1999 at the beginning of the school year. Prior to this, people talked about FQEL but no concrete action was taken. Since early 1998, these principals have been attending seminars and meetings about FQEL issues. As they see it, FQEL means that first, equal numbers of boys and girls must be recruited and second, there must be no more than fifty students per class. This means that they will have to open more double-shift classrooms, a measure which they do not like at all. Double-shift classes have the unintended effect of penalizing those children attending in the afternoon, since, for example, the Missira and Sogbé schools both have metal roofs and become unbearably hot for the children in the afternoon. To counteract this, the double-shift classes alternate the afternoon shift on a weekly basis. Previously, the classrooms in these two schools held between 60 and 80 students: now, such numbers will no longer be allowed. Four out of six classrooms will become double-shift classes at the beginning of the 1999 school year. Thus, applying the FQEL standard for student/teacher ratios (50 in urban areas) requires recourse to double-shift classes, which are themselves one of the elements FQELs seek to eliminate

(target percentage 0%). While these internal contradictions do not invalidate FQELs, they testify eloquently to the need to avoid applying the principles blindly as if they were mandatory regulations.

FQELs cannot be concerned solely with quantitative ratios between school resources (teachers, students, materials): they must also consider the age at which students enter and leave primary school, and they must manage enrolment levels, which are yet another FQEL concern. FQEL primary schools in which half of the students are over-age must make extra efforts to become effective. Finally, if they are to be truly adopted by communities at the grass-roots level, FQELs must be adaptable to local and regional specificities of the education system.

8.1.3 The Impact of the Sub-contracts

How can one really measure the impact of activities that are held in communities to attain FQEL objectives of making quality schools accessible to more children? A measure of caution is advised, especially if one considers that impact is the last link in a chain of results comprising activities (inputs), outputs, effects and anticipated impacts. Given this definition, it is premature to attempt to measure impacts today, after only two years of inputs (since 1997). However, one can assess the nature of the inputs and how successfully they allow the desired output to be attained.

There are two types of sub-contract activities: a) those providing inputs which translate directly into FQEL indicators; b) those providing inputs which translate indirectly into FQEL indicators. The first type includes all activities which directly modify the nature of the human, material and financial resources of a school (construction of classrooms, washrooms, and fountains; textbook supply, teacher training, etc.). The second type includes activities which affect players who are outside the school but have responsibilities related to planning, management and follow-up of what is done in the schools (training APEAE members falls under this category).

Any project focused on schools must go beyond peripheral activities: it must be anchored in school resources. Thus, the WEG and STC strategy for providing institutional support for APEAEs is a step in the right direction in that it combines financing of concrete projects (school construction or refitting of classrooms/washrooms) with financing of training for members. Similarly, PlanIG, which acts rapidly on concrete action plans proposed by local alliances (Alliances locales), is on the right track.

National NGO training and participatory activities are more difficult to define. It is a long way from the first training program activities (choosing national NGOs, recruiting personnel, training NGO community organizers and APEAE members, etc.) to ultimately bringing about significant changes in a classroom. The number of intermediaries and stages to go through is daunting and costly. How can

efficiency be increased so that effects on school resources are more immediately felt. Are there too many intermediaries? Is it truly necessary to go through national NGOs or could APEAEs be targetted directly? In all cases, efforts must be made to avoid duplication and creation of structures which are parallel to or concurrent with ones already existing in the field. It is useless to create structures which will disappear once the program ends. All of these issues must be discussed with the utmost objectivity and with the sole objective of attaining quality schooling as quickly as possible.

8.2 Community Participation

This expression is used with some flexibility, its meaning ranging from what happens in a village of 100 inhabitants, running a school through an APEAE, to the concerns of a CRD (Communauté rurale de développement) with a minimum population of 5,000. "Community participation" implies very different things in these two cases: there are many more opportunities for exchanging ideas in a group of 100 than in a group of 5,000.

One planning document (MEPU/SSP, August 1999), which groups these two meanings of "community" under the single term "collectivities", cites three sources of school construction: the government (including international donors), collectivities, and the private sector. Considering communities to be part of collectivities creates some confusion, as "collectivités territoriales" are decentralized government structures while APEAEs, like NGOs, are part of civil society.

To avoid this confusion, we must make a distinction between the narrow and broader sense of the word community. The narrow sense refers to all those persons living in a locality in which a school can represent a common interest. APEAEs are the representative structure of this grass-roots community.

The broader meaning refers to the notion of "Communauté rurale de développement" (CRD), the decentralized government structure comprising elected members and a government civil servant. The grass-roots community is represented in the CRD via its district president. The grass-roots community and the broader community interact constantly where school issues are concerned, but their respective roles must be clearly defined.

8.3 Historical Background

Community participation in the development of primary education naturally begins after the introduction of this type of education in Guinea. However, community participation in other types of child education has deeper roots which continue to thrive today.

In pre-colonial times, two main streams of thought, Islam and the older Animist religion were the transmitters of cultural and moral values among the populations living in Guinea today. Technical skills were learned on the job according to the rules and customs of the various castes, professions, trades or economic activity sectors (crafts, agriculture, farming). Acquisition of these values and technical skills was divided between the sexes according to the roles and responsibilities conferred upon each by tradition. For example, while Koranic schools were open to boys and girls, only males were allowed to progress to higher levels of learning.

With the colonial period and the arrival of Christianity, western schools were introduced, first as religious and private schools under the missionaries, and then as public and lay schools under the French administration. Generally speaking, the French public schools were set up in large urban and regional centers, recruiting students from the local elite to educate future officials of the colonial administration. Neither the Koranic schools nor the French schools served to transmit traditional technical skills, but while Koranic teaching was compatible with learning traditional trades, schools did not seem to be. By attending school, children were effectively excluded from learning trades, leaving these children to join the ranks of illiterates.

In 1997, parents of Guinean students understood the purpose of French schools to be to liberate the common people from lower trades (MEPU/CNCESE, June 1998). Up to 80% aspired to seeing their children become civil servants or ministerial officials or exercising a liberal profession requiring higher education. Fifty percent of the parents retained for the study sample were farmers, merchants, craftspeople and workers. Moreover, 35% of the parents interviewed had never attended school, and only 12% had ever been enrolled in primary school. Thus, regardless of their level of education, parents view schools as an opportunity for social advancement for their children. It is important to remember that the questionnaire was addressed to parents of students and that, if other parents had been included, different responses would no doubt have surfaced.

Koranic schools offered individual spiritual advancement while guaranteeing a sense of belonging to a common ideal. They ensured group cohesion by imparting equivalent values to the various trades. Koranic teaching continued to expand throughout the colonial period, assuming an almost natural place in all villages of Islamic influence. This type of teaching was legitimized first by the fact that it was promoted by Africans, unlike the white French schools. Moreover, it did not require costly infrastructures, foreign-trained teachers or individual educational materials. A Koranic teacher or marabout (whose level of qualification varied according to age and amount of learning), a slate and a place to sit on the ground were all that was needed to create the material conditions for a Koranic school to exist. Given such flexibility, Koranic schools were able to expand rapidly.

Today, an estimated 80% of Guinea's population is Muslim, which means that, theoretically, as many as 80% of children attend Koranic schools. Some say that attendance in Koranic schools is less assiduous in large cities, especially Conakry, but this has not been proven, and religious zeal is indifferent to place of habitation. Whatever the case, one can conclude that the method in which this form of teaching is spread allows a large portion of the population to be reached, which cannot be said of French schools.

Because of the religious beliefs involved, communities participate concretely in Koranic teaching, taking charge collectively of finding the necessary material and human resources. Marabouts make their living partly from student donations. Thus, in all villages in which Koranic teaching is practiced, there is a history of community participation in some form of education. Can the development of modern schools draw upon this substratum? As far as entrusting children to a third party in charge of ensuring their development is concerned, certainly, but much less so as far as financial and material contributions are concerned unless some inducement can be found.

French schools are much more demanding and implicitly discriminatory against the poor. Parents of students are called upon to help pay for construction of schools with walls of concrete or masonry, housing for teachers, purchase of pedagogical materials, tuition fees, etc. To make this kind of commitment to their children's schooling, they must be firmly convinced of its usefulness, which is not always immediately apparent. A farming parent from village X may well have doubts upon hearing by word of mouth that girls in village Y who went to school became pregnant there and had to drop out. As for the boys, most are expelled after spending a few years at school and then no longer want to work on the land. Such schools must be a source of concern, and unfortunately, they are in the majority.

Thus, parents must have a certain level of trust if they are to assume the costs of school construction and maintenance and pay for educational personnel who come from afar. In addition to paying regular fees, the first year parents send their child to school, they must pay approximately 55,000 FG. Most of this money pays for a table and chair (30,000 FG), so subsequent years are less costly[53]. The investments of these parents of students and friends of the school must be fully recognized by the public authorities.

8.4 The Legal Environment

The first education sector development policy letter of October 21, 1989 identifies the necessity to "...increase the participation of local communities in the

[53] Other expenses (in FG) include: vaccination card (1,000); birth certificate (1,500); textbook lease (500); APEAE fees (1 000); school clothes (7,500); book bag (5,000); slate (1,000); notebook (400); chalk, pencils and erasers (3,500); coloring pencils (1,000). For girls, the cost is some 15% higher because clothing and shoes are more expensive. (Data collected at Tamita, September 26, 1999).

maintenance and construction of primary schools..." (SINDA, 1997, p.25). Community participation in education efforts is used here in the narrow sense, limiting the role of the community to providing locally available construction materials (sand, gravel, etc.) and manual labor from the village. This level of interpretation of the local community's role in schools is still prevalent with some.

Community participation in education efforts can be active or passive, spontaneous or directed. Depending on the scope of the responsibilities identified, a community's participation can imply (or not imply) a presence at each step of the school cycle, from program design to program assessment and including physical construction of schools and management of the human, financial and material resources assigned to them.

Articles 38 and 39 of Décret 97/196/PRG/SGG (August 21, 1997) broaden the concept of community participation by stating that "...student's parents participate through their representatives in school councils, administrative councils and classroom councils" and "all physical and moral persons directly or indirectly involved in the life of teaching and training institutions have a right to be involved in the decision-making process of the operation, organization and management of these institutions." During the October 7, 1999 Symposium organized by the LSA team, it was discovered that this decree was unknown to the majority of participants.

Community participation in education efforts is also inscribed in subsection 11.6 of the September 19, 1989 Déclaration de Politique Éducative relating to administration and management of the education system. One of the objectives identified here is to "...enhance the operational capacity of grass-roots structures (APEs, NGOs) which are henceforth partners in education services." (SINDA, 1997, p .16) In this legal text, reference is made to government partners, and APEAEs are truly considered partners with the same standing as NGOs.

RECOMMENDATION 1

> School administrations should take the necessary measures to put into effect the provisions of Décret 97/196/PRG/SCG concerning the participation of student's parents in school councils. This implies that: a) school councils be set up where they do not yet exist; b) APEAE offices should delegate representatives to these councils to voice their views. More specifically, the decree should be publicized throughout school administration hierarchies, and all APEAEs should be made aware of it and use it as a reference.

The law is also very lenient regarding the creation of NGOs and various associations directly or indirectly concerned with education and community participation. The Ministère de l'Administration du Territoire et de la

Décentralisation, which oversees NGOs and organized associations, does not seem opposed to the emergence of civil society organizations. However, WEG did experience some difficulty obtaining authorization of APEAEs in the Mamou region. Since 1997, SACCO (Service d'assistance aux coopératives et à la coordination des ONG) has been in charge of follow-up in this sector. FODD and COFEG, two other coordinating organizations in this sector also play a prominent role. According to SACCO documentation and officials, there were 630 national and 75 international NGOs registered in the country in September 1999. No information was available as to how these NGOs are distributed by sector of activity, but plans are underway to make this classification available in the near future. One sector publication (EDC, November 1997) lists 8 international and 6 national NGOs operating in the education sector. Thus there is a political drive to establish a legal basis for the development of civil society organizations.

8.5 Government Partners and Community Participation

8.5.1 The "Communauté rurale de développement" (CRD)

What type of support can CRDs provide for development of quality schools in their area? They can undoubtedly contribute significantly by buying into ideas and raising citizen awareness since these decentralized government structures bridge citizen's aspirations and government prerogatives and can channel messages in both directions. However, it is less evident to what extent CRDs can contribute financially. Although CRDs (and their urban counterparts CUDs) are authorized to collect certain fees and taxes in their jurisdiction (state and local fees, market taxes, stand rentals, etc.), it is not clear that these financial resources can serve to develop educational infrastructures, especially at the primary level.

In addition to the taxes mentioned above, CRDs can collect the IMD (impôt minimum de développement) tax of 2,000 FG per person per year from all members of the active population (age 18-60). IMD revenues are allocated four ways: 50% to CRDs, 25% to the préfecture, 15% to the sous-préfecture and 10% to the district (Tamita CRD, 1998). A 1997 BACC study on decentralization showed that tax revenues reallocated to CRDs are very low and barely sufficient to cover their operating budget. Obviously, CRD financial capacities depend on the amount represented by 50% of the IMD. In regions where tax receipts from taxpayers' economic activity are high, CRDs or CUDs can play a major role in school construction, but in general, one cannot count upon CRDs for school construction. It is also generally said that by tacit agreement, CRDs reserve their support for secondary schools while district offices take charge of primary schools. The LSA team was unable to verify this division of responsibilities.

By way of example, in 1997, the Tamita sous-préfecture CRD "completed" two classrooms at a cost of 2 million FG, the only educational investment made by this structure since its founding in 1990. This sous-préfecture has 6 schools, all of which are public and none of which are financed by the CRD. Between 1998 and

1999, the CRD spent 2.1 million FG on operating costs (office, president's salary, etc.) out of a total revenue of 4.2 million FG, with another 2.1 million FG being transferred to Boffa préfecture on the Préfet's request to help finance public utility works. Therefore, the CRD did not have an investment budget and did not undertake any infrastructure work. This CRD does not currently pay for any educational personnel but plans to pay 40,000 FG monthly for the leader of a planned NAFA center (for which funding for construction is now being sought). Despite this low level of financing, this sous-préfecture is not even considered to be situated in a poverty area.

UNICEF has developed a valuable partnership between government and CRD/CUDs by establishing NAFA centers. Several players share responsibility of this education program for girls who have not had the opportunity for formal schooling. For example, in Dubréka, a community facility constructed with Canadian aid is furnished and supplied by UNICEF. The government (MEPU) is responsible for the main NAFA center community organizer (a teacher) while the commune pays for other community organizers and monitors. This model of pooling resources is unquestionably an example to follow.

Community participation in CRDs is far from voluntary since IMD contributions are paid unwillingly, as all taxes are. Moreover, although CRDs have an elected component reflecting grass-roots democratic participation, they are also headed by a government-appointed civil servant (the secretary) who is at the center of all decision-making. This creates a double allegiance structure incorporating all the problems that typify this type of organization.

Nonetheless, CRDs are strategic partners for delivering educational services in villages, as they are the political structure that links the grass-roots level of Guinean society to the tip of the pyramid.

RECOMMENDATION 2

CRD/CUDs should be involved in all activities aimed at developing quality schools. To increase this structure's participation in education efforts, elected officials must be made more aware of FQEL issues. Moreover, the importance of allocating a part of CRD/CUD resources to education must be regularly reaffirmed.

8.5.2 APEAEs

APEAEs, the government's foremost partner in educational matters, were created by state authority. These parent associations were created by ministerial directive. An August 23, 1986 MEN memo orders all préfets, Academy inspectors and prefectoral education directors to take the necessary steps to legally constitute APEAEs. In creating APEAEs, school administration officials were asked to: a) develop the association's statutes, b) hold association office elections, c) send the statutes and the list of office members to the Ministre de

l'intérieur et de la décentralisation for approval. The draft statute that accompanied the directive named school principals as general secretaries of the APEAE. Even today, 40% of school principals still feel that they are to lead and direct the APEAEs (MEPU/CNCESE, June 1998). APEAEs are comprised of all parents and friends of the school united around one school. Thus, in theory, every school has its own APEAE. As proposed by the 1986 MEN memo, each APEAE must hold an annual general meeting where representatives are elected to form the APEAE office. The memo suggests that 8 individuals be chosen to occupy office positions: president, vice-president, treasurer, general secretary, assistant secretary, organizational secretary and 2 other secretaries. According to CNCESE's survey, only 24% of APEAE office positions are occupied by women.

CNCESE's 1995 study revealed that 29% (761/2,597) of APEAEs had statutes. In 1997, World Éducation conducted a study of 133 schools in the Mamou region and found only one APEAE that was actually operating under statutes. Extrapolating to the national level, this translates to less than 1%, which means that the 1986 directive created a structure operating formally in a vacuum in the majority of cases. Such a top-down model should probably not be retained in a community participation context. Moreover, naming the school principal as the key person in this structure leaves much to be desired: school administrations are no substitute for the community. Ideally, the school principal is given a mandate by school administration, with community support to take local realities into account. Under such a division of responsibilities, the school principal should be accountable to these two referents, that is, to administrative superiors and to the APEAE.

The new textbook policy now being implemented in each school makes provision for a textbook management committee supervised by the APEAE and jointly comprised of APEAE members, the school principal (in an advisory capacity), teachers and students. This creates yet another committee for managing a specific aspect of school life. Are such single-function committees justifiable? Should a new committee be created every time some aspect of school life is brought into focus? It is said that textbook management should not be left to APEAEs because they are not fully operational and because they are under the direction of school principals whose management practices are not always transparent. To avoid placing textbook management under school principals' control (as exercised through APEAEs) new committees were opted for in which principals played only an advisory role. These committees could be eliminated if principals were not given the position of APEAE secretary. For these structures to become autonomous, school principals should simply cease to be nominated to the secretary positions. Instead, they should play an advisory role in APEAEs, rather than on new textbook management committees.

When asked about the importance of having school principals in APEAEs, representatives of the PlanIG-driven Alliance local reported[54] the following. At the beginning of each school year, school principals call an APEAE meeting to collect fees. Of the 1,000 FG paid by each student's parents, 500 FG go to the school for students' recreational activities (sports, etc.) The other 500 FG are used by the APEAE for other school needs. This is felt to be reasonable, yet dividing APEAE fees in this way between the principal and the parents' representative structure does not truly promote parents' empowerment. Is there any reason why parents should not themselves determine allocation of all fees?

There are two extremes of APEAE empowerment: at one end of the scale are the fully autonomous APEAEs set up through STC in the Mandiana region; at the other extreme are APEAEs like those of two Kankan center schools, whose members go to the school whenever the principal summons them to receive directives. Other APEAEs vary between these two extremes depending largely on the individual school principals, some of whom are more in tune with community expectations than others. In any case, completely autonomous APEAEs constitute a tiny minority, yet their very existence confirms that this type of model can work.

The October 7, 1999 Symposium revealed parents' lack of trust towards APEAEs, which often do no more than collect funds that end up "who knows where". Several participants stated that the lack of trust was due to the fact that school principals (at least many of them) do not feel accountable for use of funding. If APEAEs are to have credibility, they must be controlled by students' parents and friends of the school. During the workshop on community participation, the need to include friends of the school in APEAEs was strongly emphasized, as schools are the ownership of the whole community, not just of parents of students.

The division of power between government and society must be concretely reflected in APEAEs by assigning school principals an advisory role in these structures, which will then become truly autonomous and can regain the community's trust. Once APEAEs have been restructured to be run exclusively by parents (and friends of the school), steps should be taken to ensure that the school council serves as a concertation structure between school principals, APEAE representatives, teacher representatives (where applicable), the district president and possibly a CRD representative.

No administrative measure can turn APEAEs which are dependent on school administrations into autonomous structures, true partners of society, overnight. A *transition period* is required for APEAEs to develop new behaviors, especially for those APEAE members who must learn to assume their responsibilities fully. One specific problem to address is the 44% illiteracy rate among APEAE office

[54] This Information was obtained by the mission during a focus group meeting with members of the Alliance locale of Tamia sous préfecture on September 26, 1999.

members. In June 1999, WEG attempted to work directly with level 2 APEAE offices to enable them to train grass-roots APEAE trainers. However, upon realizing that members of prefectural APEAE offices were not qualified, WEG called upon two national NGOs (Solidarité and ADEG) to provide the training, which was also delivered to a community organizer chosen from each grass-roots APEAE. Training community organizers within the APEAE structure seems to be an effective strategy, but the question remains whether it is necessary to go through national NGOs.

WEG's plan to hold new elections in 134 APEAE offices represents only a fraction (3.4%) of what needs to be done overall in Guinea (3,906 schools between 1998 and 1999). The basic problem lies with school principals who have become accustomed to managing APEAE offices. The only way they can change their behaviors and participate in transferring responsibilities to APEAEs is by becoming aware of the respective tasks of APEAEs and school councils. *A huge amount of work is needed to make school principals aware of these issues.* If the transfer is to be completed successfully, school principals must buy into the operation. They must become development agents of these autonomous APEAEs. A project focussing on detaching school principals from APEAE offices and putting them in charge of school councils is undoubtedly the only way to ensure community appropriation of schools in the long term. The three NGOs currently working in this area (PlanIG, WEG and STC) should integrate into their strategies a specific component to reorient school principals to become development agents.

RECOMMENDATION 3

Every possible effort should be made to make APEAEs truly autonomous and independent of school administrations by: a) discontinuing the practice of making school principals the general secretaries of APEAEs; b) giving APEAE offices sole jurisdiction over allocation of members' fees; c) placing textbook management under the effective responsibility of APEAEs and ensuring that use of financial resources from textbook leasing is decided by APEAEs in concertation with school principals through the school council; d) heightening school principals' awareness of their role as development agents in rendering APEAE structures independent.

8.5.3 Fédération Guinéen des Parents d'Éleves et Amis de l'École (FEGUIPEAE)

FEGUIPEAE (Fédération des APEAE), which has NGO status, was founded on September 10, 1998 following completion of the APEA assessment exercise conducted by CNCESE. Observing the "almost total lack of APEAE coordination structures in Guinea", the authors of this study recommended specifically that local, regional and national coordination structures be developed (MEPU/CNCESE, June 1998 p.108). Rapidly creating such a federation when

the components on which it is based (local and regional APEAEs) are not yet fully operational is typical of a "top-down" vision of social restructuring.

Created in response to the need to send national representatives to the Séminaire de la Fédération des associations de parents d'élèves et étudiants, organized by the World Bank in Paris, September 15 and 17, 1998, FEGUIPEAE was formed in violation of the basic community participation principles for which it was meant to stand. It is doubtful that such a structure can last since it is not the product of endogenously expressed wishes and impulses. To function daily and develop, this federation needs resources which, optimally, will come from outside sources (now being actively sought). It must also be legitimized internally, for which efforts are being made in all eight regions. If it fails to attract the true adhesion of the communities which feed grass-roots APEAEs, FEGUIPEAE is certainly doomed to failure. The challenge is therefore to link the two components of parents' representative structures through intermediate structures.

According to information obtained during the October 7, 1999 Symposium, intermediate APEAE structures already existed at the préfecture and sous-préfectures levels at the time of the CNCESE assessment. In certain regions such as Mamou, these intermediate offices were effective (according to one of its members). Overall, however, CNCESE's observations are valid nation-wide. WEG found that new elections should be held in all Mamou region offices for grass-roots participation to have meaning.

FEGUIPEAE must articulate its mandate clearly. It is not a development association like all others seeking project financing, yet it acts as if it were in proposing a project for "education for girls" (IIPE/ADEA, September 1998) in a primary school in the Kounna sector of the district of Mindia (Télimélé préfecture , Kindia region). In the introduction to the project, FEGUIPEAE is cited as the project initiator in close collaboration with the regional coordination structures of Kindia's APE and MEPU. This may be well and good, but this plan does not mention the APEAE of the school targetted by the project. Has any thought been given to putting the school's APEAE office in charge of managing such a project?

RECOMMENDATION 4

FEGUIPEAE should support the grass-roots APEAE empowerment process bychanneling to these structures, as appropriate, a portion of the funds obtained outside the country.

8.5.4 Teachers' Unions

Two teachers unions, SLECG and FSPE could play a role in developing quality schools: until now, this role has been very minor.

SLEG, working with INRAP helped design a comic strip on citizenship aimed at students in the fifth and sixth grades. This comic strip, whose content focuses on democratic principles, success in school and acknowledgement of women's rights, was published in very limited edition (some fifty copies), and was therefore not widely distributed, despite the relevance of its content in the framework of the FQEL project. Part of the problem was poor color printing quality. This initiative, which was financed with the help of Canadian aid (CECI/ACDI) remained without follow-up.

There is no information available on FSPE activities promoting quality education.

Proposals have been made to establish a school principals' association. While there is some opposition to creation of a new pressure group, such an initiative could be a valuable asset for quality education provided that corporate demands are not its only concern.

8.5.5 Private Promoters

Community participation is not limited to public schools. Communities could well organize to foster development of private schools, even though this might seem paradoxical given that communities are, by definition, public. We refer here to the notion of collective ownership as promoted by the cooperative movement. A cooperative is a group of persons united around some private property of which they (and not the government) are the owners. Schools established jointly by government and cooperatives can be considered joint ventures or private, government-funded schools.

In October 1984, Guinea's government passed an ordinance giving status to private schools. Since then, these schools have developed rapidly thanks to religious communities and wealthy individuals. However, private school promoters need not necessarily be wealthy. The government can be instrumental in facilitating access to credit for moderate income persons or groups wishing to devote their skills and energy to setting up a school. Conversely, a group of persons from the community could wish to develop a school for profit. Given the strong demand for primary education, as exemplified by the willingness of government, hometown associations and others to invest in school construction even when there are no teachers, the time seems right to seriously examine the possibility of liberalizing the sector, which means offering individual and collective private promoters the financial resources (preferential rate loans) that will enable them to implement their projects. The government's role would of course be to standardize the system by demanding that FQELs be applied. To this end, MEPU-EC must have the means to follow up on private sector development without, however, blocking it.

RECOMMENDATION 5

Guinea's government and international donors should examine the possibility of

setting up a line of credit with a preferential interest rate for private and community promoters of primary education through the Banque centrale or a reputable commercial bank with the objective of supporting civil society investment in the sector. A feasibility study on such a fund should be conducted as soon as possible, detailing modalities of operation.

8.6 The Approach of International NGOs

8.6.1 Plan International Guinée

The PlanIG approach adopted for implementing the FQEL education for girls project is based on a "spreading of ideas" method tested elsewhere, in Latin America and Africa. It involves setting up a group of opinion leaders on a national scale and then launching an awareness campaign throughout the country. PlanIG used this technique, adding a round of consultation at the grass-roots level.

In December 1997, PlanIG identified 150 persons at the central level who would play a key role in implementing their FQEL education for girls project. Out of this group, called the "Alliance Nationale", 30 were chosen, 12 of whom were asked to be part of a national task force which today numbers six permanent volunteer members remunerated only for travel expenses. These members represent the private sector, the media, the Equity Committee (created by a previous USAID project) and civil society. The capacity of this structure to reach the grass-roots level was called into question, and a new process was started, this time from the bottom up.

In January 1998, PlanIG recruited and trained 8 Association des animateurs communautaires de Guinée (AACG) community organizers who were joined by 16 educational promoters (former employees and delegates of the Equity Committee who were still active in the sector). A consultation campaign was launched in 18 of the country's préfectures. For one week, hearings were held with some 60 opinion leaders representing the active stakeholders in the sector. These hearings were held in national languages and videotaped for review in the following months. During restitution of the hearings, it was agreed that 60 members were too many for optimal efficiency, and the group was reduced to 15 members, called the Alliance locale. PlanIG then began discussing preparation of an action plan. The whole campaign lasted 9 months (February-October 1998).

Currently, PlanIG thus relies upon two associations bearing the same name but resulting from two completely different processes. The Alliance nationale is in no way a legitimate representative of the Alliances locales. The two structures are completely separate. If Alliances locales were to regroup themselves into a national federation, they might well evolve towards a form of representation very different from the Alliance nationale. PlanIG plans to hold a general meeting in November 1999 at which an attempt will be made to link the two structures.

The PlanIG method can wield considerable leverage as it involves a minimum of infrastructure costs while maximizing communication and training. Another interesting aspect is the fact that it brings together in one discussion forum (the Alliances locales) both traditional authorities and community organizers promoting new educational ideas.

RECOMMENDATION 6

The PlanIG approach for spreading ideas and implementing projects which promote equitable schools should be closely examined by the various partners. Given its advantages (low costs, powerful leverage) this model should receive significant support. It might well represent an important step towards more effective schools.

8.6.2 The WEG Approach

A mid-term evaluation (World Éducation, May 1999) of the WEG pilot project in the Mamou region revealed the benefits of this approach and concluded that it is the best one to target. The evaluation report suggested continuing the project for a second five-year phase.

The recommendation was based on the following reasoning. International NGOs must support intermediate level Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), which in turn have the task of developing first-level OSCs. In this way, intermediate OSCs can be both a means and an end, that is, a means to develop APEAEs and an end in themselves in that they contribute to the development of civil society. Given this interpretation, it is valid for a project whose objective is to promote "an increase in the number of children attending quality schools on an equitable basis" to allocate a part of its resources to the development of intermediate NGOs which do not necessarily have an educational vocation. These NGOs could fold upon completion of the project or continue to operate in another sector of activity without adverse effect, as they would have contributed during their existence to attaining the strategic governance objective which forms part of USAID's overall action plan for Guinea. This view of the situation was implicitly sanctioned by USAID/Guinée since representatives of both teams (SO4 and SO3) participated in the mid-term evaluation. Not having been able to find NGO partners operating in the education sector, WEG was forced to choose the best of those operating in other sectors, despite the fact that the FQEL project document specifies that NGOs are to be "education sector NGOs."

Stricter interpretation of FQEL project funding allocation would reveal the risk of justifying, after the fact, any expenditures which are not directly in line with the project objective. The objective is not to develop civil society organizations in general but to use the support of these organizations to increase the number of Guinean children who can go to quality schools. Use of NGOs which do not have an educational orientation or do not intend to specialize in this area should be seriously called into question.

Choosing hometown associations rather than "classic" NGOs not rooted in localities was a key element of the strategy. Of the 9 intermediate NGOs, WEG chose 6 hometown associations and helped them to set up local offices. The authors of the mid-term evaluation applauded this initiative, saying that selecting hometown associations and asking that "their headquarters be relocated into the Mamou region" was a major contributor to the successes recorded (WEG, May 1999). However, a different view can be taken of this.

By definition, hometown associations exist outside their place of origin, resulting as they do from the common will of people who have left their village or region to come to the aid of families who still live there. The idea of having a local office is inconsistent with these associations. For example, the Tangan Maoundé hometown association (Masi sous-préfecture in Pita préfecture), which has chapters in Conakry, Senegal, Côte d'Ivoire and Sierra Leone was responsible for building six classrooms (for which only two teachers were found). The association does not have an office in Tangan Maoundé, so it implements development projects in the district by utilizing whatever means are at its disposal, whether it be a retired member from Conakry or some other member with sufficient free time who returns to the village and supervises the project or even a local villager who is given this task. The main objective is to ensure informally (but in a very real manner) that resources sent to the village are used responsibly.

Does a new office need to be created to channel these funds? Who will assume the costs of such an office once NGO or other donor assistance runs out? Will hometown association members want to pay the cost of an office (permanent staff, supplies, housing, transportation) from their personal contributions? Probably not, although several scenarios are possible. For example, if the hometown association were part of a larger development association and therefore able to obtain funding elsewhere, having a local office might not pose a problem. On the other hand, a local office funded only by hometown association fees is relatively hypothetical. Hometown associations must certainly be called upon to support APEAEs, but this does not mean helping them create local structures. It would probably be more advantageous to work directly with APEAEs provided that these are truly controlled by the community.

RECOMMENDATION 7

NGOs should work with hometown associations to examine closely the possibility of co-financing projects targetting effective schools. Such financing should be part of the institutional strengthening of APEAEs.

What are the alternatives to the WEG approach? Is it possible to work directly with APEAEs? The NGOs selected by WEG had no permanent staffing and had to recruit their community organizers at large. However, other recruitment scenarios could have been envisioned, such as: a) choosing APEAE representatives; b) forming a provisional, second-level (commune) office with them; c) recruiting community organizers from the educational environment who would become APEAE employees and trainers; e) continuing to broaden and build APEAE structures on this model on the assumption that the community organizers could become permanent educational community organizers or counselors.

Thus, instead of working for a national NGO, community organizers paid by international NGOs work directly for the level 2 APEAE office (commune or communauté rurale). Members of intermediate APEAE offices thus have direct control over managing the activities of these community organizers. These, in turn have a double task of providing management training to members of intermediate APEAE offices and training local community organizers who will eventually be able to replace them.

In its new activity program in the Pita region, WEG has already begun to take a more direct approach, working directly with level 2 APEAEs without going through intermediary NGOs. According to our information, WEG community organizers train members of prefectural APEAE offices who, in turn, act at the grass-roots APEAE level. This cascading training formula aimed directly at the APEAE structure seems to be the right approach to take.

8.6.3 The Save the Children Approach

STC's approach focusses on Community schools (ECOMs). Over a 2-year period, STC planned to establish 20 community schools (each with its own APEAE) and develop a NGO education consortium. The first part of the mandate is well underway, while the NGO consortium is much less developed.

In early October, a visiting LSA team member found that 18 schools were operational with two more to become operational in November 1999. The government has assigned 20 (contractual) teachers to Mandiana ECOMs for the beginning of the school year in October 1999. The first four teachers, hired in 1997, were recruited and paid by the village community. Over the past school year, 2/5 villages were still paying their teachers' salaries: Kangbèla (50,000 FG/month) and Kolomogo (95,000 FG/month). In the 3 other villages (Sountoudiana, Filanidialakoro, and Bananfra) government-paid teachers receive

80,000 FG/month. In these 5 project partner villages in which schools proved effective, the community provided room and board free of charge for all teachers. For contractual teachers earning 80,000 FG/month in the city but having to pay room and board, the community's contribution provides significant incentive.

STC's greatest innovation is in setting up truly autonomous APEAEs which are not controlled by school principals. Historically, APEAEs exist prior to the school's opening, and teachers are effectively APEAE employees. Only when there are two teachers in the same school does the problem of school principals arise. ECOMs have reached this point and found a successful solution. The future principal (one of the two teachers) is considered to be an APEAE employee, even though the salary is paid by the government. School councils do not yet exist but according to this APEAE development model, school principals and teachers can be involved in concertation (school councils) while still being considered APEAE employees and advisors.

The mechanism for setting up APEAEs as it was explained to us during a visit to the village of Sountoudiana, is fairly similar in the other villages. Two villages, Soundtoudiana and Diassa, form Sountoudiana district, whose district office has seven elected members. This is the first level of territorial administration above sectors or villages, which constitute the grass-roots level. Three of these members are part of the Soutoundiana school APEAE office. The district office president's assistant is also head of the APEAE office. This illustrates the close tie between the village governance structure and delegation of control to a school committee called APEAE. The village (as well as the district) is present in the APEAE and assumes responsibility for it, as clearly shown by the way in which the entire village participates in school construction and maintenance. Similarly, desks and chairs are the responsibility of the whole community rather than of individual student's parents, as is the case in Tamita, where parents risk having their children refused admission if they do not comply.

STC has laid the groundwork for developing an educational NGO consortium to take over from it in other areas by signing agreements with three national NGOs (ADIC, AJVD and Batè-Sabati). None of these specializes in education, although ADIC has been associated with school construction projects in the past. Each of these NGOs has a community organizer recruited for the STC project who works with STC's team of leaders. Together, the 4 STC and 3 NGO community organizers plan fieldtrips, activity programs, school construction and training under the guidance of the STC Mandiana office. The AJVD NGO community organizer, who is based in Siguiri, is very difficult to contact because of communication difficulties between the two cities. Under these conditions, there may be reason to review the relevance of having three community organizers who the contract specifies must be national NGO employees though they effectively work within the STC team.

RECOMMENDATION 8

The relevance of allocating financial resources to the development of NGOs which do not specialize in education and do not have an organizational base in the intervention areas should be re-examined in light of the objectives set for the FQEL project. Such re-examination should be completed before contribution agreements or contracts with the three international NGOs (WEG, STC and PlanIG) are renewed. Alternative avenues for developing the educational capacities of Guinea's civil society should be explored, notably by making financial resources at preferential rates available to private and community players and/or by promoting a national support office for strengthening APEAEs.

8.6.4 Community Participation in School Costs

Review of various sub-projects (especially those of WEG and STC) and other experiments has shown that communities do effectively participate in various school-related costs. In the case of school construction, their contribution can be either total, with many schools being built entirely by the community (often with the aid of their hometown association), or partial, as in those cases in which communities contribute between 20% and 30% of the total cost of the school. Mandiana's ECOMs, with three classrooms and six washrooms, cost STC an average 13 million FG, with the community contributing 3 million FG. In certain cases, communities were able to raise the equivalent of 7 million FG for school construction in their area (Mandiana). These figures are approximate, as the true value of contributions "in kind" by the community is not invoiced. What is certain, however, is that communities have the will and the established (or rapidly establishable) capacity to contribute to school infrastructure development. One of the obstacles to expansion of these initiatives can be traced to the "school map", i.e., civil servants who refuse to consider schools in areas of less than 1,500 people. The LSA team was unable to explore this issue more fully. What is clear, however, is that the government must set school infrastructure development standards and parameters to avoid total disarray in the sector. On the other hand, it is not valid to hinder the development of schools whose goal is to provide access for the 50% of Guinean children who are excluded under the current system.

STCs experiences in Mandiana show clearly that grass-roots communities, even those in poverty areas, can absorb the cost of teachers' salaries (between 50,000 FG and 95,000 FG per month). Teachers' room and board are also paid by the community, a practice which actually seems to be widespread in rural areas: a teacher who is willing to come into a community is provided room and board free of charge. There are many cases, such as NAFA centers, where monitors or community organizers are paid by the CRD/CUD. Thus, communities participate in paying teachers' salaries at the district and CRD levels. Should this practice be encouraged? Does it offer a solution to the government budgetary limitations on teachers' salaries? The answer is of course yes, but at the same time, school administrations must recognize that teachers and their programs must be

accountable to the alternative funding sources that pay them. Decentralizing education services can mean that part of the cost of these services is absorbed by communities. It can also mean that communities gain the right to control what they pay for, that is, programs and timetables.

8.6.5 Community Participation and Literacy

CNCESE's study revealed that 44% of APEAE office members (at the grass-roots level) were illiterate[55]. WEG and Save the children conduct literacy campaigns in grass-roots communities, targetting mainly illiterate APEAE members. The first step is a basic, two-component, reading and arithmetic module lasting 45 days in a single literacy campaign from December to May. Post-literacy training is planned for these first-time participants, though not formally. The NGOs are assisted in this work by MEPU-EC's Service national de l'alphabétisation (SNA) through regional satellite offices. SNA provides booklets in 9 national languages, while some 40 NGOs currently conduct literacy programs in Guinea. This type of literacy training must be considered a first step to be consolidated by a long-term post-literacy program, otherwise the progress made in the first 45 days will be rapidly lost.

SNA reports that adults who receive literacy training in their first language express a desire to learn French so as to be able to communicate with administration (and, no doubt, with their children, who are educated exclusively in French). For this reason, several projects have a French post-literacy component for participants who have passed the first level. Post-literacy can take a long time: participants must read every day to avoid reverting to illiteracy. It is fortunate that French is offered so that these adults can learn to cope in a world of signs written in French.

Let us recall that, after 16 years of education in national languages (1968-1984), Guinea opted for French as the only language of instruction. Learning French enables all Guineans to communicate with each other and constitutes a veritable duty of citizenship. However, one must ask whether all references to national or first languages should be definitively eliminated from early learning in the formal education system, especially if it technically facilitates child learning. It is difficult to learn to distinguish letters and sounds in one's native language, and even more so in a second language. Effective schools are those in which children are faced with the fewest number of obstacles to the learning process. Several countries have adopted approaches which favor the use of the native language in grades one and two, with the transition to the official language made later. This option should not be rejected out of hand.

Providing literacy training to adults in their national language while educating children in French creates a lack of consistency between the two levels of education. It also makes children suspicious of the worth of their native

[55] This two-year study, which spanned all 8 regions, included : 620 parents of students, 124 APEAE members, 124 school principals and 372 local partners.

language. The resulting generational difference does not foster mutual understanding between children and parents. Providing education in French and literacy training in national languages creates an intergenerational communication problem.

Without loosing sight of the benefits of a common language, one can argue that it is not contradictory to attain such benefits through first language education in the early years. The costs associated with such a process are huge and require many adjustments. However, Guinea cannot afford to avoid the costs of a national consultation on this issue, as it is latently present in the minds of many.

RECOMMENDATION 9

The pedagogical relevance of teaching first languages in the first two years of school should be very closely examined, and cost should not be a limiting factor.

8.7 Conclusions

From the government's viewpoint, community participation in education efforts in the broad sense presents a major challenge. Government cannot undertake to promote a desire for education among the population, without also ensuring the means to meet the demand. This requires political orientation, procedural flexibility, openness to alternative models and, in several cases, changing the attitudes of education professionals (administrators and educators).

The problem of community participation is how to reconcile the standards and objectives set by government planners with the educational aspirations and expectations of grass-roots communities. For school administrations, the challenge is how to avoid imposing directives from outside while ensuring that quality standards are met.

School administrations must play the role of facilitators in enforcing political orientations and legal measures for full and total community participation in education efforts. To this end, community participation in education efforts must be interpreted *in its broadest sense of design, planning, execution, management and follow-up according to a pro-active approach based on local resources.*

No externally imposed model, no matter how relevant, can be applied directly in a new context. Such models may serve as points of reference, but it is always preferable to reset the dial to zero and make a fresh start.

8.8 Recommendations

70. School administrations should take the necessary measures to put into practice the dispositions of the Decree 97/196/PR/SGG, pertaining to the

participation of students' parents in the school councils (**ST**).[56] This implies that: a) the school councils must be set up where there are none and, b) the offices of the APEAE will delegate representatives to the school councils to promote their opinions (**MT**). In particular, this decree should be diffused through the hierarchy of the school administration and all the APEAEs should be informed of it and use it as a reference (**ST**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GdG*

71. The CRD/CUD must be associated to all activity aiming at the setting up of quality education (**LT**). To increase the participation of this structure in the effort toward education, the sensitization of all the representatives to the FQEL problematic must be undertaken (**MT**). Also the importance of attributing a part of their resources to education must be systematically reaffirmed (**MT**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GcG, USAID/Guinée*

72. Take measures to render APEAEs truly autonomous and independent from the school administration (**LT**). For this to be possible: a) the school principal must not be appointed general secretary of the APEAE (**MT**); b) the member's contributions must be managed entirely by the APEAE Office (**MT**); c) the management of school textbooks must be the effective responsibility of the APEAE, in addition, the utilization of financial resources coming from school book leasing be under the control of the APEAE, in consultation with the school principal through the school council (**MT**); d) school principals must be sensitized to their role as development agents of the independent APEAE structures (**MT**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GdG, National donors, NGO partners (WEG, STC, etc.)*

73. FEGUIPEAE should support the process of heightening APEAE responsibility by channeling funds gathered abroad to these structures when the need arises (**MT**). *Action: FEGUIPEAE*

74. The Guinean government and international donors should examine the opportunity of setting up a line of credit with a preferential interest rate to offer to private and community developers of primary education. This should be done through the Central Bank or a reputable commercial bank, and it should favor the financial involvement of the sector's civil society. A feasibility study of such a fund should be conducted as soon as possible, specifying its operational modalities (**ST**). *Action: USAID/Guinée, GdG, International donors*

75. That the approach favored by Plan International for the diffusion of ideas and the realization of projects in favor of equal opportunity schools be closely examined by the different partners. The advantages of this model

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[56] Short term (**ST**): 0-1 year;
Medium term (**MT**): 1-3 years;
Long term (**LT**): 4 years and over.

(low costs, high leveling effect) should receive considerable support and lead to efficient schools (**MT**). *Action: USAID/Guinée, NGO partners*

76. That the NGOs working with the expatriates association seriously consider the possibility of co-financing for the projects aiming at an efficient school and this financing contribute to the institutional strengthening of the APEAEs (**MT**). *Action: NGO partners (WEG, STC, etc.)*

77. The relevance of investing financial resources in the development of NGOs not specialized in education and having no organizational base in the intervention zones should be reexamined in the light of the objectives of the FQEL project (**ST**). This inquiry should be completed before the renewal of the contribution agreements (or contracts) with the three international NGOs (WEG, STC, and PlanIG) (**ST**). Alternative strategies for developing Guinean civil society in terms of education should be examined, in particular by making financial resources at a preferential rate available to private and community partners and/or by supporting a national support office to strengthen APEAEs (**MT**). *Action: USAID/Guinée and NGO partners.*

78. The pedagogical relevance of using first languages as the language of instruction in the first two years of schooling should be very closely examined. Costs should not be a limiting factor (**MT/LT**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GdG*

9 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 General Conclusions

We began this study by a review of reforms undertaken under the auspices of the program PASE I. We arrived at the conclusion that PASE II which is grounded in the FQEL (Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels) was an excellent starting point. PASE I was identified as the program that deals with access to schooling, whereas PASE II focuses primarily on the quality of education.

A lot of work remains to be done before reaching the target of the quality school in Guinea. In terms of internal efficiency, primary education has suffered a set-back since 1993. Presently an average of 20 students-years is required to produce one single graduate of the first cycle. A great majority of students are doomed to failure and are expelled from the system before having been made completely literate (i.e., having completed the fourth year). Clearly the function of primary education is not to produce illiterates, but rather graduates who could proceed to secondary schools, or at least, find a useful occupation at the end of the first cycle. What then are the reasons that explain this grave situation of primary education in Guinea?

Our first answer is pessimistic: the input of a high level of financial resources, the system has made little improvement. Public and private spending, which each comes to about 30,000 FG per student, is not negligible. In addition, there is international support that provides about $75 per student, even though it is impossible to estimate what fraction of that sum actually arrives at the schools.

Our second answer is more positive. After having identified the weaknesses in management and follow-up in the system, we agree with the analysis presented in almost all the programs and projects since 1989—that it is necessary to reinforce the MEPU-EC administrative structures. Notable progress has been made in that domain but plenty remains to be done.

Our third answer seems to us to be the most important one because it pertains to the behavior of public servants in education. It is our opinion that the main reason for the failure of so many schools lies above all in the unwillingness to pass over the control of resources to the schools. As long as the performance of the system's employees has no repercussions on their salaries or careers, schools will continue to suffer. All the decentralization policies admit so much: only a true decentralization of resources and power towards the "lower" levels in the hierarchy can guarantee impact on the lowest level where we find the school. Since decentralization is already part of the law and of the country's institutions, we believe that it is possible to apply it on the level of schooling.

Seen from this angle (meaning that of true decentralization), many problems that affect the school today could be solved. A responsible and autonomous school does not wait for the Ministry to send off school manuals: it gets organized to get

them. An autonomous and responsible principal can lay off or penalize an under-performing teacher. The principal should be given responsibility and the capacity of applying quality standards. S/he should also be put under the control of the community to which the school belongs. The principal should be responsible for school success. A school that produces an inordinate number of "drop-outs", as opposed to graduates should loose its clientele and the Ministry's financial backing. The concept of value for money should not be absent from primary education.

There is hope. PASE II aims primarily at the quality of the school rather than its accessibility. The FQEL are a decisive turning point for the system because they compel everyone to reflect on the real function of the school. It is no longer enough to crowd the children into classrooms. Effort is now made to direct resources at school quality like ensuring the proper ratio between student and teacher, students and classrooms; that there are trained teachers, and that students have school manuals in their hands. Everything indicates that school quality is now the key driving concept of the reform. There is now will to concentrate the efforts on a sound management of the education system in all its aspects: financing, personnel allocation, follow up, research and evaluation.

But there are disturbing differences between talk and action. The interventions almost always support the system proper. The needs were defined and the solutions applied in a centralized manner even if it is "deconcentrated". The effect has been that the resources vanish in the deficiencies and bureaucratic bottlenecks of the system before even arriving at the school, and such dismal performance clearly has no effect on those individuals "responsible".

To be effective a school essentially needs to have these three elements: a classroom, a teacher, and books. These elements are indispensable and interdependent. A trained teacher who has no books is powerless. A classroom where it is not possible to learn is but a wasted investment. If any one of the three elements is absent, the school becomes inefficient. This is unfortunately the case with most Guinean schools.

The educational system does at times provide all three of the essential elements, but it does so in an irregular, incomplete, and incoherent manner. The result is a system of schools which accommodates a lot of young people but does not often have the desired impact.

From the point of view of the State apparatus, the community's participation in the effort to expand education, taken in its broader sense, poses a challenge. As a matter of fact, in accepting to create a demand for education at the grass-roots level, the authorities should also have the means to act on that demand. That implies a political will, a procedural flexibility, openness to alternative models, and, in most cases, a change of mentality among the educational staff (administrators and teachers).

School administration should act as a facilitator in applying the political will and the provisions of the law in favor of full and total community participation in the effort to expand education. That is why community participation in expanding education should be understood in the broadest possible sense (concept, planning, performance, management, and follow up) and follow a pro-active approach which values the community's resources.

9.2 General Recommendation: Focus on Impact Rather Than Inputs

1. We recommend that the FQEL be maintained as the long-term planning objectives but that short-term planning efforts, support and research be oriented toward the impact of inputs rather than the inputs themselves. This means promoting any activity that increases the desired impact and seriously questioning any activity that does not contribute to this impact.

9.3 Specific Recommendations Concerning True Decentralization

2. We recommend that the decision-making power and the material and human resources required for a class of students to succeed be available to the school and its principal and controlled by the community to which the school belongs; that the principal be accountable, be able to implement quality standards, and be held responsible for academic success in his school.

3. That the duties and responsibilities of centralized institutions be separated from local (decentralized) ones. At each level, there should be an independent monitoring and evaluation circuit. A first communication, follow-up and evaluation circuit should cover the flow of resources between the Ministry and the prefectures. A second communication, follow-up and evaluation circuit should cover the flow of resources between the prefecture and the school. The results of the evaluations should be published at the end of each school term.

4. That to identify priorities and follow-up, the decentralized level report to the representatives of civil society, e.g. the APEAEs. The Prefecture and school principal should submit written accounts to the APEAE every school term on resource allocation, reception and use (teachers, training, construction and repairs, furnishings, books and teaching materials, etc.).

5. The communities must gradually take over decision-making at an appropriate level, participate in funding, carry out and evaluate activities and especially control the resources for ensuring that the school becomes effective. The APEAEs must debate and periodically approve (at least once a year) all matters related to resource use by their schools.

9.4 Public Institutions: Establish Bases for Sustainable Development

6. That consultation and cooperation be strengthened (a) between central and decentralized levels, (b) between MEPU-EC and international donors, and (c) between donors and peripheral actors such as NGOs. The consultation mechanisms can be those of PASE I, but adapted for a true decentralization of power and resources.

7. That efficiency and realism in strategic planning be strengthened, especially through improved follow-up, monitoring and evaluation of the everyday experience of schools.

8. That instead of establishing another GIS in Guinea, MEPU collaborate with and subcontract GIS services at the University. After two years of successful collaboration the feasibility of establishing a GIS service at SSP should be evaluated.

9. That the MEPU's current organizational structure be made official.

10. That the decentralized services be rendered truly operational. This requires more than simply promulgating their founding texts. They must be given resources, specific job descriptions and a degree of genuine autonomy.

9.5 Promotion and Supervision of Private Schools

11. That the expansion of the private education sector be promoted as a means of meeting parents' demand and that it be supported by intensifying inspection of its programs and performance.

12. That the Ministry conduct an exhaustive survey of private schools, their status, needs in terms of monitoring and pedagogical support.

13. That the list of all certified private schools be published on an annual basis, before the school year begins.

14. That the international donor agencies and the Ministry determine whether it would be feasible to offer private schools a line of credit. This measure would increase the enrollments in private schools while giving the Ministry a tool needed to ensure quality control (this argument is developed in Chapter 8).

9.6 Financial Management and Planning

Short Term

Training

15. Re-evaluate SSP and DAAF training requirements, particularly for the Audit Unit, so as to reinforce both the operational nature and planning capability of those units. Training and assistance for the Audit Unit are a priority.

16. Draft a computer training policy including initial training and continuing education.

17. Designate a computer training room with the necessary security and conformity guarantees.

Budget Information

18. SINDA: Obtain education budgets annually from the finance ministry through the revised budgets. (Establish a routine.)

19. DAAF: Transmit budget projections to SINDA once they have been sent to the finance ministry.

Information Network

20. SSP: a) Publish more detailed statistics with breakdowns for urban centers and rural areas based on the Annuaire statistique; b) Link Annuaire statistique and school map data.

21. FQEL: Review recent research on effectiveness of primary education inputs, especially those targetted for FQEL.

Planning

22. Increase DAAF/SSP/CDMT joint action for medium- and long-range planning of requirements and resources.

USAID

23. Negotiate a strategy and training plans with MEPU.

24. Obtain guarantees for the security of materials and availability of training room.

25. Renew computer training center equipment.

26. Study the possibility of a computer network linking deconcentrated structures (IRE, DPE), including:
    - network cost and technical feasibility;
    - combined needs of the various deconcentrated users occupying the space (IRE, DPE, SAAF, statistics personnel);
    - synergy with World Bank's current experiences.

27. Evaluate in a detailed fashion the effects of long-term training provided to MEPU personnel.

Medium Term

DAAF Work Process

28. Computerize the DAAF work process as much as possible by programming a series of targeted mini-applications that require little specific training. Develop budget and management mini-applications. Systematize budget preparation tools. Ensure resource and materials monitoring, etc.

29. Rewrite the budget follow-up application that was available in the Macintosh environment.

Training

30. Repeat 1994 SAAF training and establish a routine follow-up plan. (The Audit Unit should be involved in this process.)

Information System

31. Adapt the data collection apparatus to measure and edit FQEL inputs and outputs on a school-by-school basis.

32. Conduct an initial statistical analysis attempting to relate Guinea's inputs and outputs.

USAID

33. Support SAAF training.

34. Evaluate and reorganize current and new training plans to favour short-term training integrated into the work process where possible.

35. Support FQEL statistical analysis.

Long Term

FQEL Information System

36. Conduct periodical statistical analysis designed to identify the impact of inputs on fundamental levels and on primary education results (grade six success).

USAID

37. Support FQEL statistical analysis.

9.7 Teacher Training

Initial Training: Short Term

38. Continue to recruit BACC graduates for teacher training but recruit female and male candidates from the same level, i.e. BACC1. Reduce the training period from two years to one year so as to train more candidates in one year and thus offset the lack of candidates. The current, one-year, on-the-job-training portion should be discontinued and replaced by professional development.

39. Make available two training options to broaden the recruitment pool: A short, one-year option for graduates with BACC1 and higher degrees. In this case, the current training program remains in effect. A longer, three-year option for BEPC graduates. These candidates could be subject to an admissions exam testing related areas of expertise and cultural disciplines: given the current teacher shortage, it would be inexcusable to reject candidates with potential simply because they have not received the same education as BACC graduates.

40. In place of the longer option broadening the recruitment pool to BEPC graduates, the government or MEPU should implement a series of incentives to attract more BACC candidates. This could take the form of increased salaries or designated housing for teachers. MEPU should establish a national commission to study the relative cost of the recommendations outlined in 2 and 3.

Initial Training: Long Term

41. Convert ENIs into higher education institutions by: linking them to ISSEG or converting them into university departments of pre-school and primary education; At the end of the academic year, automatically orient towards this department any BACC graduates who have not been accepted in

another faculty. Candidates oriented in this way would be able to attend a higher education institution, giving them the psychological advantage of feeling closer to the university studies to which they aspire. NB: An amended version of recommendation 2 was adopted by members of the symposium held in Conakry on October 7, 1999. There are long-term plans for recommendation 4.

Professional Development: Short Term

42. Relocate professional development into the school level and establish a formative evaluation grid enabling teachers to evaluate themselves and identify their own areas of improvement. Ideally, each DPE should provide a counselor skilled in measurement and evaluation whose task would be to assist schools and teachers in identifying teacher training needs and translating these into made-to-measure training courses.

43. Establish a training research and documentation center.

Professional Development: Medium Term

44. ENIs must assume a leadership role in professional development by developing distance teaching opportunities and integrating into initial teacher training all pedagogical approaches which can improve primary teaching skills. We feel it useful to consider integrating the EDC multi-channel approach into ENI initial teacher training and distance teaching. Distance teaching should be made available to practicum teacher-trainees, practicing teachers and school principals.

45. Summative evaluation of teachers should be further developed at the DNEE level by putting in place a dynamic structure or reinforcing the existing one. Among other things, this structure should ensure well-defined, continuous working links between initial teacher training and professional development.

Training ENI Teacher Trainers : Short Term

46. PENs and CPMFs should receive training in teaching strategies. PENs and CPMFs should also be allowed to benefit from formative evaluation so that they can retroact upon their course or practicum and improve their personal and teaching skills.

47. Teachers are in the best position to observe their teachers and supervisors and should be given the opportunity to evaluate them at the end of every PEN course and CPMF-supported practicum according to an evaluation grid.

A Reliable System for Evaluating Learning and Teaching: Short Term

48. ENIs should benefit from the services of accredited evaluation experts to evaluate teaching and learning. Moreover, they should work together with ISSEG, CNCESE and EDC to further develop their methodology in terms of teaching, teacher evaluation and evaluation of future teachers and PENs.

9.8 Demand

49. We recommend that the public authorities not launch any more general public awareness campaigns aimed at stimulating educational demand until the system can offer schools that comply with FQEL standards.

50. We also recommend that efforts to stimulate demand focus solely on the education of girls and only in communities where FQEL standards can be met and where it is possible to act on Equity Committee suggestions regarding washrooms and free textbooks.

51. We recommend that MEPU-EC develop a system for calculating teacher availability on the job market based on sex, age, origin, departure, arrival, etc., in order to better satisfy the demand of specific sub-populations.

9.9 Assignment of Teachers

Short Term

52. We feel that the current assignment process is a step in the right direction for supplying all regions with teachers. Two areas of improvement can however be identified: a) recruit for specific positions, decentralize authority in each Préfecture, and allow interested candidates to have a choice ; and b) Give preference to women and allow them to teach in the place in which they wish to live.

53. The government should set up a study commission to define parameters for outlying or remote regions and make recommendations concerning isolation pay incentives for contractual teachers assigned to these regions by choice or otherwise.

School Use

55. If ratios are to be brought to an acceptable level as planned by the Guinean government, it will be necessary to: provide more multigrade schools in rural areas and attract more teachers to these areas; build more public schools in high population density urban centers such as Conakry; create more multi-grade classes in rural areas to counteract the rural exodus.

Multigrade and Double-Shift Classes

56. In the very short term, ENIs should develop a teaching approach for multigrade classes, and all teacher-trainees should be officially and systematically trained to deal with this situation.

57. There is an urgent need to address the infrastructure planning problem in the very short term so as to gradually eliminate double-shift classes by constructing schools as needed in high population density areas.

9.10 Equity

General Recommendations: Integration and Synergy

58. Integrate equitable access to quality education with all sectors of the school environment (education system, school, community, private and public sectors) and there must be synergy in the action taken.

59. Identify the roles and responsibilities of each player to avoid redundancy and conflicts such as those which seem to arise between existing structures e.g. the Equity Committee and newly-formed local alliances, both of which operate awareness campaigns at the community level. Within communities, one could rely upon existing structures whose concern is to develop the community, such as elder councils, development associations, women's groups, religious leaders, and education promoters.

60. Define in a participatory manner and make known the school's goals and the objectives to be attained for equity access (sex, region, area), performance and school effectiveness.

61. Identify action to be taken for equity access to education in all sectors of the education system including the environmental level. See the table in the Annex for a list of actions to be taken or objectives to be attained by each player at each level of responsibility. This could be used as a starting point for a workshop.

62. In accordance with the strategies to be implemented and action to be taken, define the roles and responsibilities of all sectors directly or indirectly related to the education system, including: the public sector, teachers citizens, the private sector, students and children, the media, the community, families and development partners. The workshop mentioned above could serve as a framework for redefining the roles and responsibilities of each.

63. Develop a complete definition of fundamental levels of quality and equity, so as to plan and follow up the impact of action taken at the school level. This definition should be revised periodically.

64. We suggest that the Equity Committee and Alliance Nationale coordinate activities at the public sector and community levels respectively for local, prefectural and national levels. One should distinguish the role of local and national Alliances from the assistance role of Plan Guinée. The Equity Committee should certainly focus on the public sector and schools. Another alternative would be to identify geographic areas of intervention for local alliances and the Equity Committee, allowing each organization to coordinate the activities of all sectors within these areas. This alternative is less satisfactory and causes dissipation of resources.

Gender Equity

Short- and Long-Term

65. Organize a mentoring system for girls in areas which are already sensitized to ensuring that girls stay in school. To achieve this, education promoters assisted by the Equity Committee and adequate resources distribute uniforms and school supplies to needy girls. They could also organize meetings between these girls and local alliances to encourage them to perform well. The mentoring system could pair up girls with locals (preferably women) who have left the community or region.

Longer Term

66. Take a census in target regions of all school-age girls and enroll them systematically in school at age 7. It would also be beneficial to create vocational training centers of the NAFA type enabling girls who wish to do so to enter the formal system.

Regional Equity

Short- and Long-Term

67. *Demand:* Once schools in rural areas have been equipped according to FQEL standards, launch awareness campaigns to increase the demand among underprivileged clienteles.

68. *Supply*: In underprivileged areas, school feeding program should be provided in schools equipped according to FQEL standards.

Long Term

69. Recruit enough teachers, providing incentives for rural and underprivileged areas. Support rural areas by developing women's groups and cooperatives.

9.11 Community Participation

70. School administrations should take the necessary measures to put into practice the dispositions of the Decree 97/196/PR/SGG, pertaining to the participation of students' parents in the school councils (**ST**).[57] This implies that: a) the school councils must be set up where there are none and, b) the offices of the APEAE will delegate representatives to the school councils to promote their opinions (**MT**). More particularly that this decree be diffused through the hierarchy of the school administration and that all the APEAEs be informed of it and use it as a reference (**ST**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GdG*

71. The CRD/CUD must be associated to all activity aiming at the setting up of quality education (**LT**). To increase the participation of this structure in the effort toward education, the sensitization of all the representatives to the FQEL problematic must be undertaken (**MT**). Also the importance of attributing a part of their resources to education must be systematically reaffirmed (**MT**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GcG, USAID/Guinée*

72. Take measures to render APEAEs truly autonomous and independent from the school administration (**LT**). For this to be possible: a) the school principal must not be appointed general secretary of the APEAE (**MT**); b) the member's contributions must be managed entirely by the APEAE Office (**MT**); c) the management of school textbooks must be the effective responsibility of the APEAE, in addition, the utilization of financial resources coming from school book leasing be under the control of the APEAE, in consultation with the school principal through the school council (**MT**); d) school principals must be sensitized to their role as development agents of the independent APEAE structures (**MT**). *Action: MEPU-EC, GdG, National donors, NGO partners (WEG, STC, etc.)*

73. FEGUIPEAE should support the process of heightening APEAE responsibility by channeling funds gathered abroad to these structures when the need arises (**MT**). *Action: FEGUIPEAE*

74. The Guinean government and international donors should examine the opportunity of setting up a line of credit with a preferential interest rate to offer to private and community developers of primary education. This should be done through the Central Bank or a reputable commercial bank,

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and it should favor the financial involvement of the sector's civil society. A feasibility study of such a fund should be conducted as soon as possible, specifying its operational modalities (**ST**). *Action: USAID/Guinée, GdG, International donors*

75. That the approach favored by Plan International for the diffusion of ideas and the realization of projects in favor of equal opportunity schools be closely examined by the different partners. The advantages of this model (low costs, high leveling effect) should receive considerable support and lead to efficient schools (**MT**). *Action: USAID/Guinée, NGO partners*

76. That the NGOs working with the expatriates association seriously consider the possibility of co-financing for the projects aiming at an efficient school and this financing contribute to the institutional strengthening of the APEAEs (**MT**). *Action: NGO partners (WEG, STC, etc.)*

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