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OFFICE OF INTERNATIONAL TRAINING AND BUREAU FOR AFRICA

THIRD COUNTRY TRAINING IN AFRICA

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**U.S. Agency for International Development
Office of International Training
and
Bureau for Africa**

**THIRD COUNTRY TRAINING IN AFRICA
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background

The Agency for International Development emphasizes education and human resource development as a critical component of bilateral assistance to developing countries, particularly in Africa. The Participant Training Program has been the principal means of effecting this development in newly-independent African states since the 1960s. In addition to strengthening African technical, scientific and management capabilities, participant training has as its goal the advancement of U.S. interests in and relations with African nations. For these reasons, and given the historical limitations of indigenous training resources, the majority of African participants have been sent to study at U.S. institutions while third country training, the sponsorship of Africans in another African country, and in-country training have been used to a lesser extent.

Changing characteristics of African education and the Participant Training Program have led numerous Agency personnel to advocate greater use of third country training and to question the need and rationale for sending the majority of African participants to U.S. institutions. In justifying an expansion of third country training in Africa, advocates point to such factors as a constant or declining level of funding and rising U.S. tuition costs; the increase in numbers, types and quality of African institutions; the relevance of many African programs to regional and national development needs; and the social, political and institutional benefits accrued by African nations from third country training, thus promoting the Agency's goal of strengthening indigenous institutions in developing countries.

These factors and the magnitude of the need for skilled manpower in Africa prompted the Office of International Training and the Bureau for Africa to commission this study to determine the extent to which AID sponsorship of third country training in Africa is practical and the circumstances under which U.S. based training is most appropriate. To this end, the study focused on those issues having the greatest impact on AID's future policy decisions regarding third country training in Africa. These included the advantages and disadvantages of third country and U.S. training to AID, African nations and trainees; the quality, relevance, availability and cost of African training and education; appropriate levels and fields of study for third country training; attitudes and perceptions of U.S. and African educators, government officials and students toward inter-African educational exchange; the relationship between institutional development and third country training; and the identification of specific programs and institutions that are or have the potential to be third country training sites.

Methodology

The study methodology incorporated an extensive review of the literature; telephone and personal interviews with persons in the U.S.; two field studies, one each in West and East Africa; and a one-day workshop on third country training in Africa. The study population numbered 107 and included representatives of AID and other U.S. government agencies, African governments, international assistance organizations, educational associations and institutions, private voluntary organizations, private corporations and African students. The study methodology is described in detail in Section I of the report.

Study Findings

The study findings summarized below focus on sub-Saharan Africa's training needs and goals; regional training institutions and networks; the extent and nature of third country training in Africa; institutional constraints and development considerations facing AID and African institutions; and the management of third country training in Africa.

1. The discrepancy between African manpower goals and educational capacity demands a training strategy which combines third country, in-country and U.S. based training. Greater recognition and use of qualified African institutions by AID will contribute to a more equitable and appropriate balance of training locations for African trainees.

2. Increased emphasis on third country training in Africa is strongly supported 1) as a logical extension of AID support to African training institutions and programs, 2) to develop African institutional qualifications and capacities, and 3) because there are African institutions which are capable of providing quality training experiences.

3. There are valid reasons, both political and educational, for continuing to place some African students in U.S. institutions and programs. U.S. training offers distinct advantages over African education particularly at advanced levels and in technical fields of study. AID-sponsored doctoral candidates should be trained in the U.S., but both African and U.S. master's degree programs should be carefully investigated by AID personnel when placing students at this level.

4. African governments, universities and institutions overwhelmingly support the expansion of third country training in concept and, to a lesser extent, in practice. Few institutions appear capable of accepting larger numbers of foreign students without comparable increases in structural, administrative and faculty underpinnings.

5. Third country training and its supporting activities contribute to the development of African regional and national training institutions, enlarge the reputation of receiving institutions, foster inter-African collaboration and cooperation, and contribute to the spirit and movement of Pan-Africanism.

6. AID should encourage African planning and education officials to emphasize the relationship between manpower needs and the selection and placement of trainees. Although AID's development projects and training activities are in fields identified by host governments, greater coordination is needed to ensure the availability and relevance of jobs for trainees returning to the workplace. African governments and institutions need to counsel students regarding fields of study pursued and job market supply and demand.

7. Whenever possible, African graduate and doctoral students in the U.S. should conduct thesis and dissertation research in their own countries, or, at a minimum, structure and focus their research on the African environment. USAID should collaborate with students and their academic advisors in the identification and selection of Africa-relevant research projects.
8. The greatest manpower needs of African nations lie at the middle level of demand occupations. The absence of qualified professional and support staff to implement and maintain projects and systems seriously hampers the development process in many African countries. The gap at this level will enlarge unless more African workers receive training in the art of training other people to apply new skills and knowledge to improve their personal and professional lives.
9. The coexistence of various educational systems and philosophies has created equivalency problems which limit the potential of third country training in Africa, particularly between East and West Africa and between Francophone and U.S. based or supported institutions. African governments should be encouraged in their efforts to investigate and remove these barriers to student exchange. In addition, the paucity of English and French language training centers restricts student transfer between East and West Africa. Institutions offering language training or simultaneous translation capabilities promote exchange among African countries and offer less-costly alternatives to training non-English speakers in the U.S.
10. Educating Africans at third country training institutions is generally less expensive than sending students to the U.S.; however, third country training should not be used or expanded for purely economical reasons. Savings should be used to offer African institutions full funding of AID trainees and incentives to accept greater numbers of third country students.
11. The time and costs of providing language instruction for participants from Somalia, the Lusophone states, and Spanish-speaking countries--nations with vast training needs and few developed resources--behoove donors to consider creating institutions or institutional networks that serve these individual constituencies, or using more non-African third country training sites, e.g., Latin America, Portugal, Spain, the West Indies and Arabic-speaking countries.
12. The greatest constraints to expanding third country training in Africa are the systemic deficiencies of African institutions. Opportunities for student exchange could improve with more and better qualified faculty and staff, equipment and material resources, administrative/ management systems support, and additional student housing.
13. The desire of Africans to raise the quality of educational programs and enlarge the indigenous and third country student populations at post-secondary institutions has created an atmosphere that is conducive to incentive arrangements. African institutions will make space available for more third country students in exchange for: 1) technical assistance in the form of trainers, professors and administrators who will make a

long-term commitment to training their African counterparts; 2) additional library, laboratory or housing facilities; and 3) equipment and materials for research, field studies and practicums. In many cases, these forms of assistance are preferred over financial assistance from donor agencies.

14. Several African regional and national institutions are qualified and eager to offer consulting services to donor agencies, the private sector, and their own and other national governments. Such educational and research centers offer the relevant experiences of staff and students in the conduct of scientific and social science research, socio-economic analyses, and management and organizational development as well as a cost-effective alternative to U.S. consulting firms.

15. AID's management of an expanded third country training program in Africa would be severely handicapped by the current number of field training officers, the magnitude of their present responsibilities, and their lack of experience and qualifications in managing third country training programs. To successfully effect an expanded program, AID training officers will require training in resource allocation and management and access to regional or subregional training support centers.

16. Difficulties inherent in locating and receiving information on African training resources restrict AID training officers in their searches for appropriate training opportunities and minimize their reliance on African facilities. An easily accessible central clearinghouse that maintains and updates information on African training resources would contribute to maximum utilization of third country training facilities.

17. The responsibility of USAID toward AID training participants requires reliable and continuous support for Africans studying in third countries. Systems for monitoring students' personal well-being and educational progress are lacking; mission personnel are reluctant to send students to sites where such support systems are not in place.

Study Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that USAID increase its use of third country training at African institutions, particularly for short-term, undergraduate, and graduate training programs. The following activities are recommended to initiate and support an expanded third country training in Africa program:

1. Revise USAID policy on third country training in Africa to mandate an increase in the use of third country training for AID participants. The policy framework should include an outline of the program's purpose, goals and structure and the roles and responsibilities of USAID Washington and field staff with respect to instituting the third country training program.

2. Institute a comprehensive third country training program within the Bureau for Africa in cooperation with the Office of International Training. Structurally, the program will consist of a central program office located within the Bureau for Africa, Washington, D.C.; four regional support centers, one each in West, East and South Africa and the Sahel Region; AID missions and offices; and an African educational association such as the Association of African Universities (AAU). The latter's participation in this program from inception is crucial to the success of an organized approach to third country training in Africa. Collaboration with AAU enables the organization to build an internal capacity to augment AID's program activities and to manage the program in its entirety in the future if AID support is withdrawn.

Functionally, each of the organizational units--Central Office, Regional Centers, missions and offices, AAU--has distinct responsibilities in the areas of a) information flow, b) training and staff support, c) decision-making, and d) evaluation as follows:

a. Information Flow - In order to maintain the most comprehensive and current repository of statistical and descriptive educational data available, it is recommended that USAID establish a computerized clearinghouse within the central office in Washington, D.C.

b. Training and Staff Support - The four regional centers will provide training for AID field training and program officers on managing the third country training process and for AAU staff on managing the four areas of program responsibility. Also, the centers will coordinate and/or conduct training programs for AID-sponsored participants on a regional basis when requested by missions. The central office will provide technical assistance to the regional offices on an as needed basis.

c. Decision-Making Guidelines - The decision-making function involves the selection of institutions for individual participants and consultations with mission and host government officials during the planning and selection of development training activities. These roles will be assumed at the request of individual program and training officers at AID missions and offices.

d. Evaluation - The third country training program will acquire and conduct evaluations of training programs and institutions in Africa and in other developing countries which may be appropriate for African students, and contract with U.S. or indigenous consultants to conduct institution and/or program specific evaluations. The evaluations will be stored in the central clearinghouse and will be made available to the regional centers, AID training officers and other interested parties.

3. Channel resources to a specified number of African training institutions to expand their capacity for third country training activities. USAID incentives may include:

- Construction of on-campus dormitories and laboratory facilities;
- Technical assistance to augment indigenous staff and faculty and conduct staff development activities; and

- Development and implementation of more efficient administrative and management information systems.

4. Institute the provision of full-funding for all AID-sponsored African participants attending third country institutions.

5. Increase the amount of short-term training conducted in African countries by a) contracting with U.S. institutions to conduct training in collaboration with African institutions; b) commissioning U.S. subject matter/training specialists to conduct train-the-trainer seminars for staff members at African institutions; and c) commissioning African institutions to provide on-site training to administrators and potential administrators at African institutions.

SECTION I - INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The U.S. Agency for International Development (AID) has identified human and institutional development as one of the primary means of achieving a long range impact on development, particularly in Africa. Participant training has been cited as a way to develop the human potential and internal problem solving capabilities so badly needed in African countries. At the same time, it is perceived that the level of funding for participant training is likely to remain constant, if not decrease, in the near future. A constant or declining level of funding combined with the rising costs of bringing African students to study at U.S. institutions increases the need to seek alternative approaches to manpower training and human resource development for Africa.

AID expanded its participant training program in Africa in the 1960s to provide future leaders, educators and policy makers in newly independent countries with the experiences and education necessary to plan and manage their own national development. The majority of participants were sent to study in the U.S. for two reasons: 1) the few national universities in existence in Africa at that time offered only limited programs at the levels or in the fields of study required for AID trainees, and 2) training at U.S. institutions exposed the future technicians and statesmen to American social, political and economic systems and state-of-the-art research and technology. Moreover, U.S. training was perceived as paving the way for friendly supportive relations between the U.S. and newly independent African nations.

The twelve national universities in existence in sub-Saharan Africa in 1960 have raised the quality of education and expanded the fields of study offered to students. In addition, they have been joined by some forty-four new universities and numerous other regional and national training institutions. The increased availability of African institutions has resulted in a significant international exchange of students among African countries. Although the largest percentage of third country students are sponsored privately, African governments, USAID and other donors have sponsored numbers of African students at institutions in other African countries. The rise of African regional and national training institutions attended by third country students has added a new and sometimes controversial dimension to the participant training program.

The available third country training sites include a variety of academic, technical and vocational training institutions, research centers and short-term seminars throughout Africa. The absence of a comprehensive compilation of information about individual institutions and their programs has resulted in questions concerning the quality of the education or training offered and has contributed to the belief that African education is inadequate. Some observers also question whether sponsoring students within Africa is appropriate given U.S. foreign policy and balance of payment objectives.

AID's participant training program for Africa continues to be concerned primarily with advanced degree and short-term technical training in priority development fields. Approximately fifty percent of participant training activities in Africa are in short-term technical training programs. AID officials foresee a continuing need for both academic training at advanced

levels and short-term technical training. AID specialists point out that some quality master's degree programs can be found at African institutions and state that the use of African institutions should be investigated when planning training activities. However, these officials feel that specialized advanced degree candidates, particularly at the Ph.D. level, will continue to benefit from the research capabilities, resources, and professional qualifications found at U.S. universities.

At the same time, there is general agreement among education development specialists that third country training benefits African countries in a number of ways. First, it provides opportunities for individuals to discuss common problems, needs and solutions. Second, within the context of a familiar African environment students learn to use technology that is appropriate in their home situation. In addition, third country training provides African students with the opportunity to develop open and collegial relationships that will lead to inter-African regional and national cooperation. Finally, it fosters and enriches Pan-African sentiment and development.¹

Discussions regarding the benefits of U.S. based or third country training too often are structured in terms of an either one or the other approach. This report addresses the question of what is the proper balance between the two options. The changing characteristics of the AID participant training program and increased African education and training capacities have engendered a need to review AID training policy for Africa. These characteristics include: constant or declining funds and escalating U.S. tuition costs; the rise in numbers and types of African institutions and inter-African student exchanges; the lack of comprehensive information

on African institutions; increases in AID sponsorship of short-term technical training; the relevance of many African programs to regional and national development; and the potential political benefits associated with study at third country training institutions. These factors, and the magnitude of the need for skilled manpower in Africa, have led AID to consider increasing the use of third country training and expanding opportunities for third country training at African institutions.

Purpose of the Study

This study of third country training in Africa was commissioned by the Office of International Training and the Bureau for Africa to elicit issues and information related to the use of third country training for AID participants. The team was instructed to find out to what extent it is practical for AID to use third country training and the appropriate circumstances under which training is best provided in the U.S. To this end, the study focuses on the advantages and disadvantages of third country training; the availability, relevance, and quality of third country training opportunities; the willingness and capacity of African institutions to receive third country students; and the attitudes and perceptions of U.S. and African educators, students, and government officials toward third country training. The findings, conclusions and recommendations presented herein will serve as one basis for future decisions on AID policy toward third country training in Africa.

For this study, third country training is defined as the transfer of sub-Saharan Africans to anywhere within Africa, except South Africa, for post secondary formal or non-formal, academic and technical, and long and

short-term training. The study was undertaken on the premise that the use of U.S. based training for Africans will continue and that neither it nor third country training would be used to the exclusion of the other.

Methodology

The findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study are based on information on third country training obtained through a literature review; telephone and personal interviews with knowledgeable persons in the United States; two field studies, one each in West and East Africa; and a one-day workshop on third country training in Africa, held in Washington, D.C. There were four members of the study team and each participated in all phases of study activity.

The first phase of the study involved a literature review. During this period studies and reports were solicited from AID and international organizations such as the World Bank, UNESCO, UNDP, WHO, and others. USAID missions were cabled informing them of the study and inviting comments regarding their third country training activities. Research efforts were made to obtain statistical data on African student enrollments by country and types of institutions from missions, host governments, international organizations and associations. To the extent that African educational statistics exist, they have been incorporated into this report. The literature review findings identified issues, individuals, institutions, projects, advantages and disadvantages of third country training and attitudes toward it for use in structuring the interview guide and study population.

Study Population

The study participants represent officials from the following target populations: AID and U.S. government agencies (42), African governments (8), international organizations (7), educational associations and institutions (19), private voluntary organizations (2), private corporations (2), and African students in the U.S. and Africa (22).^{*} There was a total of 102 interview respondents in these seven groups. This study population is an unstratified random sample.

Initially, a representative sample of interview respondents was identified by the Office of International Training and the Bureau for Africa, AID and by members of the study team. As the interviews and research progressed, AID program officers, the team and interview subjects identified additional persons to be interviewed who could contribute information critical to the study.

Interview Guide

An open-ended interview guide was used to elicit data, information and perceptions from respondents. It addressed those issues having the greatest impact on AID's future policy decisions regarding third country training in Africa. They included the cost, availability, quality and relevance of third country training; the relationship between institutional development and third country training; the benefits and disadvantages of third country and U.S. training to AID, African nations and trainees; appropriate levels and fields of study for third country training; African

^{*}A list of the interview respondents' is included in Appendix A. It should be noted that twenty of the twenty-two African students participated in a group discussion at Egerton Agricultural College in Kenya. Their names are not included in the list of interview respondents.

attitudes and feelings about inter-African educational exchange; and the identification of specific programs and institutions that are or have the potential to be third country training sites.

The interview guide was pretested by the four study team members and revised based on the responses and suggestions of interview subjects.* All interviews were conducted by two team members to ensure accuracy and, whenever possible, were tape recorded. The interviewers wrote and reviewed the interview summaries and transcripts immediately thereafter and these were distributed to the team for review and use in analyzing the findings.

Field Study

The field study was conducted in five countries: the Ivory Coast, Senegal and Togo in West Africa; and Kenya and Somalia in East Africa. The Ivory Coast, Senegal, and Kenya were identified as "receiving" countries in that many of their institutions have been used by USAID missions and other donors as third country training sites. Conversely, the missions in Togo and Somalia have traditionally sent participant trainees to study in other African countries and they were designated "sending" countries. However, it was discovered that Togolese institutions also receive a substantial number of other African students.

The inclusion of Somalia in the field study counterbalanced the similarities found among the other countries visited regarding national manpower and training needs, goals and strategies. The team recognized that the unique and critical problems facing Somalia, the Lusophone states and

*A copy of the interview guide is presented in Appendix B.

some of the smaller and poorer African nations demand special and distinct consideration during the planning and implementation of AID third country training policies and activities in Africa.*

In preparation for the field study, the team reviewed the relevant literature and interviews to identify African universities, training institutions, and ministries; regional offices of UNDP, UNESCO and the World Bank; and African and international organizations to be visited. USAID personnel in the host country identified and scheduled interviews with the appropriate person(s) at each place and recommended additional individuals and institutions. In all, fifty-eight persons were interviewed in the five countries, including representatives of African governments, universities, national and regional training centers, private corporations and international organizations. In addition, the team spoke with USAID and USIS personnel as well as expatriates working at African universities, training institutions, multinationals and international organizations.

The team used the same interview guide with minor revisions for the field study. They conducted interviews in French or English, tape recording the sessions whenever possible. Many of the persons interviewed furnished documents and catalogs describing particular training institutions and programs and international and inter-African conferences on educational development. These materials were integrated into the team's third country training resources and were submitted to the Office of International Training at the end of the contract.

*A discussion of special country characteristics can be found on page 45.

Workshop

The final step in the data-gathering phase of the project was the conduct of a workshop, "Third Country Training in Africa," in Washington, D.C., on December 9, 1982. Seventy-two participants were in attendance. Prior to the workshop, the contractor prepared and distributed a background paper on the key issues raised in the literature and the interviews to all participants. Excerpts from this paper are included in Section II of this report.

The workshop agenda included a keynote address by Dr. Aklilu Habte of the World Bank on manpower needs in Africa, followed by four panel presentations and group discussions, and a summary discussion on future directions for AID. Experts on international and African training and education, economic development and foreign policy participated on the following panels: 1) "The Quality, Relevance and Accessibility of Training Institutions in Africa," 2) "Approaches to the Organization and Management of Third Country Training," and 3) "Institutional Development and Training Policy in Africa: Implications for African Governments and Donor Organizations." The fourth panel, "Advantages and Disadvantages of Third Country Training in Africa: Review of Preliminary Findings of AID Study" consisted of presentations by the study team members summarizing findings from the field study. Workshop participants' comments and concerns regarding third country training in Africa have been incorporated into this report. Proceedings of the workshop were prepared separately and can be obtained from the Office of International Training, Bureau for Science and Technology, AID.

Organization of the Report

In Section II of this report, the authors summarize the study team's findings, including a discussion of sub-Saharan Africa's training needs and goals; regional training institutions and regional networks; the extent of third country training in Africa; the respective advantages and disadvantages of U.S. and third country training including the quality, relevance, and capacity of African and U.S. institutions at various levels and in various fields of study; the special problems and unique needs of particular African countries; institutional constraints and development considerations facing AID and African institutions; and the management of third country training in Africa.

In Section III, the authors present the conclusions reached after an analysis of the findings; and in Section IV they delineate the respective recommendations for each topical area addressed in this study.

Endnotes

1. USAID, "Workshop Proceedings: Third Country Training in Africa", Washington, D.C., December 1982.

SECTION II - FINDINGS

Perspectives on African Education

African policymakers recognize and respect the crucial roles that education and training play in the socio-economic development of their nations. Its valuable contribution to the nation-building process was emphasized in the 1980 Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa:

There is a need to realign development priorities in order to emphasize the development of human resources not only as the object of development, but also as the custodian and mentor of socio-economic development; ... The human resources development sector in Africa requires positive action, if it is to play its proper role in ensuring the continent's survival and progress.¹

In spite of the critical need for trained manpower, Africans have urged a reduction in African dependence on international assistance and study abroad and have emphasized the importance of educational self-sufficiency for Africa. As early as 1962, the Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, held in Tananarive, Madagascar, stressed "the need to improve the calibre of teaching staff at this level and to bring about the Africanization of higher education...", and "the importance of students receiving their training at home." The role of higher education was defined to include "the work of fostering African unification, enhancing knowledge of the African cultural heritage and the process of nation-building."²

These goals have not been realized by African nations and they continue to need the sponsorship, by multi- and bi-lateral donor organizations, of African students abroad. An estimated 100,000 African students receive training and education in the U.S., France, United Kingdom, Canada, Germany and Eastern Bloc countries each year. It is likely that Africa's use of

external resources will continue for some time, particularly at the doctoral level. At this level, it is usually more practical and economical for Africans to receive advanced training abroad where the physical and academic infrastructure already exists, than to expend limited resources to build various post-graduate institutional capacities within Africa.

Although the colonial influence prompted many Africans to devalue African education and technical training, a sense of cultural pride has continued to emerge in Africa resulting in increased emphasis on the roles and functions of indigenous institutions in educating Africans. The summary of proceedings from the 1982 UNESCO-sponsored Conference of Ministers of Education and those Responsible for Economic Planning in African Member States cites evidence of a new African perspective towards African education:

African education...is defined more and more in terms of the man which it is expected to develop: a man who will be deeply rooted in his African environment and culture, conscious of his political and civic responsibilities, of his duties to his family, and ready to play a useful role as a producer and as a citizen in the economic and social development of the community"³

The concept of an educated African as one who contributes to the social, economic and technical development of Africa is an expected counteraction to the cultural alienation and Europeanism experienced under colonial presence. In addition to recognizing education's contribution to development and national pride, African leaders have called for a reassessment of institutions and universities to look at the structure, orientation and nature of education. The 1982 UNESCO Conference concluded that efforts have been made to improve the relevance of curricula to Africa's development needs, including achieving balance between theory and application;

broadening the scope of agronomy programs to include rural community development; instituting work-study components to ensure the relevance of training to economic, agricultural and institutional sectors; and improving the spirit of cooperation between education and these sectors. Such educational reforms are attempts to break away from traditional colonial academic education and move training and education more in line with African manpower requirements in the socio-economic sectors. Africans are seeking education that will restore a sense of African identity, provide specialized training in development fields, respond academically and technically to the African environment and development needs, and contribute to African unification.

The goals for African higher education have been clearly stated but there are constraints impeding their realization. In addition to the enrollment limitations imposed by institutional capacity, African centers of learning are faced with escalating operation and maintenance costs and a lack of equipment and materials, trained administrators, instructors, support staff, and researchers. One approach to alleviating such problems has been increased collaboration and sharing of resources among African institutions. For example, the 1964 Conference of Ministers of Education in Abidjan, emphasized the need to reduce unit costs in higher education by establishing close cooperation among existing institutions, exchanges of students and a comparative study of courses, research programs and degrees conferred by African states. The ministers appealed to universities and governments in other regions to accept African students and to provide research specialists to train indigenous research staff. The concept of

regional cooperation was taken a step further in 1968 when the Ministers met in Nairobi. They advocated closer liaison between governments, industry and other sectors in determining training and research objectives and urged greater African cooperation to bring institutions into the framework of interstate universities and ensure complementarity of studies and exchange arrangements.⁴

The Lagos Plan continued this theme by charging African states with the tasks of pooling training resources to develop and use "specialized regional, subregional and multinational training and research institutions for training nationals in specialized skill areas by using, whenever possible, existing national institutions as a base."⁵

Regionalism

The Lagos' intent of imbuing national institutions with regional focuses and perpetuating regional cooperation and/or networks among African institutions was reiterated throughout discussions with AID, World Bank, and African government and educational officials. They stressed the importance of strengthening national institutions and of working together to bring about close and active collaboration among existing institutions, both within and among African nations, rather than constructing regional centers to be owned and managed by member nations. Their insistence on cooperation and collaboration grows out of a desire to expand the range of programs offered while raising the quality and appropriateness of the curricula to meet manpower goals, strengthen African education, and improve inter-African relations.

According to Dr. Aklilu Habte of the World Bank, "The history of regional institutions in Africa has been disastrous." Dr. Habte, other African educators, and AID officials and documents offered various explanations for the failures of African regional institutions. Their perceptions illustrate the types of political, socio-economic and financial realities facing regional institutions:

- Economic factors may motivate countries to launch regional programs, but when faced with nationalistic issues, economic considerations will not save regional programs.
- The concept of creating regional institutions is essentially a Western one and is relatively new to Africa. It is given a great deal of verbal attention, but getting programs off the ground is very difficult. The major reason is that individual country needs are so great there is not enough money, time or manpower to commit to regional efforts.
- Education is a costly enterprise and a successful educational establishment must rest upon a political base that can support and finance it and keep it free from political contamination. Regional institutions which attempt to serve the interests of several African governments lack such a foundation.
- Support for regional institutions usually falls most heavily on the nation in which the institution is located.
- Donor-sponsored regional institutions often fail because they lack the high level political and financial commitment from

participating African countries that is necessary to maintain the institutions when donors withdraw their support systems.

The alternatives suggested to supplement regional institutions and contribute to third country training focus on expanding and/or modifying national curricula to respond to regional development problems and manpower needs; forming educational networks among African institutions in which each participating school develops expertise in one subspecialty of a priority development field; and generating inter-African communications and collaboration among academicians, technicians, and scientists through regional conferences, associations, and publications. It was stated that these alternatives are more cost effective, immune to political instability and ethnic conflicts, and free from many of the economic constraints faced by regional institutions that are supported by member states. More importantly, they strengthen educational infrastructures of individual nations while contributing to Pan-African attitudes and activities.

The study found considerable support for the educational network concept. A USAID/Africa agricultural officer cited AID's involvement with international research centers as examples of intercontinental networking in the field of agriculture. Each of these centers specializes in one particular area of agriculture; together they comprise one large institute within which technical resources are shared to solve the problems and respond to the demands of developing countries. Another example of the network concept is ANSTI, the African Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions, a UNESCO-supported project. When established, ANSTI

would be comprised of nine post graduate institutions, each responsible for building training and research activities in one of nine engineering fields with the aim of strengthening the selected departments to assume leadership roles in post graduate education.⁶

The field study teams also identified a number of national institutions that respond to and serve regional constituencies to the largest extent possible. For example, the Ecole de Bibliothecaires, d'Archivistes et de Documentalistes (EBAD), a school within the University of Dakar system, is used as a regional training center by Francophone African nations to form cadres of mid-level librarians and document specialists. The level and nature of the programs respond to the needs and level of development of participating African countries. In addition to African government-sponsored students, EBAD has trained AID and UNESCO-sponsored trainees from Cameroon, Chad, Togo and other West African states.

In Kenya, the team visited Egerton Agricultural College, a national institution which offers a two-year diploma course for mid-level extension workers. Egerton has a contractual agreement with USAID to retrain Egerton faculty at U.S. institutions, provide U.S. instructors to supplement the staff, and participate in a substantial redesign and construction effort to modernize Egerton. For its part, Egerton will accept students from all of continental Africa. Third country training, U.S. based training and in-country training are integrated into a single program in order to fortify a national training institution as a continental resource, and expand its potential as a third country training site.

In spite of an overwhelming denunciation of regional institutions, the interviewees identified a number of successful and highly regarded regional institutions located throughout sub-Saharan Africa. Following are some examples of such institutions:

1. Pan-African Institute for Development (PAID) - Douala, Cameroon; Buea, Cameroon; Ouagadougou, Upper Volta; and Kabwe, Zambia
2. Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI) - Arusha, Tanzania
3. Ecole Africaine et Mauricienne d'Architecture et d'Urbanisme (EAMAU) - Lome, Togo
4. Centre Regional de Formation pour Entretien Routier (CERFER) - Lome, Togo
5. Institut de Formation et de Recherches Demographiques (IFORD) - Yaounde, Cameroon
6. Institut Africain de Developpement Economique et de Planification (IDEP) - Dakar, Senegal
7. Institut Africain pour le Developpement Economique et Social - Centre Africain de Formation (INADES) - Abidjan, Ivory Coast
8. Regional Institute of Population Studies (RIPS) - Accra, Ghana

The study team visited three of these institutions, EAMAU, CERFER, and IDEP. IDEP and another newly formed regional training center in Dakar, Ecole Superieure de Gestion des Entreprises (ESGE) are especially noteworthy. These two centers are structured differently with varying goals and philosophies, yet it was evident that there was one commonality contributing to the growth and success of these institutions--creative and committed leadership.

The newest of these, ESGE, is a World Bank financed institution offering a two-year MBA program for managers in Africa's private sector.

The structure of the program is similar to U.S. and Canadian business schools but the content, the philosophy, and the materials reflect the African context. The school is barely three years old and at the time of the visit was moving to newly built facilities in Dakar. The most impressive characteristic of ESGE was the administrative leadership and their dedication to developing Africa-relevant curricula and conducting staff development in pedagogy, and to the meticulous and careful planning and monitoring of the institution's growth and program thrust.

Though labeled a regional institution, it was decided that ESGE would assume a national focus until the MBA program was firmly established and recognized by the business community, at which time ESGE will become a regional training center for Francophone Africa. A self-imposed constraint is maintaining a gradual rate of growth, thus ensuring that quality control is not jeopardized in the interests of rapid expansion. One way in which quality is maintained is through the staff's control of international assistance, particularly the selection of faculty and materials, so as not to become a repository of what the donor community identifies as ESCE's needs.

IDEP is a Pan-African institute funded by the United Nations, various African Ministers of Plan and, since 1981-1982, Germany, Italy, the Ford Foundation and USAID. Prior to a new director's arrival in 1981, IDEP's financial support and enrollments had dwindled as debates over political ideologies became the norm and the program's economic development and planning thrust disintegrated. Since assuming the director position, Mr. Montasser has strived to achieve a balance between the philosophy of

economic systems and their implications for Africa and practical economic planning techniques and skills. His approach was supported by the Ministers of Plan in member countries; generated increases in contributions from the United Nations and the ministers; and enabled him to raise over \$300,000 in technical assistance from other donors.

Mr. Montasser's intent is to create a truly Pan-African institution, one in which various African regions, languages, (IDEP offers simultaneous translation in French and English), ethnic backgrounds, and political-economic systems are represented equally. Also, he has begun to build IDEP's capacity to perform consulting services; establish links with U.S. and European universities; encourage professional exchanges to form a group of visiting professors; and plan for a time when IDEP accepts students from outside Africa.

A Look at the Numbers

In looking back at the progress of sub-Saharan African higher education over the twenty years since independence, a quantitative improvement is evident immediately. The number of universities has grown from twelve in 1960 to fifty-six in 1980; total university student enrollment in the same period rose from 30,000 to 150,000; and the average annual growth rate of the university student population has been ten to fifteen percent, higher than that of any other level of education.⁷

According to the latest available figures in the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1981, total enrollments in third level institutions (universities and other institutions of higher learning) in sub-Saharan Africa have

increased from 103,000 in 1965 to 409,000 in 1978. This represents an annual average increase of 21.2 percent. The number of teachers at this level has risen proportionately with enrollments; from 10,000 in 1965 to 40,000 teachers in 1978, an annual average increase of 21.4 percent.⁸ The 1:10 teacher/student ratio in African third level institutions is lower than Asia (1:15), Latin America (1:11) and developing countries as a whole (1:12). Viewed in isolation these figures represent impressive gains in post-secondary education.

However, the development of sub-Saharan Africa's post-secondary educational systems and physical infrastructure falls far behind that of other major regions in the world. Africa has the fewest number of universities and the lowest ratio of students enrolled in universities (three percent of the 20-24 year old age group). By comparison, Asia has four times, Latin America five times, and the U.S. thirty-five times the number of university students per capita.⁹ UNESCO's educational statistics indicate that an average of \$21 per capita is spent on education in sub-Saharan countries, slightly below the average of \$26 per capita estimated for developing countries as a whole and less than one-half the expenditures of Asia (\$55 per capita) and Latin America (\$60 per capita).¹⁰

According to UNESCO statistics, in twenty-three sub-Saharan states* an average of 17.3 percent of total government expenditures was spent on education during 1977, 1978 and 1979. Although this figure is higher than

*Figures represent an average of the 1977, 1978 or 1979 expenditures for Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, C.A.R., Congo, Djibouti, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Seychelles, Somalia, Togo, Tanzania, Upper Volta, and Zambia. Data for other countries were unavailable.

the average educational expenditures for eleven Asian nations* (10.9 percent) and eleven Latin American nations** (15.3 percent),¹¹ it is most likely attributable to the variations in the levels of educational development of the three regions. Development activities, particularly the establishment and expansion of educational systems and the major expenditures associated with such efforts, were initiated in many Asian and Latin American countries twenty years prior to African independence. Sub-Saharan Africa is still in its infancy in terms of economic and social development and, as such, must spend larger sums of money to establish the institutional and physical foundations of educational systems.

In spite of the somewhat adequate level of educational expenditures in these twenty-three countries, it is interesting to note that less than fifteen percent of the total was spent on capital investments (buildings, land and construction). Over eighty-five percent of the educational expenditures went towards operating and maintaining existing schools, institutes and universities (current costs). In addition, of the total current expenditures in those twenty-three countries, an average of 17.3 percent was spent on third level education compared with 46.6 percent spent on the primary level and 25.9 percent spent on the secondary level of education.¹²

*Figures represent an average of the 1977, 1978 or 1979 expenditures for Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, India, Indonesia, Korea, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Data for other countries were unavailable.

**Figures represent an average of the 1977, 1978 or 1979 expenditures for Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, Paraguay, Peru, and Venezuela. Data for other countries were unavailable.

Overall, these figures indicate that the capacity of sub-Saharan institutions generally falls short of the national need and demand; and that limited national financial and physical resources result in African dependency on external assistance to meet manpower training goals. And yet, despite the strains imposed on training institutions and programs, a significant amount of third country training has taken place in Africa since the 1960s. It has been supported primarily by private and African government sponsors and, to a lesser extent, by AID, European bilateral donor agencies, and international assistance organizations.

Enrollment in African Institutions

The data on enrollment in African institutions presented below were submitted to UNESCO by the individual countries and presented in its 1981 Statistical Yearbook. Data on total and foreign student enrollments in twenty-eight sub-Saharan countries are presented in Table 1. Of the 195,279 students enrolled in third level institutions in these countries, 11,709 were foreign students,* representing approximately six percent of the total.

*Data include 1975, 1976, 1977 or 1978 enrollment statistics.

TABLE 1**Total and Foreign Student Enrollment in Third Level Institutions
for Twenty-Eight Sub-Saharan African Countries**

Country	Year	Total Enrollment	Foreign Enrollment	Percent Foreign
1 Benin	1978	3,292	16	.5
2 Botswana	1978	860	191	22.2
3 Burundi	1978	1,716	559	32.6
4 Chad	1976	758	45	5.9
5 Congo	1978	5,339	561	10.5
6 Ethiopia	1978	12,179	34	.3
7 Gabon	1976	1,245	228	18.3
8 Ghana	1975	9,079	356	3.9
9 Ivory Coast	1978	12,290	2,084	17.0
10 Kenya	1975	8,601	483	5.6
11 Lesotho	1977	1,398	146	10.4
12 Madagascar	1977	14,116	45	.3
13 Malawi	1976	1,179	3	.3
14 Mali	1978	4,789	93	1.9
15 Mauritius	1978	1,393	10	.7
16 Mozambique	1976	906	206	22.7
17 Niger	1978	939	377	40.1
18 Nigeria	1975	44,964	446	1.0
19 Rwanda	1977	1,134	80	7.0
20 Senegal	1978	10,309	2,582	25.0
21 Sierra Leone	1975	1,642	354	21.5
22 Sudan	1978	25,836	1,154	4.4
23 Togo	1978	3,163	719	22.7
24 Uganda	1977	6,312	118	1.9
25 United Republic of Cameroon	1977	9,060	204	2.3
26 United Republic of Tanzania	1976	3,096	184	6.0
27 Upper Volta	1978	1,281	87	6.8
28 Zambia	1975	8,403	344	4.1
TOTALS		195,279	11,709	6.0

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1981, Paris, France, 1981, p. III 279-289, and p. III-461.

Data from Table 1 on total and foreign student enrollment in third level institutions are distributed by Francophone and Anglophone sub-regions in Tables 2 and 3. There is a significant difference between the two sub-regions. In thirteen out of the nineteen Francophone nations in Africa there are 7,635 foreign students enrolled in third level institutions out of a total 55,315. This represents 13.8 percent of the total. However, in thirteen of the fifteen African Anglophone countries the total number of students enrolled is 124,942, nearly two and one-half times the number in the Francophone countries, yet there are only 3,823 foreign students (3.1 percent of the total).

TABLE 2

**Total and Foreign Enrollment in Third Level Institutions
For Thirteen Francophone African Countries**

Year	Country	Total Enrollment	Foreign Enrollment	Percent Foreign
1978	Benin	3,292	16	.5
1978	Burundi	1,716	559	32.6
1977	Cameroon	9,060	204	2.3
1976	Chad	758	45	5.9
1978	Congo	5,339	561	10.5
1976	Gabon	1,245	228	18.3
1978	Ivory Coast	12,290	2,084	17.0
1978	Mali	4,789	93	1.9
1978	Niger	939	377	40.1
1977	Rwanda	1,134	80	7.1
1978	Senegal	10,309	2,582	25.0
1978	Togo	3,163	719	22.7
1978	Upper Volta	1,281	87	26.9
TOTAL		55,315	7,635	13.8

TABLE 3

**Total and Foreign Enrollment in Third Level Institutions
For Thirteen Anglophone African Countries**

Year	Country	Total Enrollment	Foreign Enrollment	Percent Foreign
1978	Botswana	860	191	22.2
1978	Ethiopia	12,179	34	.3
1975	Ghana	9,079	356	3.9
1975	Kenya	8,601	483	5.6
1977	Lesotho	1,398	146	10.4
1976	Malawi	1,179	3	.3
1978	Mauritius	1,393	10	.7
1975	Nigeria	44,964	446	1.0
1975	Sierra Leone	1,642	354	21.6
1978	Sudan	25,836	1,154	4.5
1977	Uganda	6,312	118	1.9
1976	Tanzania	3,096	184	5.9
1975	Zambia	8,403	344	4.1
TOTAL		124,942	3,823	3.1

The regions of origin of the foreign student populations in third level institutions in Algeria, Ivory Coast, Morocco and Sudan* are presented in Table 4. It may be noted that the Ivory Coast has a larger number of foreign students from sub-Saharan Africa than from other major regions of the world. There are 1,534 sub-Saharan students at Ivorian institutions; nearly seventy-five percent of the total number of foreign students, 2,084. European countries are the only other significant sponsors of foreign students in the Ivory Coast and, most likely, France accounts for the majority.

*These are the only four African countries for which this kind of data are available.

Although Algeria and Morocco have sizeable sub-Saharan student populations (thirty-three percent and thirty percent respectively), the majority of the foreign students in these two countries are from Asia, followed by Arab and other African nations. Combined, these two regions account for sixty-seven percent of the foreign enrollment in Algeria and sixty-five percent of that in Morocco. The large representation of students from these regions is in proportion to the large Arab populations in North Africa (Arab Africa) and the Middle East (Asia).

The Sudan attracts its foreign students primarily from Arab Africa (eighty-five percent of the total) and to a lesser degree from Asia (eleven percent). Only forty-five (four percent) of the total 1,154 foreign students in the Sudan are from sub-Saharan nations.

These data are not surprising given the cultural, religious, and ethnic similarities found throughout many of the Arab countries in these regions. However, it is interesting that with French as their official language Algeria and Morocco do not have a more significant number of Francophone African students. This may in part be attributable to a Black African perception that North Africans are prejudiced against them. The feeling was voiced by several persons interviewed, AID and African government officials alike, that Black Africans were often treated as second class citizens and subjected to racist behavior in North African countries.

TABLE 4

**Foreign Student Population by Sending Region
In Four African Countries**

YEAR	HOST COUNTRY	SENDING REGIONS							TOTAL
		Sub-Saharan Africa	Arab Africa and Other	North America	South America	Asia	Europe	Oceania	
1977	Algeria	442	88	0	4	806	3	0	1,343
1978	Ivory Coast	1,534	14	12	3	74	446	1	2,084
1978	Morocco	373	301	3	0	500	64	0	1,241
1978	Sudan	45	984	1	0	122	2	0	1,154

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1981, Paris, France, 1981, p. III 467-490.

AID-Supported Third Country Training in Africa

Precise data on the numbers of Africans participating in AID-sponsored third country training activities in Africa are not available. However, in September 1981 the Office of International Training surveyed twenty-eight USAID missions and offices in Africa requesting projected numbers of participant trainees in all categories for 1982 and 1983. The data provided in the missions' responses were not organized and presented uniformly, however, it was possible to tally and compare total participant training and third country training projections for the twenty-eight missions.

The total number of trainees projected for 1982 was 2,780. Of these, 408 individuals were to be trained in third countries (primarily African) representing slightly less than fifteen percent of the best estimates for total participant training. For 1983, the figures declined to 2,552 participant trainees and 355 third country training participants, slightly less than fourteen percent of the total. These projections included general development and project-related training in academic and technical long and short-term programs. No precise data were available on fields and levels of study pursued by third country students, however, some responses indicated a greater use of third country training for short-term technical training in agriculture, health, family planning, and education. A smaller number of participants were to enter undergraduate programs in those fields.

Nature of Third Country Training in Africa

Third country training was endorsed by an overwhelming majority of the study populations* as a valuable supplement to in-country and U.S. based training in development assistance programs. Differences of opinion existed regarding the types (formal, non-formal, long-term or short-term); the levels (undergraduate, master's degree, doctoral or post-doctoral); and the fields most appropriate for third country training. There was general agreement on the advantages of training in each geographical area--U.S., in-country or a third country. Most respondents stated that all three sources of training were needed to meet the human resources development challenge facing Africa today.

*The study populations include officials in: 1) AID and other U.S. government agencies, 2) African governments, 3) international organizations, 4) educational associations and institutions, 5) private voluntary organizations, 6) private corporations, and 7) African students in U.S. and Africa.

Study respondents identified a number of advantages of U.S. based training. The most frequently cited benefits were that it provides trainees with important educational advantages which enable African students to acquire "state-of-the-art" scientific knowledge and research experience; to be exposed to an educational methodology that encourages student involvement and practical skills development; and to develop U.S. type management and administrative skills.

Equally as important as the academic or technical training are the broadening experiences of trainees. They are exposed to the socio-economic, political and cultural aspects of U.S. life and they become familiar with U.S. perspectives of foreign relations and domestic policies. By taking advantage of opportunities to develop personal and professional relationships with Americans and join U.S. professional associations and networks, African students can keep abreast of developments in their fields of specialization after they return to their own countries. Also, several African officials praised the influence of the American work ethic on Africans' attitudes and dedication to their jobs.

Respondents in the study pointed out that there are personal prestige and career benefits for African graduates from U.S. institutions, particularly in Anglo, one African countries. Although African attitudes toward indigenous education are changing, deep respect for U.S. institutions prevails and their graduates frequently obtain positions with higher salaries and greater responsibilities than African educated peers. While these professional gains are not universal and exist to varying degrees, they are prevalent enough to contribute to the attractions of U.S. based

training for Africans. Finally, U.S. officials point to the growing cadres of U.S. trained African leaders whose management skills and styles often facilitate the implementation of development assistance programs. In some situations, these leaders possess an affinity for and an understanding of U.S. life and government policies that are crucial to the promotion of U.S. foreign policy objectives in African countries.

In-country training has some advantages over that acquired in the U.S. or in other African countries. Respondents, particularly African officials and students, pointed out that in-country training can better address specific local and national development needs and problems. In addition, training may result in students developing an awareness of the contribution that he or she might make to the country's development. Trainees who remain in a local social and cultural environment generally do not encounter cultural adjustments and language barriers, and the nation is not faced with the problem of "brain drain." In-country training develops national educational institutions and promotes recognition of their programs among the indigenous population.

The advantages of third country training are equally general yet salient as those of U.S. and in-country training. African government officials and educators were particularly emphatic about the relevance of African education to African development needs, and the value of fostering problem-solving skills using indigenous resources within an African context. In addition, all populations interviewed appreciated that third country training exposed African students to the common denominators of nation-building among their countries and to opportunities for sharing insights and knowledge about development processes and approaches.

Apart from the issues of educational and technical relevance, respondents cited the political benefits accrued from inter-African student exchange. In addition to fostering cooperation between sending and host countries, relationships are forged among African students in the academic environment that they continue upon returning to their respective nations. Such relationships contribute to future professional collaboration and inter-African partisanship among countries and, on a larger scale, to the support of a Pan-African political and development orientation.

In a more practical sense, third country training is advantageous because it generally costs less to educate Africans in Africa than in the U.S. and, according to African officials, reduces the migration of educated Africans to developed countries. More importantly, it was stressed in interviews and at the workshop that third country training contributes in the long run to the development of African institutions and strengthens their capacity to become self-reliant.

Quality and Relevance of African Training Institutions

The quality of education and training in Africa as compared to training in the U.S. is an issue of particular concern to USAID training and Africa Bureau officials. They feel that in general African students get a better education if they come to the U.S. rather than attend an African institution. However, most Africans and many USAID mission personnel who were interviewed felt that African educational institutions are capable of offering an adequate educational experience and that AID-supported training with its sectoral emphasis on agriculture and rural development, nutrition, population, health and education, particularly lends itself to educational

resources available in Africa. However, these generalizations about the quality of African education were circumscribed in most cases by the level and field of study being pursued, the qualifications of individual institutions and the attendant management and logistical support offered to third country students.

Findings on appropriate fields and levels of study for U.S. and third country training follow this discussion on quality and relevance. In brief, there is agreement among the study populations that third country training in Africa is most appropriate at the undergraduate level and for much of the short-term technical training which AID supports in the priority fields listed above. Respondents differ in their assessments of quality African graduate programs however. For the most part, the Africans support master's degree training in Africa where available and suitable, while respondents who are based in the U.S. continue to support graduate training here. All populations concur that doctoral and post-doctoral education should be sought in the U.S.

Interview questions concerning the quality of African training and education were translated by African government and institution officials into discussions of educational relevance. The Director of the Cabinet, Ministry of Regional Development in Lome, Togo responded, "Education in African countries resembles the way of life in Togo and utilizes the resources available here. It is appropriate for students to study in the environment in which they will eventually work." The concern that subject matter and institutional environment relate to conditions that graduates will encounter in the workplace was voiced by African officials and educators in Senegal, Somalia and Kenya as well. They feel that instructional

examples, research, case studies, field studies and practicums should be location specific. However, the need for relevance must be balanced by the need for exposure to different ideas, technology, pedagogies, and cultures.

Interestingly, many of the same elements that attract African students to U.S. institutions are causing some African concern with study in the U.S. Africans respect and value the rigorous studies, abundant research materials and equipment, and problem solving philosophy that are characteristic of most U.S. institutions, however, students trained in the U.S. and in other developed countries are often frustrated and incapacitated by the scarcity of resources, technology, and efficient organization when they return to Africa. Students educated in Africa are exposed to appropriate levels of technology and limited resources; they learn to improvise and function in a realistic environment.

Beyond the question of the educational environment, Africa's unfolding continental personality also adds a dimension which African leaders feel is important. This pertains to an affinity, beginning in adolescence and young adulthood, for African points of view, media, issues and conflicts--in short Pan-African ethos. Because efficient management of scarce resources within individual African countries depends to some extent on Pan-African perceptions of commonalities of purpose, then the institutionalization of Pan-Africanism should be encouraged. Pan-Africanism is promoted through third country training.

Relevance also pertains to the commitment of manpower specialists, educators, and students to relate educational objectives to national needs.

African governments and donor agencies recognize that this link between academic interest and development goals is essential to the development of critical masses of skilled Africans. However, respondents agreed that the process of planning African training programs to meet priority development needs of African countries should be strengthened. The absence of such planning efforts has contributed to the unemployment of professionals in fields already saturated, for example, in 1982 the School of Law and Economics, University of Dakar graduated 400 students who did not find jobs. The failure to project needs and plan training in demand fields has increased migration of educated Africans to developed and wealthier countries and, at the same time, has created a scarcity of subject matter specialists trained to educate others. Despite the fact that relevance seems more easily obtainable when Africans study in Africa, forecasting development needs in priority fields and managing the training of students to meet these needs are equally important.

Appropriate Levels and Fields of Study for Third Country Training

Discussions of educational quality sometimes relate more to the availability of certain categories of training than to judgments about training quality. It is a fact that African countries do not have as great a variety of program offerings in critical development fields as is needed to meet their training requirements. The African Manpower Development Project is a regional project "designed to meet critical needs for managerial and technical manpower, and training and research staff in African countries." A 1980 project evaluation provides the following observations on African indigenous training opportunities:

Practically every African state (save for the smaller Lusophone countries) has at least one national university. But, the size, quality and range of offerings varies considerably among universities....Some nations--Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Ivory Coast, Senegal, Sudan, and Nigeria in particular--contain strong universities, or more properly, university systems. Others simply struggle along with mini-institutions with a few offerings of questionable quality. The implications of this disparity for regional planning are striking.

Despite the growing capacity of Africa to provide for its own training, however, it, more than any other region in the developing world, will continue to need training opportunities in the developed world, particularly in technology, the sciences, and management fields, and at the more advanced levels.¹³

Many AID and African respondents adhere to this assessment of African training capacity. However, the team found Africans to be of the opinion that relevant training already is or could be offered in Africa in all of the critical development fields, particularly short-term technical and professional training. They feel that these fields (agriculture, health, population, rural development, etc.) lend themselves to third country training for two reasons: 1) the technology used in the courses resembles that available on the job, and 2) practicums and research contribute to local development and expose students to Africa's real development needs. What is missing in many of the existing African technical and professional training programs is a component that prepares participants to be development trainers. Graduates are often technically competent, but they are unable to teach others their skills.

There is an overwhelming recognition of the complementarity of U.S. based and third country training and of the critical roles played by each in filling Africa's manpower requirements. Reliance on foreign education, training, and research capabilities is universal; it is likely that Africa,

with an institutional capacity that is dwarfed by its educational demand, will always rely in part on external resources. Therefore, it is more realistic to discuss the quality and relevance of third country training in Africa within the context of specific levels, types, and fields of training provided by African institutions.

From the African and international donor point of view, undergraduates should be trained in Africa, particularly in-country, with few exceptions. Several AID officials question whether the Agency even should be involved with undergraduate education; they feel that by and large Africa is self-sufficient at this level, the exceptions being those countries discussed in the section on special country characteristics. Respondents agree that African undergraduate institutions and programs are sufficiently abundant and offer adequate educational experiences. Also, they do not feel that sending young people abroad will necessarily benefit Africa because so few students at that age fully grasp the enormity and nature of African development. Leaving home without a clear understanding of Africa's problems and needs lessens the likelihood that graduates will return to Africa with the necessary skills. In addition, young people are apt to be more enchanted with the way of life in developed countries and, as such, are more susceptible to acculturation and migration. Some finish their education, postpone their return, and pursue additional training without any development-related goals or direction.

Most Africans interviewed for the study also felt that graduate level training below the Ph.D. level should be sought in Africa to the greatest extent possible. UNESCO, UNDP and many AID mission personnel echoed support for third country graduate training while many U.S. based AID officials

questioned the quality of African graduate programs. The latter group's concern centers primarily on the limited resources, i.e. research materials and equipment, library facilities, trained faculty, etc., and the nature of French and British education which stresses theory and deemphasizes practical hands-on experience.

The limited physical and human resources are serious constraints to improving the capacity and quality of African institutions. At this stage in African development they can only be alleviated with external assistance. However, the structure and approach of colonial education are constraints which Africans themselves have begun to address. Directors at national and regional institutions visited in West Africa had initiated programs which required participation in practicums. It is this exposure to local business, government and communities combined with the opportunity to share skills and knowledge with foreign peers that prompt Africans to support third country graduate training.

There was general agreement that overseas study is most beneficial and appropriate at the Ph.D. level. However, most African educators suggested two caveats. First, at the Ph.D. level, candidates should have the freedom to seek the highest quality education in a broadening environment. However, the so called "sandwich plan" wherein the student returns to the environment in which he will be working for research or field studies is regarded as essential to Ph.D. candidates who study abroad. To enable graduate students who cannot return to engage in research which finds its application in Africa, it is suggested that African educational advisors, as well as those in the U.S. participate in the definition of the research.

Secondly, although Africans hold education in high regard, there is some concern about the proportion of students who are pursuing Ph.D.s and other professional degrees as compared to the universe of skilled and educated Africans. Many African states do not have as critical a need for Ph.D. level graduates as for trained manpower at other levels. In fact, some countries are becoming sated with high level professionals in certain fields. For example, the World Health Organization has predicted that by the year 2000 Togo will have all the physicians needed, and Senegal has requested larger numbers of long term specialized training opportunities (e.g., soil sciences, water resources) at the master's level.

By and large Africa currently needs mid-level technicians, administrators, and teachers--people to implement and perform the work of individual nations. Training at this level was neglected during the early stages of nation-building when priority was given to educating high-level personnel who could initiate and plan the development process, rather than those needed to keep it moving forward. African officials in Kenya, Togo and Senegal reiterated the urgency of educating agricultural, health and engineering technologists, extension workers, administrative support personnel, financial and project managers and teachers and, more importantly, providing them with the training skills needed to develop a critical mass at this level.

The feeling was unanimous that short-term training in the form of seminars, workshops, certificate courses, conferences, etc., should be conducted in Africa, and that there should be greater sponsorship of this type of training from the donor community. AID officials noted that over fifty

percent of AID supported training in Africa is going to be in short-term technical training programs. Many of these officials indicated a preference for doing most of the training in Africa. UNESCO's regional office in Nairobi is refusing approximately ninety percent of undergraduate training requests and curtailing sponsorship of Ph.D. candidates. UNESCO is primarily interested in individuals who have received an academic education and are pursuing training that is relevant to the performance of professional duties.

There is already considerable short-term and non-formal training taking place in Africa. However, when technical or professional training programs do not exist, respondents recommend that AID trainers and subject matter specialists collaborate with African educators and institutions to develop the new programs and build an in-house capability to conduct future training activities.

Equivalency

The transfer of coursework credits from one institution to another, within the same African country and to institutions in different countries, is a problem for African students. There are at least two reasons for this problem. One cause of the equivalency problem rests in the developing status of the countries involved. The structuring of many educational system refinements has had to be postponed while African educational resources have been committed to expanding human capacity. Many of these improvements, such as a framework within which students can transfer credits efficiently, are evolving naturally as greater numbers of students change schools during the course of study.

Secondly, African institutions replicate their respective colonial systems of education--French, British, Spanish or Portuguese. The donor community, particularly bilateral agencies, represents a cross section of developed countries, each with differing educational systems and traditions which are incorporated into their education programs in Africa. This has resulted in disparity among African educational program structures, credit systems, entrance and graduation requirements, and pedagogical philosophies. These systemic disparities, the ethnocentric attitudes of nationals for their own institutions and the absence of evaluation and accreditation studies have caused governments and institutions to refuse to recognize the equivalency of programs and degrees throughout Africa.

The problem of equivalency seems especially acute when transferring from Francophone countries to U.S. sponsored institutions anywhere in Africa or to Anglophone institutions. The Director of USAID/Dakar Project Development Office and UNDP's Assistant Regional Representative in Dakar noted that the French play a major role in shaping Senegalese thought and policy; emphasize theory over practical skills in education; and attach great significance to paper qualifications, all of which reinforce the perception that non-Francophone institutions are inferior. This perception is aptly illustrated by the Senegalese government's refusal to recognize a regional agrometeorology center in Niamey, Niger only because it was not structured according to the French system.

Another example of equivalency difficulties can be found in the experience of Egerton College students in Njoro, Kenya. The program at Egerton is three years in length following which a diploma or certificate of attendance

is granted. U.S. colleges and universities grant two years of course credits for students wanting to transfer from Egerton. However, students transferring to the University of Nairobi or to other African universities are required to enter as freshmen. The result of this circumstance is that students are not upwardly mobile. With this end in mind, USAID is trying to persuade the Kenyan government to grant university credit for work at Egerton.

USAID and African officials as well as African students stressed the importance of establishing an equivalency system. Efforts are being made to resolve these problems, particularly in Francophone West Africa. The study team found national studies to address the problem underway in Ivory Coast and Senegal. Respondents pointed out that while the nature and degree of equivalency disparities differed among countries, they serve as a barrier to increased use of third country training and the transfer of students from one African institution to another.

Comparative Costs of Third Country and U.S. Training

The cost of third country training is assumed to be less than the cost of sending students to the U.S. Comparable costs were estimated by several respondents to be approximately \$19,000 to \$21,000 a year to bring an African student to the U.S. for long-term academic training, and between \$4,000 and \$8,000 a year for comparable training in Africa. The estimated costs of developing and conducting short-term training for thirty participants in Africa was \$50,000, approximately \$1,600 per student, compared to \$6,000 to \$8,000 to send a student to a comparable USDA training course. What has to be considered, however, are both the costs and benefits of different types of training, many non-financial, to the sending and recipient countries.

African educational institutions often lose money when they accept students from other African countries because the agreements, which allow students to move from one African country to another, are government-to-government agreements and monies paid to recipient countries often find their way into a general fund rather than institutional coffers. Even when funds are made available to the recipient institution, the cost of educating the student is usually greater than tuition and other charges. This type of reimbursement shortfall is not unique to Africa's educational institutions. However, its impact is likely to be greater in Africa.

One strategy that has been used to compensate for the discrepancy between actual costs of education and the costs charged to sponsors is the concept of full-funding. USAID provided the American University of Beirut (AUB) with actual cost reimbursement for all AID-sponsored participants between 1957 and 1975. In addition, AID's contract with AUB charged the Agency to sponsor 485 students at all times and to pay thesis costs for master's degree candidates, including travel funds to conduct research in their own countries and travel costs of thesis advisors to assist students with research efforts. A past director of AUB noted that the full-cost agreement was instrumental in contributing to the development of AUB by freeing its other limited resources for development activities.¹⁴

One senior AID official submits that third country training should not be expanded for cost savings reasons. Rather, if one goal of third country training is to strengthen Africa's training capacity then monies saved by donor agencies from using African institutions should be used to alleviate the problems that limit African institutional capacities; cost savings support an expansion of third country training when institutional development of African institutions becomes the long-range goal of AID.

Special Country Characteristics that Affect the Use of Third Country Training in Africa

It is impossible to present the findings from an Africa-wide study without making some generalizations. To counterbalance the many similarities found among the study countries, the following discussion addresses those characteristics of several African nations that distinguish them from the norm when considering the use of third country training in Africa. The factors affecting a country's manpower training options include language, politics and ethnicity, and size and economics.

The study team visited Somalia believing that it would be representative of countries participating in third country training as "sending" countries because its development needs are far greater than its capacity to provide training. While this perception of Somalia's training needs and capacity is accurate, complicated language problems constrain Somalia's use of third country training facilities in Africa. The problem in brief is that Somali, a language spoken nowhere else in the world, has replaced Italian and English as the language of instruction in primary and secondary schools since becoming a written language in 1973. Some secondary schools teach in Arabic, but English is not taught until the second year of secondary school. However, the language of instruction at the Somali National University is Italian* while English is the language of instruction at the teachers college and the Somali Institute for Development Administration and Management (SIDAM).

*Italy, as the donor of staff, textbooks and approximately \$50 million a year, requires it as a condition of support.

This situation results in two major problems:

1) As Somali-speaking primary and secondary level students reach university age they will require language training before they can attend their own national university or training institutions.

2) Inasmuch as neither Somali, Italian, nor Arabic is spoken in sub-Saharan Africa it is difficult to place Somalis in third country training facilities in these countries without intensive language instruction.

Although Somalia's language problem in relation to third country training may be more complicated, there are other African countries in which language affects the extent to which third country institutions in Africa are an option for their students. Spanish-speaking Equatorial Guinea and the Lusophone countries, Sao Tome and Principe, Cape Verde, Angola, Mozambique and Guinea Bissau are examples. The AMDP Project Evaluation Paper describes a training program for these former Portuguese colonies, Development Training for Portuguese Speaking Africa (DTPSA), which began in 1975 to offer long and short-term training opportunities at the post-secondary level. Originally training was to be provided in Africa but because of language and logistical difficulties, it shifted to the U.S. and to some extent Brazil and Portugal.¹⁵ A senior AID official noted that third country training for Africans should not be limited to African institutions and that Brazil, with some of the finest tropical agricultural research facilities in the world, is an excellent option for Portuguese-speaking Africans.

Language requirements also impose restrictions on student movement between Anglophone and Francophone Africa. This poses fewer constraints to third country training than exist in Somalia and Lusophone countries

because the myriad programs available within the respective regions facilitate third country training activities. However, a serious constraint to improving student exchange within the continent are the limited language training facilities in Africa.

Secondly, political instability, border conflicts and tribal antipathies were cited as factors that can influence Africans' choices of and options for third country training. While many Africans respect the training that is available in Ghana and Uganda the impact of the internal political situations on the capacity of national institutions and the threat posed to foreign students make it difficult to send students there. Conversely, the elitist attitude of Ugandans toward their national institutions precludes their enrollment in other African institutions. The University of Nairobi, a willing recipient of foreign students, has been closed for a part of each session for ten years because of political problems. Institutional closings impose undue hardships on foreign students in the way of postponed admittance, delayed graduation, and unexpected financial burdens. Often, when countries are threatened by political unrest, foreign students are suspected as instigators and expelled from the host country.

Lastly, the national economies of very small and/or very poor African countries often cannot support a variety of national training and education programs in development fields. Therefore, in order to meet manpower requirements, these nations rely on institutions in larger nations or join together to develop regional strategies that provide for divisions of labor and resources among themselves. One example of a

coordinated effort to maximize training capacity is the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC). SADCC was formed in 1980 by nine South African states* to increase their own interdependence in planning and implementing development projects and to reduce their dependence on South Africa. Manpower development was one of SADCC's three priority development areas.

The Office of South African Regional Affairs, AID assisted SADCC by funding a study to identify the numbers and types of existing national and regional institutions and strategies for using the facilities to meet regional training needs and minimize duplication among member country training resources. The study also identified fields of study for which training at regional centers would be more cost effective than developing individual national capabilities, and program areas sufficiently important to national development to warrant restricting training to in-country institutions.

Third country training options are affected by student language skills, political stability and strength of the economies of sending and receiving countries. These conditions in conjunction with development priorities, level of the training pursued, costs, and equivalent recognition of degrees create a complex matrix which impacts each decision to use third country training. Efforts have been made in this study to identify and assess these variables.

*Swaziland, Botswana, Tanzania, Mozambique, Lesotho, Angola, Zimbabwe, Malawi, and Zambia.

African Institutional Development

Concern about institutional capacity and the willingness of African educational institutions to accept third country students was expressed by AID officials during the course of the study. They feel that individual domestic training capacities are so seriously strained by national development needs that many African institutions are unable to respond to the needs of other countries in any significant way. While all of the African officials interviewed expressed their commitment to respond to Africa's manpower development needs through participation in third country training, they emphasized that the physical, financial and human limitations of African institutions may restrict future increases in the number of places filled by foreign students. The greatest constraints to expanding third country training in Africa are as follows:

1. Staff - Additional skilled human resources are required in all phases of institutional operations and maintenance, including instructors, curriculum developers, educational planners and managers and administrative support personnel. There are not enough Africans who are qualified or available to teach at advanced levels and in highly technical fields; educational, financial and administrative managers are scarce and often lack experience in maintaining basic institutional management systems; and support staff, secretaries, clerks, building engineers, etc., are overburdened and underqualified. African institutions cannot accept substantial increases in enrollment without comparable increases in trained personnel.

2. Materials - A paucity of research equipment, textbooks, professional journals and laboratory materials handicaps African institutions' ability to provide quality education to large numbers of students.

3. Infrastructure - The physical and organizational infrastructures of African institutions create barriers to increased student enrollment. The most costly constraint to overcome is the lack of dormitory space. This is particularly restrictive when considering foreign applicants because the difficulties and costs of obtaining off-campus housing are often prohibitive. In addition, many institutions lack adequate library capacity and laboratory facilities needed to increase student enrollment.

Africans need assistance in planning and structuring institutions and developing suitable registration and institutional statistics records and management systems. The existing organizational undergirding is incapable of responding to increased enrollments.

In view of the severe shortages facing African institutions, why should they accept students from other countries? How can the capacity problems of the present be overcome to reap a future advantage? African and AID officials and educators identified various types of assistance that the international donor community could offer to African governments and institutions to alleviate these problems and encourage increased participation in third country training.

The creation or strengthening of institutions which contribute to sustained improvement in the productivity, incomes or quality of life of a

broad socio-economic group of indigenous people is one of AID's four main approaches to international development.¹⁶ Also, some AID officials view third country training as inherently supportive of indigenous educational institutions and processes and, therefore, of institutional development. A number of respondents remarked that AID's use and support of African training facilities is seen as tangible evidence of the developed world's recognition and that this influences the respect Africans accord their own institutions. In addition, whatever financial benefits accrue as a result of third country training sponsorship contribute to African institutional development.

Respondents suggested various programs which AID could offer to increase the capacity of African institutions to accept foreign students. In several instances, the directors of institutions identified the need for skilled faculty and staff as their first priority. In one case, a school director noted that he had raised more money than the institution required but he was unable to locate and hire qualified instructors and curriculum development specialists. Africans feel strongly that one key to the development of African education is technical assistance in the form of administrators, managers, professors, researchers and trainers who can make a long-term commitment to strengthening the institutional infrastructure by collaborating with and training African counterparts and support personnel. One approach that was reiterated throughout the study is the establishment of professional exchanges between U.S. and African universities and training facilities. Africans feel that U.S. academicians can offer a great deal to the development of educational management systems, curriculum, research projects, etc., if they are willing to stay

at the institution for more than a year. Donor support of staff development activities and skills training would do much to reduce the shortages of skilled human resources.

Along with staff support, increased student housing is a serious need at African universities and training centers. For example, officials at the Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI) in Arusha, Tanzania, speak of the need to accommodate an additional 80 students; yet, because of insufficient funds, they are unable to build additional dormitories. While AID has moved away from a traditional "bricks and mortar" approach to development it may be possible to consider building dormitories as an investment in expanding institutional capacity. As one AID official put it, "A case can always be made for easing a bottleneck. If AID found a vocational/technical school that was vital to the training of electricians in a particular country and the key to training more electricians was to add an instructor, run a second shift or build a dormitory, then AID could assist. AID's strategy now should be to search out and remove existing bottlenecks."

The Management of Third Country Training in Africa

A program for expanded use of third country training will confront a number of management constraints. Paramount among these is the insufficient number of AID field training officers to manage the program. AID has approximately twenty-one local employees who serve as training officers in the African missions and according to Africa Bureau and Office of International Training officials these personnel are overburdened and in many cases undertrained. USAID field training and program officers support third country training but concur that they are hampered in their

efforts to place students in African universities and training centers by the lack of information on available programs. This complaint was echoed in the AMDP project evaluation paper:

Beyond the traditional, degree-oriented training programs, there are undoubtedly other possibilities for training in Africa. Unfortunately, one hears of them vicariously and records their existence informally. Thus, for example, we know of the Pan-African Institute for Development (PAID) in Cameroon, the Regional Center for Training Road Heavy Equipment Mechanics (CERFER) in Togo, and so on. Each of these, we know, provides specialized training opportunities which could be of tremendous use to AMDP. Yet here is no comprehensive guide which can help AID and others to make use of the rich variety of training opportunities we believe to exist in Africa.¹⁷

However, the study found that considerable information on African training resources does exist, but that this information has not been compiled in comprehensive and easily accessible sources. Currently, the information is found in sources such as the International Handbook of Universities and the Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, 1982 that include basic information regarding location, size, faculty, academic year, and language of instruction for universities in continental Africa. In addition, all but the newest institutions produce catalogs, prospectus, and/or annual reports which describe facilities, faculty and staff, course offerings, and program structure. University and institution administrators interviewed recognized the value of public relations in increasing operating revenues and attracting international attention and they willingly disseminate information on their institutions. Associations such as the Association of African Universities and the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Public Administration regularly publish descriptive and statistical data on member institutions. AID, The African-American Institute, UNESCO and other international organizations have supported

recent data gathering activities on African institutions resulting in a variety of directories and inventories.*

In response to the need for information, the concept and practice of professional networks are beginning to emerge. In Kenya, the team discovered that an agricultural extension training officer is organizing a national training committee composed of people and groups involved in agricultural training. Committee members will identify and disseminate information on agricultural and other developmental conferences, workshops, and meetings held in Kenya. African bodies such as The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), and the African Association of Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) are repositories of information about which types of organizations offer non-formal and short-term training and in what general area of specialization. They offer a starting point for training officers who match training to specific needs.

The difficulties in making arrangements for participants to attend third country institutions was a recurring concern of USAID officials. The process is time consuming, requiring identification and assessment of institutions, negotiating between sending and receiving governments and making logistical arrangements with receiving institutions. Respondents indicated that these constraints often resulted in the use of U.S. institutions simply because it is easier and faster.

The management difficulties encountered when sending African students to institutions in other African countries, are compounded by the need to monitor progress and to provide assistance, such as in locating housing.

*Appendix C lists some of these references.

The lack of sufficient dormitories and the shortage and high cost of housing in some countries is a major barrier. In Lome, the problems encountered by foreign students prompted the U.S. Ambassador to establish a committee to help the University of Benin improve its ability to handle lodging, food, and transportation problems of foreign students. The USIS Director chairs the committee and the OAR staff person with responsibility for training serves on it with university representatives.

Despite the difficulties experienced by USAID personnel in managing third country training, they support it as a viable alternative to U.S. based training and feel that the constraints can be overcome. The key to a successful third country training program, according to the study respondents, is competent training officers. The respondents felt that these officers should receive additional training in resource utilization and management of the training process. Interviewees in the missions stressed the need for the compilation and dissemination of descriptions and assessments of available African training resources, including information on institutional capacity, program offerings and research capabilities. They suggested that this information include training opportunities available through U.S. university programs in Africa, international organizations, private sector firms and parastatals.

Endnotes

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3. Ibid.
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6. UNESCO, Regional Office for Science and Technology, ANSTI: African Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions (Nairobi: UNESCO, Regional Office for Science and Technology), p. 1-3.
7. Charles H. Lyons, "Africa's Overseas Students," World Higher Education Communique (Winter, 1980), p. 6.
8. UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, 1981 (Paris, 1981), p. II-11.
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12. Ibid., p. IV-35 to IV-37.
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14. U.S. Agency for International Development, Office of International Training, "Workshop Proceedings: Third Country Training in Africa" (Washington, D.C., December 9, 1982), p. 5.
15. Overseas Liaison Committee, The African Manpower Development Project: An Evaluation, p. 20-21.
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SECTION III - CONCLUSIONS

A number of conclusions have been drawn based on the study findings presented in Section II of this report. The conclusions form the basis for the recommendations set forth in Section IV.

1. While Africans seek to reduce dependency on overseas education and training and strive for educational self-sufficiency, the current and potential development of African systems of higher education require continued reliance on foreign institutions if individual nations expect to overcome critical manpower shortages. A training strategy which combines third country, in-country and U.S. based training is the only way in which sufficient manpower training activities can be accomplished. However, greater recognition and use of qualified African institutions by AID and other donors will contribute to achieving a more equitable and appropriate balance of training locations for African trainees.

2. Increased emphasis on third country training in Africa is strongly supported 1) as a logical extension of USAID and other donor support to African educational and training institutions and programs, 2) to develop African institutional qualifications and capacities, and 3) because there are African institutions which are capable of providing quality training experiences, especially for undergraduate, selected graduate and most short-term technical and vocational training programs in priority development fields.

3. There are valid reasons, both political and educational, for continuing to place some African students in U.S. institutions and programs. U.S. training offers distinct advantages over African education particularly at advanced levels and in technical fields of study. The importance

of the potential contributions of a highly qualified vanguard of African political, scientific and industrial leaders should be weighed against the argument that many U.S. academic and technical programs are inappropriate for Africa's level of development. AID sponsored doctoral candidates should be trained in the U.S., but both African and U.S. master's degree programs should be carefully investigated by USAID personnel when placing students at this level.

4. African governments, universities and institutions overwhelmingly support the expansion of third country training in concept and, to a lesser extent, in practice. Few institutions appear capable of accepting larger numbers of foreign students without comparable increases in structural, administrative, and faculty undergirdings. The current level of foreign student enrollments at African institutions, although impressive, is apt to remain constant or decline in the wake of burgeoning national training needs.

5. Third country training and its supporting activities contribute to the development of African regional and national training institutions, enlarge the reputation of receiving institutions, foster inter-African collaboration and cooperation, and contribute to the spirit and movement of Pan-Africanism.

6. AID should encourage African planning and education officials to emphasize a positive relationship between manpower needs and the selection and placement of trainees. Although AID conducts development projects and supporting training activities in demand fields identified by host governments, greater coordination is needed to ensure the availability and relevance of jobs for trainees returning to the workplace. African

governments and institutions need to counsel students regarding fields of study pursued and job market supply and demand.

7. Whenever possible, Africans pursuing graduate and doctoral degrees in the U.S. should conduct thesis and dissertation research in their own countries, or, at a minimum, structure and focus the research on the African environment. USAID should collaborate with students and their academic advisors in the identification and selection of Africa-relevant research projects.

8. The greatest manpower needs of African nations lie at the middle level of demand occupations. While recognizing the importance of advanced training for high level policymakers, administrators, scientists and researchers, the absence of qualified professional and support staff to implement and maintain projects and systems seriously hampers the development process in many African countries. The gap at this level will enlarge unless more African workers receive training in the art of training other people to apply new skills and knowledge to improve their personal and professional lives.

9. The coexistence of various educational systems and philosophies has created serious equivalency problems which limit the potential of third country training in Africa, particularly between East and West Africa and between Francophone and U.S. based or supported institutions. African governments should be encouraged in their efforts to investigate and remove these barriers to student exchange.

10. Educating Africans at third country institutions or training programs is generally less expensive than sending students to the U.S. both for

long-term academic and short-term technical training; however, third country training should not be used or expanded for purely economical reasons. Financial savings should be used to offer African institutions full funding of AID trainees, to ease the institutional bottlenecks that restrict third country student capacity and to provide institutions with incentives to accept greater numbers of third country students.

11. Available cost estimates of U.S. and third country training further the argument for expansion of third country training. However, selection of educational facilities must consider, in addition to cost considerations, the quality and relevance of the program pursued, the complexities involved in placing and monitoring students in respective institutions, and the residual benefits (exposure, technology, etc.,) accrued by the student.

12. The time and costs of providing language instruction for participants from Somalia, Lusophone and Spanish-speaking countries--nations with vast training needs and few developed resources--behoove donor groups to consider creating institutions or institutional networks that serve these individual constituencies, or using more non-African third country training sites, e.g., Latin America, Portugal, Spain, the West Indies, and Arabic-speaking countries.

13. In addition to the disparate educational philosophies between much of East and West Africa, the paucity of English and French language training centers restricts student transfer between these regions. Institutions offering language training or simultaneous translation capabilities promote exchange among African countries and offer less-costly alternatives to training non-English speakers in the U.S.

14. The greatest constraints to an expanded program of third country training in Africa are the systemic deficiencies of African institutions. In spite of overwhelming African support for third country training, opportunities for student exchange could improve with more and better qualified faculty and staff, equipment and material resources, administrative/management systems support, and additional student housing.

15. The desire of Africans to raise the quality of educational programs and enlarge the indigenous and third country student populations at post-secondary institutions has created an atmosphere that is conducive to incentive arrangements. African institutions will make space available for more third country students in exchange for 1) technical assistance in the form of trainers, professors, administrators who will make a long-term commitment to training their African counterparts, 2) additional library, laboratory or housing facilities, and 3) up-to-date equipment and materials for research, field studies and practicums. In many cases, these forms of assistance are preferred over financial assistance from donor agencies.

16. There are several African regional and national institutions that are qualified and eager to offer consulting services to donor agencies, the private sector, and their own and other national governments. Such educational and research centers offer the relevant experiences of staff and students in the conduct of scientific and social science research, socio-economic analyses, and management and organizational development as well as a cost-effective alternative to U.S. consulting firms. Contracting with indigenous institutions contributes to the solvency of the institution and its development activities, and fosters professional

relationships between U.S. clients and African consultants--relationships that are potentially beneficial to U.S. interests in Africa.

17. The management of an expanded third country training program in Africa would be severely handicapped by the current number of field training officers, the magnitude of their present responsibilities, and their lack of experience and qualifications in managing third country training programs. To successfully effect an expanded program, AID training officers will require training in resource allocation and management and access to regional or subregional training support centers.

18. Among other reasons, third country training opportunities are not used to maximum potential because field personnel are unaware of African education and training resources. Though still deficient, there is considerable information available which describes African institutions and training programs. The difficulties inherent in locating and receiving the information from African governments, schools, associations, etc., restrict USAID training officers in their searches for appropriate training opportunities and minimize their reliance on African facilities. An easily accessible central clearinghouse that maintains and updates information on African training resources would contribute to maximum utilization of third country training facilities.

19. Even when appropriate facilities are located in Africa, training officers are constrained in their efforts to place students in them by the inadequate communications and bureaucratic red tape that exist within and between African institutions and government offices. These create problems when processing applications and admittance procedures and providing financial and logistical support to the student placed in a

third country.

20. The responsibility of USAID toward AID training participants requires reliable and continuous support for Africans studying in third countries. Systems that provide for the monitoring of third country students' personal well-being and educational progress are lacking; USAID mission personnel are reluctant to send students to sites where such support systems are not in place.

SECTION IV - RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, it is recommended that USAID increase its use of third country training at African institutions particularly for short-term, undergraduate, and graduate training programs. Third country training proves mutually beneficial to U.S. foreign policy objectives--by fostering inter-African cooperation and exchange USAID's reputation as a development assistance organization is enhanced--and to the development of African institutions and manpower goals. The study recommends the following approaches for implementing an expanded program of third country training in Africa.

RECOMMENDATION: Revise USAID policy on third country training in Africa

Revise USAID policy on third country training in Africa to mandate an increase in the use of third country training for AID participants. The policy framework should include an outline of the program's purpose, goals and structure and the roles and responsibilities of USAID Washington and field staff with respect to instituting the third country training program.

RECOMMENDATION: Institute a comprehensive third country training program within the Bureau for Africa in cooperation with the Office of International Training.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The structure of the comprehensive third country training program should consist of a central program office located within the Bureau for Africa, Washington, D.C.; four regional support centers, one each in West, East and South Africa and the Sahel Region; USAID missions and offices; and an African educational association such as the Association of African Universities (AAU). Including the latter organization in this program from the beginning is crucial to the long-term existence and success of an organized approach to

third country training in Africa. Collaboration with AAU enables the organization to build an internal capacity to augment AID's program activities and to manage the program in its entirety in the future if AID support is withdrawn.

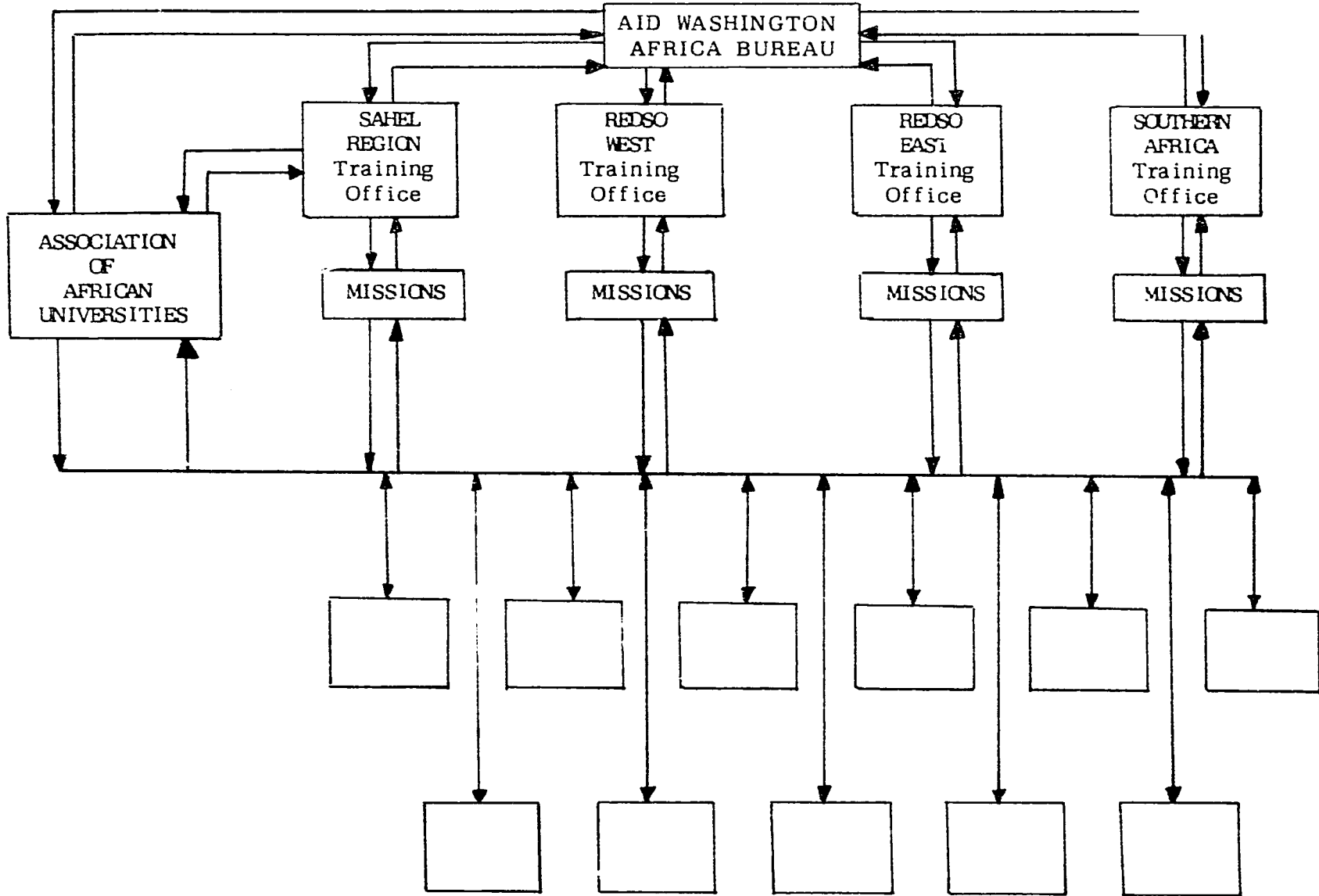
The chart on the following page illustrates the relationships between and among these groups and with African national and regional training institutions and associations. The central office in Washington, D.C. supervises and provides support to the regional centers which, in turn, interface directly with the AID missions and offices in their respective regions, AAU, and the African training institutions and associations.

ORGANIZATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

There are four primary functions of the Third Country Training in Africa Program as a whole. Each of the organizational units, Central Office, Regional Centers, missions and offices, AAU, has distinct responsibilities in all four areas. These functions and responsibilities are 1) information flow, 2) training and staff support, 3) decision-making guidelines, and 4) evaluation.

1. Information Flow - The identification, management and dissemination of information on training institutions, universities, short-term seminars and workshops, and non-formal training activities comprises the largest area of organizational responsibility. In order to maintain the most comprehensive and current repository of statistical and descriptive educational data available, it is recommended that USAID establish a computerized clearinghouse within the central office in Washington, D.C. It is anticipated that information will be solicited from African universities, professional associations, training institutions and other groups which

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coordinate or conduct training activities, by the regional centers, USAID missions and offices and AAU, which in turn will submit the data to the clearinghouse to be organized and cataloged. All information received at the clearinghouse should be cross-indexed and should include the following data: Name of sponsoring institution or organization, country where training is located, type and length of program, level of program (undergraduate, graduate, certificate, etc.), major fields of study, course offerings, admission requirements, selection process, costs, in-country support available, etc. The clearinghouse will respond to specific requests from the regional centers, missions and offices. Standard information request forms will be used by field officers.

2. Training and Staff Support - The second area of organizational responsibility lies in the design and conduct of training activities for a variety of participants. The four regional offices will provide training support in the form of design and conduct of inservice training for AID field training and program officers on managing the third country training process; training of AAU staff in managing the four areas of program responsibility; and coordinating and/or conducting training programs for AID-sponsored participants on a regional basis when requested by missions. The central office will provide technical assistance to the regional offices on an as needed basis. In addition, regional center staff will support the AID mission personnel to facilitate the expansion of third country training activities. Such support will include but is not limited to making travel and housing arrangements for AID participants, locating local associations or PVOs in host cities to provide on-site support and monitor student's progress, preparing informational packets on the host institution, country, people, etc., for AID third country participants.

3. Decision-Making Guidelines - The third role performed by the Third Country Training in Africa Program involves decision-making with respect to the selection of institutions for individual participants based on sectoral area, type of program, geographical area preferred, capacity of institutions, and level of support available in-country. This role will be assumed at the request of individual program and training officers in the field. Additionally, regional center personnel may be asked to consult with mission and host government officials during the planning and selection of development training activities.

4. Evaluation - The Third Country Training Program will have responsibility for acquiring and conducting evaluations of training programs and institutions in Africa and in other developing countries which may be appropriate for African students. Also, the central office or regional centers will contract with U.S. or indigenous consultants to conduct institution and/or program specific evaluations. The evaluations will be qualitative and/or quantitative and may be based on student and faculty evaluations, interviews with AID-sponsored third country participants, studies and assessments conducted by African governments, AID and other donors, PVOs, and international organizations. The evaluations will be stored in the central clearinghouse and will be made available to the regional centers, AID training officer and other interested parties.

RECOMMENDATION: Provide selected institutions with incentives to increase third country student capacity.

Channel resources to a specific number of African training institutions to expand their capacity for third country training activities. The institutions selected should offer programs in those development fields for which

the most serious manpower shortages exist. Participating institutions may include the national universities in Ivory Coast, Kenya and Cameroon, Egerton Agricultural College, IDEP, PAID and ESAMI--institutions to which AID has committed resources in the past. Depending upon the individual institutional constraints to increased third country student enrollments, USAID incentives may include the following:

- Construction of on-campus dormitories and laboratory facilities;
- Technical assistance to augment indigenous staff and faculty and conduct staff development activities;
- Provision of laboratory and instructional equipment and materials;
- Development and implementation of more efficient administrative and management information systems;
- Provision of simultaneous translation equipment or language training facilities;and
- Contracts with U.S. universities and institutions for faculty and staff exchange programs with African institutions, including research, curriculum, and educational management specialists.

RECOMMENDATION: Institute the provision of full-funding for all AID sponsored African participants attending third country institutions.

Complete coverage of participant costs will encourage institutions to accept students from other African countries when this practice is restricted by resource and space limitations. Full cost reimbursements to third country host institutions contributes, although nominally, to the institutions' solvency and developmental efforts.

RECOMMENDATION: Increase the amount of short-term training conducted in African countries.

a) Contract with U.S. universities and institutions, such as the Franco-phone Development Management Seminar at the University of Pittsburgh, to design and/or conduct short-term training events in collaboration with

African institutions; b) commission U.S. subject matter/training specialists to conduct train-the-trainer seminars for staff members at African institutions in order to develop the capacity of African institutions to provide AID development training programs; and c) commission qualified African regional and national institutions to provide on-site training to administrators and potential administrators at African institutions.

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APPENDIX B THIRD COUNTRY TRAINING INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTRODUCTION: Jeffalyn Johnson and Associates, Inc. (JJ&A) is a management consulting firm working with the Office of International Training and the Africa Bureau, USAID, to conduct a study of third country training (TCT) in Africa. The purpose of this study is to expand the body of knowledge regarding TCT in Africa and to encourage dialogue about the subject.

JJ&A is collecting information about third country training in Africa through a literature review and interviews with individuals, like you, who are involved in international education and training and are knowledgeable about the topic of TCT in general or in Africa.

For the purpose of this study, TCT is defined as the educational exchange of sub-Saharan Africans (excluding South Africa) to institutions within continental Africa. This includes transfer for the purpose of attending undergraduate and graduate programs and academic and technical, long and short-term training programs.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

1. What have been your experiences with TCT? How do you define TCT?

2. What current responsibilities do you have in this area?

3. What are the strengths and weaknesses of TCT in providing opportunities to support development goals?

4. What are the economic factors related to the use of TCT in Africa?
What are the political factors related to the use of TCT?
What are the socio-cultural factors related to the use of TCT?

5. Is TCT a viable alternative to education in the United States or in another developed country in terms of quality, relevance and availability? If so, to what extent?

6. If TCT is not a viable alternative, why not? What are the constraints to maximizing the potential and viability? What human, material, and financial resources are needed to increase its viability?

7. Are there specific fields and levels of study which are better suited to U.S. based training? Why?
Are there specific fields and level of study which are suited to TCT?

6. What is the African (Ivorian, Senegalese, Togolese, Kenyan, Somali) perception of TCT in Africa with respect to quality, relevance, etc.?
9. How would you rate the issue of cost-effectiveness as a realistic argument to support increased utilization of TCT in Africa?
10. How would you evaluate "brain drain" as a problem affecting African development?
11. To what extent does "transfer of technology" occur when Africans are brought to study in the U.S.? How appropriate or relevant is that technology to the needs of African countries?
12. What role can U.S. multinationals play in using or expanding the capacity of African institutions?
13. What role can U.S. universities play with regard to TCT?

IDENTIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONS AND RESOURCES:

14. Identify universities, regional and national training institutes, other sponsors which offer academic and technical education and training through formal or informal, short-term programs:
15. Identify the extent and nature of student transfer among African nations:
16. Identify additional sources of information and statistics on TCT in general and in Africa:
17. Identify individuals who are knowledgeable about the topic and who are located in the U.S. or the field study countries (Ivory Coast, Togo, Senegal, Kenya, Somalia) to contact for information or interviews:

AID/MISSION PERSONNEL ONLY:

18. Should AID support the expansion of TCT in Africa? Explain why?

APPENDIX C
SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON AFRICAN TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

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