Progress Towards Universal Primary Education

A Commonwealth Survey

Commonwealth Secretariat

Progress Towards Universal Primary Education

A Commonwealth Survey
by R. L. Smith

Education Division
Commonwealth Secretariat

COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

Marlborough House Pall Mall London SW1Y 5HX

ISBN 0 85092 158 9

Copies may also be purchased from the Publications Section of the Commonwealth Secretariat.

Printed and Published by the Commonwealth Secretariat

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Commonwealth Ministers of Education meeting in Accra for the Seventh Commonwealth Education Conference recommended that 'the Commonwealth Secretariat, in consultation with governments concerned, should assemble information on the steps being taken to implement programmes of universal primary education in member countries, and make this information available to other countries'.

In response to this recommendation, the Secretariat commissioned Mr. R.L. Smith to conduct a survey of progress towards universal primary education in developing countries of the Commonwealth. This report is a summary of the findings of that survey.

The survey reveals that a number of countries, even among those which gained independence in recent times, have enjoyed universal primary education for some considerable time. It also reveals that some countries have adopted an evolutionary approach to UPE rather than try to set fixed target dates for it.

The high cost of formal schooling has been a major factor in delaying the implementation of UPE in most countries and so a particularly valuable feature of this report is that which describes the alternative and compensatory efforts being made by a number of countries to achieve UPE.

The material presented in this publication is derived from a variety of official and unofficial sources and does not commit Commonwealth Governments or the Commonwealth Secretariat to any particular viewpoint. There are obvious difficulties in preparing for publication a wide-ranging survey such as this compiled as it was from a variety of sources. Details have had to be omitted for the sake of compressing the collected information into readable form; some details are missing because the questionnaires returned were themselves incomplete or not returned at all. Material supplied from different sources is difficult to shape harmoniously or to present with unified emphasis. Nevertheless it is hoped that the information which this study has collected and the discussion of issues which it raises will help countries to move towards UPE more quickly and avoid some of the difficulties that others have experienced in their efforts to achieve it.

Education Division
Commonwealth Secretariat

THE NATURE OF UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

Educational expansion and the schooling crisis

Since the Second World War the most remarkable development in international affairs has been the achievement of independence by so many formerly colonial territories. The coming of self-determination has led to drives to banish poverty, weakness and separation from the good things of life. "Development" has become a priority - a rising standard of living, industrial and urban growth, the rise of meritocracy; all form part of the expectations of people more able to determine their own future. The planning of development and change has become a major preoccupation of "new" governments.

This pressure to "develop" has become intensified as gaps between rich and poor countries have increased. Between 1974 and 1975 the average increase in per capita incomes in the rich countries at US $480 exceeded the average total income per head in the developing countries at US $416 (World Bank Atlas, London, 1978). Even amongst the poorer countries disparities have grown. The better off saw their average annual incomes grow at seven times the rate of some poorer countries between 1960 and 1975.

Such bald figures, even if accurately interpreted, are open to a variety of levels of acceptance. At the very least they serve to illustrate that pressure to

modernize and develop has become increasingly acute. Few governments have deliberately chosen the path of non-modernization.

Education, in the sense of formal schooling, has long been viewed as the "key that unlocks the door of modernization" (Harbison & Myers). The development plans of virtually all emergent countries lay great emphasis on the pre-eminent importance of education. The great international conferences of the 1960's in Karachi, Addis Ababa and Santiago gave impetus to and provided a rationale for the "rush to schooling". Targets were set; by 1980, it was recommended that, "primary education shall be universal, compulsory and free". The view that "education, under appropriate conditions is gainful economic investment and contributes to economic growth" (Addis Ababa Conference, 1962) having been generally accepted, it inevitably came about that formal schooling became accepted as the major tool or vehicle for modernization and development. Pressure for schooling did not arise from the economists alone. The political and social arguments in favour of mass provision were equally strong: Governments achieve their goals more rapidly with an educated populace; notions of national identity and integration may be reinforced through school systems; access to elite groups becomes possible for a wider section of the population; the teaching force may act as a bridge between "the people" and those in authority. Faced with problems of making the rural environment more attractive, governments have looked to schools as centres of community activity and to educated citizens as agents of change.

For these and other reasons, dramatic increases in school provision

characterize most of the new nations which have arisen over the last thirty years. Now is the time to ask if the promise inherent in wide-spread schooling has been fulfilled, if the hopes of the fifties and sixties have been justified. Commentators like Coombes, Abernethy and the World Bank are pessimistic. Schooling has been considered "a major instrument for the political, social, cultural and economic modernization of the developing world in the 1950's and 1960's" (World Bank, Education Sector Working Paper, 1974). Over those twenty years aggregate increases in enrolments were:

First level	211%	
Second level	465%	
Third level	511%	(World Bank, Education SWP 1974)

However, by the 1970's enrolments had stagnated. Education had contributed to development problems through escalating costs, mismatch of graduates to job-opportunities, political activism of the dissatisfied and other equally unlooked-for results. Schooling is no longer so readily seen as the panacea for development problems. Universal primary education, variously defined, may be interpreted as the major ingredient in the educational panacea about which so many second thoughts have been expressed. So questions must be raised - what is the current "state of play" with UPE and what lessons have been learned? The main task of this report summary is to pursue the following questions:

(a) What progress has been made towards UPE, particularly in Commonwealth countries?

(b) How do individual countries interpret UPE and what are the aims of their provision?

(c) What alternative and innovative strategies are being adopted in order to achieve the aims of UPE?

The examination of such questions may lead to a reconsideration of the "crisis" view of school provision. Phillips writes, "Those who believe today that education can change the course of civilization base their view less on the automatic gains from education than on the possibilities of fundamental change in education itself....." (Basic Education A World Challenge).

The shift in emphasis from a crisis to a challenge reflects more than the mere power of positive thinking. If a universalizing of opportunity for learning and self-improvement can be brought about by a sharing of successful strategies, developing variety in ways and means of achieving our objectives and adapting school systems to realistic targets,then the crisis may be translated into a challenge. The view which develops in this summary is that school systems are adaptable and therefore amenable to change and improvement. Further, governments have invested too much in their schools to abandon them or even partially dismantle them. What they are most likely to seek is help in deciding how to use the apparatus more effectively.

The nature of UPE - some distinctions to be made

Before examining progress towards UPE more closely it is necessary first to make some distinctions concerning the overall concept of universal primary education. The dangers of generalizing from preconceived notions of what may or may not constitute UPE are clear. It

may well be that no all-embracing definition exists or even needs to be sought. However, some separating out of the possible ingredients of universal provision may still be helpful.

(a) Universal

At its most simple this term may mean that all the target population actually attend school, as with primary age pupils in Barbados, Cyprus, Tonga and other Commonwealth countries. Again "universal" may merely mean that access is provided but the concept of compulsion remains open.

Further, countries may have legislation demanding universality and even compulsion dating from many years ago yet have no means of putting the legislation into practice. This is universality on paper but not in fact.

Frequently, universality is claimed because of high levels of enrolment - yet attendance may be at a very low level. "Universal" may therefore apply to very high levels of attendance in a compulsory or voluntary system; a right of access only; an unfulfilled but statutary aim; high enrolments with low attendance rates.

(b) Primary

Such terms as "basic education" and "first cycle" have been added to primary and elementary in describing the young child's first experience of organized, formal schooling. The "classical" model of a seven year cycle of primary education conducted in a special school building by

full-time teachers within a system of schooling is now open to considerable variation. The plans for a great spread of literacy and numeracy, life-skills and awareness expressed by the international conferences and aid agencies were largely envisaged in terms of formal school systems. One of the tasks of this study is to draw attention to innovations and developments which replace, supplement or complement the "formal schooling" view of what primary education is to be.

(c) Education

To say that "education equals schooling" may be a good rule of thumb when reading national development plans. However, the differences between the terms are well documented. In any discussion of UPE, it may well be a formal system of primary schooling, a cluster of non-formal programmes, a variety of multimedia approaches or adult literacy drives which are under discussion. Certainly one should be aware that primary education may no longer be taken exclusively to mean "instruction of young children in a formal school system".

Efforts towards UPE - variety in practice

It may not be possible to define UPE except in the most general terms - "that state of educational practive where, by conscious effort, communities attempt to make opportunities for learning and self-improvement available to all their peoples". As will become clear from later sections of this summary, provision for UPE may in practice include some of the following:

(a) A programme for implementation or a general, evolutionary development towards full attendance

Ghana and Nigeria represent countries where a programme for UPE with clearly defined starting and conclusion dates has been instituted. Countries like Botswana and Swaziland have a more general aim of school expansion until universality is achieved. Malaysia was already moving towards 100% attendance when full implementation began in 1962. A third pattern may involve integrating formal school expansion and development with adult leteracy, youth organizations and other less formal approaches.

(b) Compulsion or voluntary attendance

Compulsory school attendance has long been a feature of primary schooling in some Commonwealth countries. In others, compulsion has been avoided because schools could not cope with the large numbers involved and the problem of fee-paying is not easily solved. Compulsion is often a long-term aim as expressed in national development plans. Of the thirty-one Commonwealth countries surveyed, twelve demand compulsory attendance. The Seychelles which enjoys over 95% primary school attendance, still maintains a voluntary approach.

(c) Fee-paying or fee-free

This area is often difficult to separate from that of compulsion. Attendance cannot be compelled where fees are demanded. Again, even in apparently fee-free systems,

fees are disguised as text-book charges or building levies and so on. Freedom from fees at the early stages is a device used in countries like Kenya in order to encourage enrolment. In effect, true universalization must depend on freedom from fees.

(d) School-based instruction or centred on less formal methods

Provision need not be one or the other. Formal school resources may be used for teaching adults and school-leavers. "IMPACT" type projects may blur the sharp division between what is school and what is non-school. (Project IMPACT: an experiment in mass education, IDRC, Ottawa 1977). The nature of formal schools may also be changed as in Papua New Guinea's Community Schools and the recycling of schooling in Tanzania. Of the thirty-one Commonwealth countries surveyed, twenty-eight base their provision on formal primary school systems. A further seven supplement their provision for basic education with less formal methods.

(e) Age specific or open entry

Many countries specify quite clearly the duration, entry age and completion age of a basic cycle of schooling. Nigeria's UPE programme is a good example of this approach. As recently as June 1978. India has experienced controversy over proposals to change these specifications fairly radically (Times Educational Supplement, 30/6/78). An important aspect of the Project IMPACT innovations in the Philippines is the concept of entry and re-entry. More

countries seem to be experimenting with alternative interpretations of the "appropriate age".

(f) Government sponsored efforts and local community initiatives

The centralized model of universal provision entirely government financed and controlled is also a changing one. Local authority and community efforts may set up and finance much of what goes on in schools (see the School Improvement programmes of India and the 1976 Education Plan of Papua New Guinea which encourages parental contributions in cash and kind). One of the major problems encountered in Nigeria's programme of UPE has been that of over-centralized control. Commentators suggest that high levels of "grassroots" control are essential for true universalization. However, the Sierra Leone government has been discouraged from over-devolving control simply because the local administrative structure is not strong enought to cope with the added burdens of school administration.

(g) Unofficial schools and over-abundant child populations

A weakness of official figures for enrolments presented by many countries may well be caused by insufficient knowledge of how many children wish to attend. An extreme case is reported by Hawes and Bwanswa-Sekandi in "Teacher Education in New Countries", May 1969. In one district of Uganda more children were enrolled in unofficial schools than there were in the official ones. T.M. Bray reports in a "Savannah" article of June 1977 enrolments of

250% more children in Kano State, Nigeria than were anticipated. The need for reliable date when considering universalization is self-evident. Such phenomena as Koranic and church schools may be making such a significant contribution to primary schooling that far more children are in school than governments know about. The introduction of UPE schemes may also unleash a flood of applicants of unexpected proportions.

This brief discussion of some of the elements which may be involved in universal provision serves to underline the wide variety of circumstances which may fall under the blanket heading of UPE. A glance at three specific countries may further illustrate the ways in which UPE may be interpreted:

UPE in Nigeria

In January 1974 Nigeria's programme for UPE was announced. At the end of the 1975/76 school year massive preparations were made to admit the first UPE scholars for the commencement of the 1976/77 year. In Kano State alone, this meant an increase in schools from 678 to 2,724. Enrolments increased almost threefold. Kano State's dramatic expansion illustrates the general picture in Nigeria though the State's educational provision had long lagged behind the rest of the country. Nigeria's UPE scheme, financed by oil revenues, aimed

- to provide each child with his fundamental right to schooling,
- to provide a base for future prosperity based on an educated citizenry,
- to remove disparities in opportunity throughout the country.

- to increase national unity

By 1981 it is hoped that all six year olds will be enrolled, compulsion being introduced by 1979. The problems to be encountered in such a massive programme were predicted by Hawes and Williams in a series of 1974 "West Africa" magazine articles. Basing their estimates on Ghana's experience of UPE in the 1960's, Hawes and Williams predicted that far more children would be available than was supposed. As Bray's figures quoted above bear witness, the prediction was fulfilled.

Teacher supply was also identified as another problem. The 18 million children to be "on roll" by 1981 would need 600,000 teachers. In 1974, only 150,000 existed of whom half were unqualified. Hawes and Williams argue the necessity for accepting, at least temporarily, under-qualified teachers until the college can cope or alternative programmes of teacher education can be worked out.

Physical facilities, particularly new classrooms, present their own difficulties. On the one hand their high cost is a deterrent, but as Bray suggests, government spending on school buildings demonstrates how committed the authorities are to UPE.

The curriculum has obviously been the focus of much attention. Professor Fafunwa in a 1974 "New Nigerian" article pleads for a truly Nigerian curriculum. Hawes and Williams argue for a national core plus local variations. Unfortunately, Bray reports an "old-fashioned and unadventurous" curriculum. Modern mathematics has been abolished, partly because the poorly trained teachers could not cope with it. The curriculum

has not been blessed with much innovation, despite the pleas of authorities such as Fafunwa to avoid "the mixture as before".

As an exemplar of a specific programme for universalization, the Nigerian experience has much to teach us. Certainly much has been achieved though Nigerians are the first to admit that shortcomings remain.

UPE in India - the case for universal elementary education

As early as 1882 the first plans for universal primary education were put to the Indian Education Commission. By 1975 enrolments had reached 82.7% of the 6-11 years age group. India's vast size, population and variety of provision make it difficult to summarize the national picture accurately. The State of Tamil Nadu is selected as an example.

Tamil Nadu is well on the way to universalization with some 90% of the 6-11 year age group enrolled in primary schools. The constraints experienced by Tamil Nadu reflect those which are common to India. Economic pressures keep children at home for more productive work. Girls particularly suffer, as witness the low enrolment figures compared to those for boys. Where communities are mainly scheduled tribes or castes, literacy rates are low and enrolment rates are similarly low. Throughout the State the same relationship between literacy rates and enrolments is observed. Religious and cultural constrainst operate to hinder women's access to schooling. Geographical and population distribution patterns and factors lead to low enrolments in some areas of the State. Wastage and stagnation occur at high levels. Abrupt increases in enrolments have revealed real weaknesses in the holding power of schools. Echoes of the Nigerian problem of teacher quality are heard. Financial

and administrative machinery is also inadequate for true universalization. By 2001 it is estimated that numbers of school-age children will have almost doubled - 200 million children will be demanding their "inalienable right" to education.

Despite massive achievements, the formal system has failed to bring about true democratization of educational opportunity. Subramanian (Key Issues in Indian Education; A search for alternatives, Department of Education, University of York, 1977) is led to suggest that non-formal educational provision is "the only alternative available to us to solve the present impasse". Typically, non-formal education treats the casualties of the formal system, provides literacy skills for adults, arranges agricultural training for subsistence farmers and organizes health, welfare, family planning and craft education. Amongst Tamil Nadu's on-going schemes are:

(a) Remedial basic education;

(b) Orientation courses for social service and community development projects;

(c) Youth programmes including sports, Scouts and Guides;

(d) Agricultural, fishery and nutrition schemes;

(e) In-service industrial schemes;

(f) School-based vocational programmes;

(g) Cottage industries;

(h) Self-employment training.

The I.B.E. publication "Educational Innovation in India" outlines some of the significant areas of India's experimentation with non-formal methods. The "Gram Shikshan Mohim" or Village Education Movement arose from disappointment with the results of traditional adult literacy classes. Local committees were formed for self-help in literacy and a truly co-operative venture developed with a well-planned programme of instruction and recognition of neo-literates. A village "congratulatory function" would follow the graduation of the newly literate provided the practical, community improvement lessons integral with the programme had actually been carried out. Best results seem to have occurred with the 14-25 year age-group. In other age-groups high rates of reversion to illiteracy have occurred.

Though India relies fundamentally on her formal system as the major vehicle for universalization, such distinguished educators as J.P. Naik have long been recommending alternative structures and methods. The size and cost of the requisite formal system make non-formal provision a matter of urgency. At present, 60% of the Class 1 cohort does not complete Class 5. India is using the primary schools, community development programmes, broadcasting and multi-media approaches, literacy proframmes, farmers' and other clubs, incentives for children of the weaker sections of society, appointment of school mothers, provision of creches and pre-schools, education of parents to overcome prejudice against girls' schooling and other non-formal efforts to achieve universalization. In a questionnaire reply (see Section 2) it is stated that "non-formal education should be the major thrust". It might be added that, on such complementary programmes as those

outlined above, the survival of India's formal schools depends.

The Philippines and Indonesia; Experiments in Mass Primary Education

Looking beyond the Commonwealth, Project IMPACT in the Philippines and its parallal, Proyek Pamong in Indonesia, provide a third example of how UPE may be interpreted. Arising from a 1972 decision of the South East Asian Ministers of Education group, the Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology (Innotech) was asked to devise "an effective and economical delivery system for mass primary education". The Nigerian model of UPE typifies attempts to provide access to schooling for all. India is particularly interesting for its experimentation with alternatives. Project IMPACT seeks to deliver the advantages of schooling in such a way that access is denied to nobody. Key concepts in the delivery system are the "module" of self-instructional material, the peer-grouping of pupils in mutually helpful classes, the innovative treatment of the teacher's role and the creation of Community Learning Centres. Sanger (Project IMPACT; IDRC, Ottawa, 1977) describes IMPACT as a "fragile experiment" into which more should not be read than into any other exploratory approach. The project rests on a seven-point programme -

(a) The school becomes a Community Learning Centre (CLC), dividing walls are removed and pupils move about freely to the modules or equipment they need;

(b) Students form groups at the same level or grade, helping each other with self-instructional modules;

(c) Lower grades have a 'programmed teacher', a student from the higher

grades to help them;

(d) Upper grades have a 'peer tutor', often a high school student on a one-day-a-month basis;

(e) Skilled members of the community come into the CLC or conduct classes in their own workshops;

(f) Home tutors - parents, siblings or neighbours help pupils work on modules at home;

(g) The classroom teacher becomes an "instructional supervisor" from whom most routine tasks are removed so that individual attention is increased. Aides help with test correction.

The Indonesian team has written, "Community participation is the heart of IMPACT'. This is a learning society we are bound to achieve". Nigeria, India and the Philippines/Indonesia experiment with IMPACT represent alternative ways of tackling the problem of mass schooling. Other countries such as Sri Lanka, Tanzania or Peru might have been offered as examples. The wide variations in what may go under the broad heading of universal primary education are illustrated.

Further Reading

Abernethy: Political Dilemma of Popular Education; Holt 1969. Addis Ababa Conference (Conference of African States on Development of Education in Africa) Addis Ababa, 1962.

Anderson, J.E.: The struggle for the schools; Longman 1970.

Bray, T.M.: UPE in Kano State; The first year; Savannah magazine, June 1977.

Coleman J.S.: Education and Political Development; Princeton U.P, 1965.

Harbison & Myers: Education, Manpower and Economic Growth; McGraw, 1964.

Hawes and William: West Africa magazine; September/October 1974.

I.B.E.: Educational Innovation in India; Dilemmas and Alternatives; Department of Education, University of York, 1978.

Lister, Ian: Alternatives in Education; Sixth Commonwealth Education Conference; Jamaica, 1974.

Naik, J.P.: Elementary Education in India; A Promise to keep; Allied Publishers, Bombay 1975.

Phillips, H.M.: Basic Education, A World Challenge; Wiley 1975.

Sanger C.: Project IMPACT; IDRC, Ottawa, 1977.

Subramanian, T.K.V.: Key Issues in Indian Education; Department of Education; University of York, 1977.

Tamil Nadu Board of Continuing Education; Towards a Functional Learning Society; Madras, 1975.

World Bank Atlas; London, 1978.

World Bank; Education Sector Working Paper; Washington, 1974.

EVIDENCE FOR PROGRESS TOWARDS UPE IN COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES

Enrolment and attendance - what do the statistics reveal?

Given that the term UPE may be open to many different interpretations, what progress has been made by Commonwealth countries towards achieving universalization? Thirty-one Commonwealth countries have been surveyed in order to discover -

(a) Has UPE been achieved?

(b) What age-range does primary schooling cover?

(c) Is primary schooling compulsory and is it free?

(d) Is UPE based on schools alone or are there supplementary and complementary programmes?

(e) What has been the effect of universalization efforts on the curriculum, teacher supply, physical resources and the inspectorate?

(f) What constraints govern the achieving of UPE?

Section 2.4 below deals in some detail with the questionnaire replies of fifteen responding countries. For the moment, the discussion centres mainly on what is revealed and what may be hidden by bald enrolment statistics.

Inflation and deflation of enrolment figures

Inflation may occur:

(a) Because teachers fear an unsatisfactory impression may result from accurate but low enrolment figures;

(b) In order to satisfy unrealistic Ministry demands for high levels of enrolment;

(c) Because administrative procedures to remove non-attenders from the roll are complex;

(d) As a result of nomadism, pupils may be enrolled at more than one school;

Deflation may occur:

(a) Where teachers are pressurized by local communities into admitting more pupils than official ceilings allow;

(b) Where repeating is being disguised by one means or another.

Such unreliability in enrolment figures points to the high probability of equally unreliable attendance figures. Some countries claiming almost 100% enrolment are in fact faced with very low levels of attendance. The questions, how many children are in school, how many are officially enrolled, how many repeat which classes and what happens to drop-outs are all vital to an understanding of the question of progress towards UPE. Above all there is often too little data concerning the size of the target population.

The forces operating to encourage attendance or keep pupils out of school are also worthy of analysis if enrolments

and progress towards UPE are to be seen in context. Social pressures may reinforce school attendance and enrolment. Attendance may be a political norm - it is expected of loyal citizens. Religious pressures may ensure attendance at certain types of schools. Parents may see school as the only way for their children to get on in the world. The value of a girl in the marriage market may be enhanced by schooling. Escape from domestic drudgery may lead children to attendance. Life may be more interesting, at least socially, if they attend school. Conversely, attendance may be hindered because parents have more productive tasks available for their children. A nomadic way of life may also militate against attendance. Strictly religious parents may fear the worldliness of some types of schooling. These and other influences operate to affect the progress of universalization. At what point is universality said to be reached? Given a small, homogeneous island culture with a long history of education, universality may indeed mean 100% enrolment and attendance. On the other hand a culturally diverse and scattered population might accept universalization as meaning 75% or 80% enrolment and attendance.

Evidence for progress towards UPE needs to be examined with caution and common sense. However, these are inadequate substitutes for hard facts and reliable data.

Patterns of Progress Towards UPE in Commonwealth African Countries

1. Botswana (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Voluntary, free schooling based on expansion of the present system enjoys "first priority". UPE is a long-term (1980's) objective. Of the relevant age-group, 80% is enrolled in primary school. Central government and local communities are the main agents. Teacher supply problems are tackled by increasing college enrolments, recruiting foreign teachers and increasing in-service facilities. About 40% of the primary teaching force is unqualified. The inspectorate is being expanded. Curriculum materials, based on existing resources are being developed at specialist centres. Major challenges to be faced are those of costs (education costs represent 23% of national recurrent budget) and provision of schooling for nomadic and scattered population groups.

2. The Gambia

The main aim of the primary system is "the highest possible enrolment". Approximately 32% of the 8-13 years ages group is enrolled in voluntary and free schooling. A more explicitly agricultural/vocational bias is to be seen in the primary curriculum. Local languages as media of instruction are to be introduced in 1978/79. A new multi-purpose college for agricultural education, nursing and public health studies, technical and commercial education as well as teacher education is under construction. The 1976/86 plan allows for the development of continuing education for drop-outs. Educational broadcasting is used to help underqualified teachers.

3. Ghana

A free and compulsory first cycle is

attended by about 89% of the 6-12 years age group. In 1975/76, 25.2% of the national recurrent budget went to education. The New Content and Structure of Education recently introduced such innovations as kindergardens, fee-free basic first cycle and a new teacher education programme. Of the present teaching cadre, 30% are untrained and the new programme is designed to diversify education and introduce practical skills as early as possible. Curriculum development is well-organized and co-ordinated with practising teachers producing revised approaches more in keeping with national development aims.

4. Kenya

Enrolments must be very close to 100%, a massive increase occurring in the 1974/78 period when fees for the first four classes were discontinued. The needs of the school leaver are reflected in curriculum changes, the inspectorate expanded five-fold between 1972 and 1978 and great increases in teacher education provision have been introduced to solve the problem of the unqualified 40% of primary teachers. Drop-out rates are low but estimates of repetition rates vary from 6% to 35%. Inequality of access and high costs are major problems.

5. Lesotho

By 1979/80 all 6-12 year olds may well be enrolled. The problems of over-age children, repetition and low attendance affect true universality. (As many as 23% of children repeated the final year of primary schooling in 1976). Up to 30% of primary teachers are untrained, with a further 45% underqualified. High pupil-teacher ratios, poor physical facilities and lack of equipment affect the quality of schooling drastically. Schooling is voluntary and free though

text book and building fees may be charged. The current Five Year Plan (1975/80) describes the improvement of quality and efficiency in primary education as the first priority.

6. Malawi

Planning aims at a gradual expansion of enrolments rather than rapid universalization. By 1980, about 60% of the relevant age-group should be enrolled. Pupil wastage is a major difficulty as are other qualitative aspects of the system. Inequality of opportunity in different districts besets the system. Curriculum revision has been described as reversion to more traditional and formal methods and values.

7. Mauritius

The 1971/75 Four Year Plan provided for free education for all in a six year programme from 5 years of age. By 1973, of the relevant age-group, 91% were enrolled in government, aided or private schools. Attendance is voluntary and private schools require fees. Automatic promotion with some provision for repetition is a feature of the system which has been described as academic and examination-oriented. Private coaching and "cramming" are common. Drop-out rates are low and a shift system operates in many schools.

8. Nigeria (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Nigeria's major effort towards universalization has been briefly described in an earlier section (p.12 f). In summary, the programme is based on compulsory, free formal schooling with some pro-

vision for multi-point entry. By 1978, of primary age children, 67% should be enrolled. Federal, State, local government and local community authorities are in partnership for UPE provision. Educational expenditure will increase significantly. A crash programme for certain grades of teacher is under way, as is a general programme for increasing teacher supply. The inspectorate is also being strengthened. Curriculum materials are mainly developed by classroom teachers rather than in specialist centres. More secondary places and alternative forms of further schooling are being provided for primary school leavers. Cost factors remain the biggest problem though over-centralization of control, an inadequate curriculum and qualitative difficulties inherent in such massive and rapid expansion plague this bold and pioneering development.

9. The Seychelles (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

UPE has been a feature of the educational system for some years. Voluntary, free schooling over an 8 year cycle is provided for virtually 100% of the relevant age-group. As drop-out rates are negligible, compulsion does not figure in development plans. Central government finances and controls primary education though external aid agencies play some part. Cost factors are again ranked as the most important, though qualitative problems of teacher supply, physical resources, language policy and the curriculum also exist.

10. Sierra Leone (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

As a top priority, the country expects to launch a voluntary programme of UPE by 1980. At present 36% of the 6-12 year age-group are enrolled. Government,

local community and voluntary agencies will provide the main means of achieving UPE, though 95% of funding will come from central government. Educational expenditure is expected to double as formal schools, community development and other non-formal programmes co-operate to bring about universalization. More in-service and pre-service teacher training facilities and the use of classroom aides will tackle the problem of teacher supply (as many as 60% were underqualified in 1970). Traditional courses of teacher education, crash programmes and multi-role training are planned. The inspectorate is expanding. New curriculum materials allied with increased supplies of those in existence are produced by classroom teachers as well as specialists and distributed through Regional Education Offices and the inspectors. No major curriculum changes are envisaged. A wide variety of bodies from teachers' unions to parents and special commissions have been involved in planning for UPE. Cost factors rank highly in problems to be overcome. Inequalities exist from region to region.

11. Swaziland (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

By 1976, primary school enrolments had reached 68% of the 6-13 years age-group, though schooling is neither compulsory nor free. Development of universalization is a high priority and by 1985 it is hoped to have 100% enrolment in Grade 1. Government and local community programmes (with the aid of voluntary agencies) are the main means of primary school development. Central government, local government and parental contributions finance primary schooling. Though primary schools are the major vehicle for primary education, some contribution is made through non-formal agencies. Teacher supply problems are tackled through

expanded pre-service facilities and a Unesco in-service distance teaching project. The advisory and inspectorate staff is being strengthened. A Primary Curriculum Unit prepares new curricula and "Teacher Innovation and Distribution Centres" provide a de-centralized means of infusing the new materials. A wide cross-section of interested parties have been consulted in primary school development. The proposed programme of ten years Basic Education should help alleviate school leaver problems. Retention and supply of teachers, distribution and costs of curricular materials and general strategies of curriculum reform are important problem areas for Swaziland.

12. Tanzania

Education for self-reliance has meant major policy changes within Tanzania. Present enrolments of 87% at the primary level represent more or less universal primary education in a fee-free six year programme which commences at age seven. There is little wastage and few unqualifed teachers. Schools are seen as tools for national development. A deliberate controlling of secondary school places has encouraged a more "terminal" view of primary schooling. Self-help schemes using local materials and pupil labour have helped to cut costs. Double shift systems and the use of senior pupils as teachers have also been introduced, although parents are beginning to question the use of underqualified staff. Projects such as that at Kwamsisi have piloted curriculum innovations aimed at better integration of school and community. Though based on a formal school system, Tanzania's provision is aimed at changing the nature of schools and the timing of entry and leaving so that the gap between the school and the community decreases.

13. Uganda

Primary school enrolments more than doubled between 1962 and 1974 but wide variations from district to district lead to a national enrolment figure of 46% (1978 figures). Karamoja district has only 17.5% of the age group enrolled in government schools. Government policy is to aid these less advanced areas and to set different targets for them. UPE planning began in 1978 and the first "programme pupils" will enrol in 1981. Within 10 years from that date it is hoped that UPE will have been achieved. Free and compulsory education have separate targets. Government, local communities and voluntary agencies share the load of primary schooling, government finance being the main source. Development of primary schools, community development programmes, adult literacy, broadcasting and multi-media approaches and the comples and varied non-formal provision through farmers' and womens' clubs are all being used to bring about universalization. Teacher supply is tackled through increased in-service and pre-service facilities as well as increased employment of un-qualified teachers. The inspectorate is being strengthened. New curriculum materials aimed at a more functional primary education are being prepared by specialists and classroom teachers. A wide constituency from headteachers to special commissions has worked on plans for UPE. Cost factors are the main problems to be faced. The school leaver is an additional factor; it is hoped that the revised primary school programme will develop a better attitude towards self-employment. In addition more secondary places are being made available as are alternative types of post-primary education. In 1974, 25% of primary teachers were unqualified and only 15% of school leavers found a place in secondary education.

14. Zambia (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Compulsory, free schooling, unrestricted to children alone, is Zambia's aim. UPE enjoys a high priority in an integrated plan for educational development. About 85% of the 7-14 year age-group attends primary school. Government, local community and voluntary agencies co-operate to develop primary schooling though funding is almost 100% from central government. Educational expenditure is expected to double as UPE is approached. Primary shcools, community development programmes, night schools and other non-formal means are used to develop universalization. More in-service and pre-service teacher training and multi-media teacher education are used to increase teacher supply and improve teacher qualifications. The inspectorate is being expanded and distribution of curriculum materials is through regional offices. Central government funds are the main source of finance. A prolonged public debate and various seminars involving interested parties from parents to the university preceded planning for UPE. Cost problems again rank highly as do difficulties with the strategies to be employed for true universalization to be accomplished.

Patterns of Progress Towards UPE in Commonwealth Asian Countries

1. Bangladesh

Some 71% of the 6-10 year age group is enrolled in primary schools where attendance is voluntary and nominally free, though text book and other charges may operate. Some 90% of primary schools are government controlled and managed though, over-all, the education system is dominated by the private sector. Rural areas account for 94% of enrolments. Drop-out and repetition rates are high. Physical facilities are inadequate with an average of only one chalkboard per primary school available. In 1975, 45% of teachers were untrained. Double shift sessions and controlled expansion of places are amongst the recommendations of the first Five-Year Plan (1973/78). By 1985 it is hoped to achieve UPE, though the high population growth rate and the general problem of poverty will militate against this.

2. India (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

India's plans for UPE envisage voluntary, free shcooling based on the present structure, but developing a "basic education" approach using any kind of building available. UPE and the development of non-formal education enjoy the highest priorities. Target year for achieving 100% enrolment in classes 1 to 5 is 1982/83. At present, 85% of 6-11 year olds are enrolled, though 60% of class 1 do not complete class 5. Government, local community and voluntary agency programmes are the main means of achieving UPE. Of primary school funding, 87% comes from central and state governments. A wide variety of non-formal and incentive schemes supplement the formal schools (see pp 15-16 above). Teacher supply problems are being tackled by increasing facilities for in-service and pre-service training, reducing instruc-

tional hours in classes 1-3, using double shifts, appointing teachers on the basis of attendance rather than enrolments, redeployment of surplus teachers and mobilizing local community support for learning programmes. Teacher education is designed to prepare teachers for a variety of roles. School supervision is being strengthened by increasing and improving the inspectorate and by decentralization and delegation of powers to local administrations. Newly developed curriculum materials, based on the environment and national needs are prepared by specialists as well as classroom teachers. The National Council for Educational Research and Training plays an important role in co-ordinating curriculum and general planning. Cost factors and difficulties of physical resources and the curriculum hinder true universalization.

3. Malaysia (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Malaysia introduced a policy of UPE in 1962 and today, its voluntary, free provision covers some 94% of the target group. Central government provides 95% of finance. The formal schools are the main vehicles of universalization and teacher supply targets have largely been met. The inspectorate has expanded and curriculum development work is shared by classroom teachers and specialists. An Education Planning and Research Division co-ordinates UPE. Organizational problems, difficulties of teacher supply, problems of physical resources, the curriculum and transport have hindered universalization. Despite a high priority for UPE, a lack of clear aims for the programme has been evident. The publication of teachers' guides and prototype models plus programmes of seminars and workshops have helped in

curriculum revision, yet the curriculum remains somewhat unrelated to pupils' lives. Wastage rates are high though financial aid to deprived children is available. There is an increased concern for the qualitative aspects of universalization.

4. Singapore (Questionnaire acknowledged but not completed).

UPE has long been a feature of school provision in Singapore. Primary schooling begins at age six and continues for six years. Schooling is free but shift systems do operate. The system has been described as centralized and examination-oriented. Wastage rates are low at 10%. Few primary teachers are untrained but male national service leads to a predominance of women students in training. As population growth has slowed, so enrolments have levelled off. A revised educational system, aimed at better provision for pupils of all abilities was introduced in 1977. A Basic Course, leading to a working/learning programme for the less academic, runs parallel to the Standard Course.

5. Sri Lanka

The 1973/77 plan introduced a new primary cycle to commence at age 6. Free compulsory schooling has arrived with the reduction of the eight year programme to five. Literacy rates and primary enrolments are similar at around 76% (1975). In 1973, some 37,000 of the 87,000 teachers were untrained. Estate schools, located on tea and rubber plantations, are at a disadvantage and, as a result, some 39% of estate children receive no schooling at all. There are high wastage rates though curriculum reform reflect a

growing concern for the practical and pre-vocational. The level of growth of the system is impressive and the provisions of the new plan have yet to achieve their full impact. Particularly valuable are the non-formal developments and the "People's Education Centres".

Patterns of Progress Towards UPE in Commonwealth Caribbean Countries

1. The Bahamas

Compulsory schooling covers the age-range 5-14 years. Primary schooling concludes at age 11. A long tradition of schooling has resulted in more or less universal enrolment. Schooling is free in government institutions and the Bahamas enjoy a 90% literacy rate. The last decade has witnessed major re-developments in schooling. Quality is a continuing concern and nationwide participation in planning by teachers has led to new curriculum guidelines. In-service training, low cost local instructional materials, improvements in school administration and supervision all figure in development plans. The scattered islands which make up the Bahamas present special organizational problems as well as creating inequalities of access.

2. Barbados (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Compulsory, free primary schooling characterizes Barbados' universal provision. Perhaps 1% of children attend no school. Central government funds finance schooling and curriculum development is mainly in the hands of classroom teachers. The costs of education are met from the 22% of the national budget allocated annually to the Ministry

of Education. Government priorities in primary schooling include the provision of 5,000 new places to reduce overcrowding, the development of educational broadcasting and the establishment of an Educational Centre.

3. Guyana

Elementary schooling has been compulsory since 1876. In 1975, primary enrolments totalled 75% with over half the schools being in private hands. As many as 53% of teachers were underqualified and pupil-teacher ratios were 60-1. By 1978 it is expected that universalization will be almost achieved. From 1966 to 1974 there was a 350% increase in educational expenditure. Continuing problems are teacher quality and supply, rapid population growth, high costs, poor physical facilities and general problems of efficiency. Despite these constraints, Guyana sees its primary provision as "well under control" and sees the development of the secondary sector as of a higher priority.

4. Jamaica

By 1977, 96% of the 6-12 year age group was enrolled in primary school. About 40% of the teaching force is untrained though, by 1983, it is hoped to halve the figure. The re-organization of the system (removing all 12-15 year olds from all age schools) has cut the demand for primary school teachers. Educational expenditure has doubled since 1973. Church, government and the private sector provide schooling. Schooling is free and there has been a vast expansion in opportunity and access, though inequalities still exist. Pupil and teacher wastage, poor facilities and weaknesses in administration and the curriculum affect the quality of schooling. The

major objective of the 1978/83 Plan is to improve quality such that schooling fits in with development priorities. One dimension of this drive is the highly developed non-formal sector.

5. Trinidad and Tobago

Primary schooling is compulsory for the 6-12 year age group. In 1976 enrolments were at the 97.5% level. The 1969/83 Draft Plan recommended the provision of a general education for all to age 14 years. A shift system would provide 200,000 new and "rebuilt" places, The 1967/73 Plan was more modest, using a shift system to provide 7,000 new places and doubling annual teacher output. Buildings and their renovation are a constant theme, the aim being to have a school within two miles of every settlement. Up to 40% of all teachers are untrained. Salaries absorb 75% of recurrent costs, a figure likely to rise as untrained teachers qualify. Curriculum and organizational change reflect a new emphasis on self-reliance as the aim of primary schooling.

1. Fiji (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Some 99% of the 6-12 year age-group is enrolled in a voluntary school system, some schools charging fees. Central government and parental contributions

finance primary schooling which is entirely formal-school based. Teacher supply relies on crash programmes as well as on normal pre and in-service provisions. The inspectorate is supported by advisors and co-ordinators. The Curriculum Development Centre distributes curricular materials and is contributed to by classroom teachers. Revision of existing curricula is preferred to radical approaches. Costs present a continuing problem.

2. Papua New Guinea

Approximately 76% of the 7-13 year age group is enrolled in "community schools", so designed as to reduce alienation from the environment. Parental contributions in cash and kind are a feature of the system. Control of primary schools, apart from the curriculum, is vested in provincial authorities. Finance is a complex issue and equality of access may not be achieved easily. Enrolment of girls and their drop-out rate are poor. True UPE would require 500,000 school places by 1985, an unrealistic target. Secondary education is the first priority. Population growth, a decline in Australian financial support and the attractions of wage-earning in coffee and cocoa production further militate against universal enrolment. Quality, equality of access and rural development problems are major challenges.

3. Solomon Islands (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Present primary level enrolments are at 70% in a free and compulsory system. From 1979, age of entry will be more flexible (from 6 years to 9 years of age). UPE would at least double expenditure, formal schools being the main vehicle. Teacher supply is being tackled through

increased pre- and in-service provision plus an emergency programme. The inspectorate is being strengthened and curriculum revision is mainly in the hands of classroom teachers. External aid, central government, local government and the local communities finance schooling. Cost factors and the primary school leaver problem are important constraints.

4. Tonga (Summary based on questionnaire responses).

Education has been compulsory since 1870 and free universal primary education has already been achieved. The emphasis is now on upgrading the quality of schooling through curriculum revision, improved teacher education and in-service training. The primary course begins at age 6 and continues for 6 years. About 60% of school leavers find places at secondary schools. Central government provides 90% of primary school finance. The inspectorate is supported by advisors. Cost factors are again a major challenge.

5. Western Samoa

Though 90% of the relevant age-group is enrolled in primary school, the system relies heavily on foreign aid. In 1976, an amount equal to 16.4% of the national budget went to education, 75% of this figure going to teachers' salaries. The first two Five-Year Plans outline the following goals, most of which are within reach:

> (a) All children to complete 8 years of elementary schooling; secondary, trade and agricultural education to be expanded; the curriculum to be revised to suit Samoan needs; improvements to be made to the examination and inpection systems.

(b) The country's annual revenue is insufficient to meet the needs of education, let alone the needs of other departments. The role of the aid donor is a crucial one.

Patterns of Progress Towards UPE in Commonwealth Mediterranean Countries

Cyprus and Malta also responded to the questionnaire, as far as the items in it related to their local scene, but both already have well-developed universal systems of free and compulsory primary schooling.

Note

The tables which follow have been compiled as far as possible from information supplied from the completed questionnaires. Where no return was made, data from other sources has been used to provide as complete a picture as possible. Inevitably this has led to gaps, particularly in the column indicating whether or not UPE is a declared aim of the government.

Patterns of Progress in Commonwealth Countries - A Summary

Region and country	Has U.P.E. been achieved at 85% level	Enrol-ment	Is U.P.E. a declared aim	Age range for primary school	Compulsory or Voluntary	Free or fee paying	Mainly school centered	Special notes on innovations, etc.
Africa								
Botswana	No	80%	Yes	6 - 12	Voluntary	Free	Yes	U.P.E. a long term aim by gradual expansion
Gambia	No	32%	No	6 - 11	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	Highest possible enrolment as a general aim. 'Continuing education' an innovation
Ghana	Yes	89%	Yes	6 - 16	Compulsory	Free	Yes	New structure recently introduced
Kenya	Yes	109%	Yes	6 - 12	Voluntary	Free (Stds. 1-4)	Yes	High figure for enrolment indicates over-age pupils, repetition, etc.
Lesotho	Yes	95%	...	6 - 13	Voluntary	Free*	Yes	*Tuition only is free. Fees are charged for books, etc.
Malawi	No	60%	No	6 - 13	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	
Mauritius	Yes	100%	Yes	6 - 11	Voluntary	Free*	Yes	*Private schools charge fees.

Region and country	Has U.P.E. been achieved at 85% level	Enrol-ment	Is U.P.E. a declared aim	Age range for primary school	Compulsory or Voluntary	Free or fee paying	Mainly school centered	Special notes on innovations, etc.
Nigeria	No	...	Yes	6 - 12	Compulsory	Free	Yes	Wide variation in enrolments from state to state.
Seychelles	Yes	95%	...	6 - 14	Voluntary	Free	Yes	Ninth year of schooling to be introduced soon
Sierra Leone	No	35%	No	5 - 11	Voluntary	Fees	No	Various innovations going on, e.g . Bunumbu.
Swaziland	No	68%	Yes	6 - 13	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	Gradual expansion of present system for UPE by 1985. Primary curriculum unit and T.I.D.C's are important innovations.
Tanzania	Yes	87%	Yes	7 - 13	Compulsory	Free	Yes	Schools redesigned for self-reliance and community development roles.
Uganda	No	46%	Yes	6 - 12	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	Non-formal and youth organizations impor-tant. 1981 starting date for UPE.
Zambia	Yes	86%	Yes	7 - 13	Voluntary	Free	Yes	Innovative document 'Education for Devel-opment' outlines numerous policy changes

Region and Country	Has U.P.E. been achieved at 85% level	Enrol-ment	Is U.P.E. a declared aim	Age range for primary school	Compulsory or Voluntary	Free or fee paying	Mainly school centered	Special notes on innovations, etc.
Asia								
Bangladesh	No	71%	Yes	6 - 10	Voluntary	Free*	Yes	*Text books must be paid for.
India	No	83%	Yes	6 - 11	Voluntary	Fees	No	Wide non-formal provision complements schools.
Malaysia	Yes	94%	Yes	6 - 13	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	
Singapore	Yes	95%	Yes	6 - 13	Voluntary	Free	Yes	Basic Course for less academic leads to Junior Trainee opportunity.
Sri Lanka	Yes	92%	...	6 - 11+	Compulsory	Free	Yes	People's Education Centres.

Region and country	Has U.P.E. been achieved at 85% level	Enrol-ment	Is U.P.E. a declared aim	Age range for primary school	Compulsory or Voluntary	Free or fee paying	Mainly school centered	Special notes on innovations, etc.
Carribean								
Bahamas	Yes	100%	Yes	5 - 11	Compulsory	Free	Yes	
Barbados	Yes	90%	...	5 - 12	Compulsory	Free	Yes	
Guyana	Yes	90%	...	6 - 11+	Compulsory	Free	Yes	
Trinidad & Tobago	Yes	98%	...	6 - 12	Compulsory	...	...	
Jamaica	Yes	96%	Yes	6 - 12	Voluntary	Free	Yes	Experiments in compulsion. Mass media important. Non-formal well developed.

Region and Country	Has U.P.E. been achieved at 85% level	Enrol-ment	Is U.P.E. a declared aim	Age range for primary school	Compulsory or voluntary	Free or fee paying	Mainly school centered	Special notes on innovations, etc.
Pacific								
Fiji	Yes	99%	...	6 - 12	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	
Papua New Guinea	No	76%	No	7 - 13	Voluntary	Fees	Yes	Schools have become Community Schools.
Solomon Islands	No	70%	...	7 - 8 (start)	Compulsory	Free	Yes	
Tonga	Yes	100%	...	6 - 13	Compulsory	Free	Yes	
Western Samoa	Yes	91%	...	6 - 12	...		Yes	

CONSTRAINTS AND ALTERNATIVES

IN UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

Some problems in attaining UPE revealed by the questionnaire.

In their efforts to achieve Universal Primary Education, countries are faced with complex and inter-related problems. The Commonwealth countries surveyed in mid 1978 were asked to select a priority problem from a list, check others of the listed items which applied to their own situation and add any specific problems hindering their achieving of Universal Primary Education (see Appendix - Questionnaire Item 23 (a)). Although fifteen countries responded to the questionnaire, only eleven actually completed it. The table below summarizes the responses of the eleven.

Problems which may be indentified from the table "Patterns of Progress" are parallel to those drawn from questionnaire responses. Eleven countries provided questionnaire responses and a further fourteen countries discussed the problems of universalization in development plans and similar documents. The table below lists the most frequently mentioned problems of all 25 countries.

The constraints outlined below are not necessarily a function of attempted universlaization. They have always been with us and are merely made more acute as universalization proceeds. It is not sufficient to argue that fundamentally, all constraints are constraints of cost.

PROBLEMS AFFECTING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF UPE

i)	Cost factors	Ranked as highest priority by 9 of the 11
ii)	Organizational factors	Mentioned as important by 7 of the 11
iii)	Teacher supply factors	Ranked as highest priority by 1 of the 11; mentioned as important by 7 of the 11
iv)	Problems of physical resources	Mentioned as important by 8 of the 11
v)	Curriculum problems	Mentioned as important by 7 of the 11
vi)	Communication and transport problems	Mentioned as important by 5 of the 11
vii)	Problems of language policy	Mentioned as important by 6 of the 11
viii)	Other problems specified by particular countries included: Nomadism (Botswana); Phasing of expansion (Nigeria); Promoting local support (Nigeria and Fiji); Need for integration of non-formal (India); Provision for handicapped (Malaysia); School-leaver problems (Solomon Islands)	

THE MOST COMMON PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED IN IMPLEMENTING UPE

i)	Costs of schooling	14 countries
ii)	Problems of 'irrelevant' curricula	9 countries
iii)	Problems of inadequate physical resources	8 countries
iv)	Problems of teacher supply and retention	8 countries
v)	Problems of teacher qualifications	7 countries
vi)	Problems of drop-outs	6 countries
vii)	Problems of inequality of access	6 countries

Individual countries mentioned the additional problems of:
School leavers,
Inadequate organization and administration,
High pupil-teacher ratios,
Nomadism and scattered populations.

It might be true to say that such constraints as poor physical resources, problems of teacher supply and retention, and inequalities of access might be solved through the application of larger sums of money. However, problems of the curriculum, of teacher qualifications, problems of drop-outs and wastage and problems of the organizational aspects of schooling are very much issues of "quality". In summary, the constraints affecting primary schooling boil down to the two basic issues of quality and cost.

Phillips ('Basic Education: A World Challenge', op. cit) offers advice for achieving Universal Primary Education. His guidelines propose fifty-two measures for action which are well worth consideration.

(a) Planning and Finance/ Population Coverage

1. Map the population of under-18's who are growing up without a basic education; show the causes by type of area; calculate the time required to obtain minimum basic education for all;

2. Given that minimum basic education is a fundamental human right, decide on priorities within the total educational programme and as compared with other social and economic objectives;

3. Adopt 'delivery' rather than 'access' as a guiding concept; co-ordinate educational thinking with problems of health, nutrition and family planning;

4. Improve statistics so that chronic wastage and under-enrolment patterns are detected;

5. Decide on necessary reforms of structure, method and content for universalization, set up the necessary medium and long-term plans to provide schools and teachers; include 'crash' programmes for illiterate youth in towns and other areas of rapid development.

6. Consider additional financing of basic education by some or all of the following:

- increasing the educational budget,
- redistributing resources within the existing educational budget,
- using more local resources (taxes, levies, etc.) accompanied by district planning,
- improving cost efficiency.

7. Eliminate penalizing poorer parents through imposition of fees, uniforms, book and building charges.

(b) Educational Organization

8. Reduce drop-out by providing or organizing school meals, school transport and home visits to parents;

9. In areas where development is active or imminent, set up non-formal programmes for adolescents;

10. Use radio, co-operatives and other means of community co-operation as links with school programmes;

11. Create or adapt district nuclear schools to be outlets for pupils from incomplete rural schools; set up district production centres for simple teaching aids;

12. Make arrangements 'through subsidies if necessary) for pupils of deficient schools to find places at better schools, utilize boarding facilities, religious, tribal and other group affiliations as well as public services to affect movement and transfer;

13. Devize methods of selection which do not penalize pupils from deficient schools; base selection on pupils' community involvement as well as intellectual abilities; give success under new types of selection the necessary prestige for recruitment to the public service with the provision of follow up and bridging courses during employment;

14. Provide compensatory/ bridging courses to ease transition of children from poorer schools to higher levels or from non-formal to formal schooling;

15. Use self-help schemes for school improvement;

16. Vary school hours, terms and years of attendance to suit local conditions;

17. Create links with employment by school-to-work programmes, day release, etc.

18. Experiment with community schools for all age-groups;

19. Create intermittent movement between formal and available non-formal education in later years of primary schooling;

20. Experiment with and create locally controlled and planned "nuclear networks" with a local agent to stimulate community co-operation;

21. Where feasible, extend such networks;

22. Adapt traditional education (Koranic schools, peer group-oriented co-operative learning, etc.) to developmental as well as cultural needs by advice and subsidies.

(c) Teachers

23. Review salaries and status; undertake necessary initial and in-service teacher education, bearing in mind the economic value of primary schooling;

24. Consider offering teachers delayed benefits to be received when initial backlogs and 'bulges' have been overcome;

25. Recruit rural teachers from rural population; localize training at district level; include part-timers for practical and vocational teaching;

26. Apply the principle of minimum basic training, replacing untrained teachers by the output of local district-level institutions.

27. Link such institutions to the national system by opportunity ladders, bridging courses, etc.

28. Apprize the colleges of educational change, reward the best teacher educatiors, pay successful heads to visit and advise the less fortunate schools;

29. Revise teacher training curricula in the light of rural as well as national needs, arrange selection of teachers in conjunction with rural district leaders;

30. Ensure greater teacher participation in primary education policy and execution as well as local community;

31. Where cost benefits are favourable use new media and mechanical aids to assist teachers;

32. Use micro-teaching and clinical methods in colleges to help teachers see and correct their own weaknesses.

(d) Content, Curricula, Methods, Research and Development, Administration

33. Work out the optimum package of minimum learning needs for different districts and regions;

blend them with national requirements;

34. Evaluate these learning needs as compared to the present curricula and prescribe the necessary changes.

35. Integrate curriculum reform with research and evaluation, the retraining of teachers, the examination system, the need for new materials, etc.

36. Arrange the administrative co-ordination necessary for such integration and establish curriculum development centres.

37. Train curriculum developers and other specialists to give more attention to the first level of education.

38. Increase the link between school and agriculture scientifically and practically without emphasizing premature training for agricultural work.

39. Consider establishing certificates for completion of basic education.

40. Retrain and recycle teacher-educators and inspectors as well as teachers for the reformed curricula.

41. Increase the frequency and quality of inspection whilst encouraging local classroom innovations which fit the agreed reform.

42. Consider new educational methods which may be applicable

(e.g. use of monitors and team-teaching, self-instructional materials, etc.)

43. Apply new methods and simple equipment for science teaching adapted to basic education;

44. Consider automatic promotion (in the light of repetition rates) combined with compensatory courses particularly where there are difficulties with the medium of instruction.

45. Stimulate locally designed and staffed research, development and experimental activities using external aid.

46. Set up these activities to:

- define types of minimun learning needs as in 33 and 34;
- define alternative methods of instruction as in 42;
- define the minimum qualifications and types of training for teachers to carry out the reforms;
- define examination, selection and certification procedures;
- define action to be taken to recruit active support for reform from parents, employers and community leaders.

47. Use applied research rather than theoretical; consult all levels of authority to improve diagnosis of needs, establish date and recommend action.

48. Adopt measures to increase the commitment of local population to viewing education as a means of rural development.

49. Exchange information on innovation both within the country and internationally.

50. Undertake information work with rural parents to reduce the drop-out/child employment problem, reduce 'white collar job' expectations resulting from schooling offered and ensure parental support for educational reform.

51. Diminish obstacles to girls' education.

52. Set up 'watchdog' and co-ordinating machinery at the various administrative levels.

As Phillips admits, this list is by no means exhaustive nor is it a prescription. Rather it represents a set of pointers. Out of the set may be drawn guidance relevant to a specific situation. Certainly the first seven points should be undertaken by all countries. (Phillips). The major constraints reported by the countries surveyed are subsumed in these 52 points for action and consideration. The main obstacles in most countries would probably be:

(i) the <u>time</u> required to plan and apply necessary changes;

(ii) deficiencies in the financial inputs needed to generate change;

(iii) shortages of the planning, administrative and pedagogic skills required;

(iv) difficulties of a political or traditional nature in developing the social as distinct from the pedagogic role of education.

It might be argued that the constraints operating to hinder universalization are well documented. Experts like Phillips offer well thought out guidance for overcoming the constraints - yet the problems remain with us. There is no lack of the will to overcome the constraints but governments have more than the education constituency to satisfy. Transport and communications, industrialization, agriculture, rural development, health care and increasing pressure for 'defence' spending all have their impact on cabinet decisions. The problems of educational expansion are well known, strategies for their solution are no secret; the task of the educators is to persuade and convince others, from parents to presidents, of the over-riding importance for national development and human development of at least basic education for all.

Alternatives in UPE

Phillips' programme for reviewing the planning, organization, teacher aspects and content and curricula aspects of Universal Primary Education suggests a strong commitment to the view that primary school systems are worth salvaging and that, given the right response to the challenge, they can be made to achieve their aims. Inherent in his 52 points is the notion of 'alternatives' (e.g. items, 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 etc) - alternatives in the sense of supplementary strategies which will render

existing systems more effective. Phillips records a "strong impression" that schools, at least at the first and basic levels, are potentially the most viable means of universalization. Innovations which would have the greatest impact on primary schooling would be:

(a) those which by structural and organizational changes increase the coverage of at least minimum basic education;

(b) those which improve the quality of the programme and its relevance to national needs;

(c) those whose new methods of teaching and learning increase coverage and quality.

Phillips' 52 points contain numerous innovative measures based on knowledge of experiments in many countries. Specific innovations which might interest countries seeking ways of universalizing primary schooling include:

(a) the fundamental re-organization of objectives and methods of primary schooling (Tanzania, Peru).

(b) the recycling of primary education (Iran, Sri Lanka).

(c) the curriculum, reducing school duration (Nepal).

(d) complexes of schools of different cycle-length with ladders and bridges between them (Peru, Madras, Mexico).

(e) sharing of facilities amongst schools (Punjab).

(f) community schools in urban centres attended by adults and

children (Phillippines); use of community and social services for education (Senegal);

(g) re-arrangement of school schedules (Rajasthan);

(h) use of T.V. on a large scale or for non-formal education (Ivory Coast; San Salvador);

(i) self-help schools, rural co-operatives, 4 K and 4 B clubs, young farmer' clubs (Kenya; Zaire; Botswana; Uganda);

(j) National Youth Service Corps for education (Iran).

As with Project IMPACT, many of these ideas are still experimental. In assessing their value, interested countries must consider:

(a) How will such innovation affect the aims of our educational system?

(b) What innovation is most likely to affect our cost constraints? (Underlying this question is the need for research on how costs are made up; teachers' salaries, physical resources, curriculum materials, text-books, and rather less measurable variables such as the costs of wastage, the length of the cycle and administrative costs. All have their effect on the educational budget).

(c) What innovations are likely to improve the quality of our provision?

Before focusing on recommendations, three notable innovations which have contributed to the wider spread of educational opportunities are worthy of attention:

(a) Iran and the 'Army of Knowledge'

Begun in 1962, this innovation uses National Service to bring schooling within the reach of rural communities. Commentators suggest that any country with a National Service provision could introduce a similar scheme which stimulates rural schooling, is cost-effective, does not create long-term financial burdens for rural communities and poor families. Particular pay-offs have been the number of Education Corps teachers continuing as teachers, better representation of girls in schools where women Education Corps teachers operated and the development of a deeper concern for rural welfare amongst young people. Less positive results have included inherently high turnover of Education Corps teachers, poor follow-up and lapses into illiteracy and possible slowing of "proper" schemes for UPE. However, experiments modelled on the spirit and methods of Education Corps are worth trying.

(b) Radio Santa Maria; Dominican Republic

Within four years, Radio Santa Maria has made a full primary course available to virtually every rural community in the Dominican Republic. Its six-fold approach involves:

- printed instructional materials.
- radio broadcasts
- field teachers as tutors;
- weekly group discussions;
- broader educational and cultural material;
- participation by students in community organizations.

This format has not been perfected but its crucial elements of field tutors and student participation in community development make the impact of Radio Santa Maria most effective. Like Project IMPACT it is a "delivery system" rather than a means of access to schooling.

(c) The "Nuclear Schools" of Peru

A major reform has divided the system into three cycles, each unitary, permitting the child to acquire "a minimal knowledge of fundamental attitudes and abilities to orient himself to his environment". The system is parallelled by another for the special needs of youth and adults who dropped out in earlier years. For both groups, a new curriculum is tied to community and cultural education. The aims of the reform are to eradicate illiteracy, to contribute to the development of the country's most depressed areas, to make the new system more related to the needs of the people, to universalize the basic cycle (and eventually as far as Grade 9) and to foster a new awareness of creative potential and national identity. Communal Education Units ('Nucleos educativos comunales') provide the nuclear basis of educational administration. The result is a "self-governing communal entity" where parents, local community, State authorities and teachers co-operate. By devolving control, finance and administration to the community level, real reform is possible (see Hawes and Williams' recommendations for devolution: West Africa Magazine, Sept/Oct. 1974).

This brief survey of three innovations which tackle the challenge of alternatives through the application of manpower, through technology and through the local community presents examples, aspects of which may be applicable elsewhere. Commonwealth governments surveyed would seem to be most interested in those alternatives which alleviate -

(a) Costs by:
- making more economical uses of time, teachers and resources (particularly buildings)
- spreading the burden to local communities
- reducing wastage
- using compensatory programmes
- using self-help schemes
- adapting traditional schooling

(b) Teacher supply by:
- adopting minimal basic training
- using auxiliary school personnel
- involving parents with skills
- using national service personnel
- localizing training

(c) Curriculum problems by:
- developing minimum learning needs
- developing links between curriculum and environment
- retraining and recycling teacher educators for new curricula
- developing suitable new methods such as modules, self instruction, etc.

Formal school systems are too expensive and too valuable to dismantle. Further, no catch-all panacea is available for the transformation of weak formal systems into high-quality, cost-effective and "relevant" universal provision. The attractive alternative of non-formal

education must be seen as a complementary strategy rather than a substitute. The weight of evidence and expert opinion seems to suggest that a three-fold attack on the problem of universalization is indicated:

i) Improve the formal school system; system;

ii) Develop the school/community relationship;

iii) Develop non-formal and compensatory resources.

Further Reading (see also Bibliography at the end of this section)

Faure Report: International Commission on the Development of Education 'Learning to Be' Unesco-Harrap 1972.

Hallak, et.al: Financial Aspects of First Level Education in Iran: Unesco, Paris, 1973.

Lister, Prof. Ian: Criteria for Alternatives in Education: Commonwealth Secretariat, London 1975.

" " " Alternatives in Education, Some First and Third World Perspectives; Sixth Commonwealth Educational Conference, Jamaica 1974.

Phillips, H.M.: Basic Education: A World Challenge, Wiley, 1975.

White, R: An alternative pattern of Basic Education; Radio Santa Maria, Unesco, I.B.E. 1976.

Findings of the survey

The majority of Commonwealth countries surveyed (20 of 31) appear to be well on the way to universal primary

enrolments (see note (d) under "Further Problems" below concerning attendance);

Formal school systems with similar patterns of duration, entry age and completion age are the main vehicles for basic primary education;

Major problems encountered by Commonwealth and other countries as they work towards Universal Primary Education include:

(a) High costs

(b) Providing good quality schooling

(c) Problems of teacher supply, retention and qualifications

(d) Pupil wastage (drop-out and repetition)

(e) Inappropriate curricula

(f) Poor buildings, resources and equipment

(g) Weaknesses of administration

(h) School leaver problems

(i) Problems of disorientation from the environment.

Further problems include:

(a) Lack of basic data on who goes to school, who stays away and the reasons governing both conditions

(b) Timing and duration of schooling out of sequence with other aspects of life (e.g. harvest)

(c) Social/religious constraints keeping attendance down

(d) Gaps between attendance and enrolments

(e) Teacher absenteeism

(f) Lack of clear aims in school programmes

(g) Demands for fees penalizing poorer pupils

(h) Low rates of enrolment for girls

(i) Low priority for the first cycle of schooling

(j) Geographical and communication problems.

Innovations and alternatives in operation in the Commonwealth include:

(a) Community schools (Papua New Guinea; Tanzania)

(b) Recycling of primary education (Sri Lanka)

(c) Self-help schools (Kenya)

(d) Young Farmers' and other clubs (Uganda)

(e) In-service teacher education by short course and distance teaching (Botswana; Swaziland)

(f) School improvement schemes (Maharashtra)

(g) Teacher Innovation and Distribution Centres (Swaziland)

(h) Teacher education integrated with community development (Sierra Leone)

(i) "Godfather" schools - grouping smaller schools under a full-cycle school (Madras)

(j) Non-formal provision (Jamaica, Tamil Nadu).

Some notable innovations in the rest of the world include:

(a) Project IMPACT (Philippines/ Indonesia)

(b) Radio Santa Maria (Dominican Republic)

(c) Nuclear School System (Peru)

(d) Army of Knowledge (Iran)

(e) Reduction of duration of school programme (Nepal)

(f) School and community experiments (Sudan; Senegal)

(g) Use of television (Ivory Coast; El Salvador)

(h) Unesco's experimental programmed instruction project (Asia).

Recommendations

(a) Information gathering:

Commonwealth countries urgently need to gather information on:

- Who goes to school and why?
- Who stays away and why?
- How many children of the target group exist?
- How do enrolments and attendance compare?
- Who repeats and why?
- How many schools are there and what facilities do they have?
- How many teachers are there and what are their qualifications?

- Where does the money for schooling go - salaries, administration, transport, etc?
- Where are the strengths and weaknesses of school provision (e.g. if local communities are enthusiastic, is this strength being used?)

(b) Information sharing:

Commonwealth countries urgently need to share their experience of:
- Varying age of entry and duration of schooling
- Using multiple entry points
- Using shift systems and other time savings
- Varying timing to suit other pressures (e.g. harvest)
- Using emergency trained teachers/ auxiliaries/monitors/senior pupils
- Using local craftsmen as expert instructors
- Using low cost short-life buildings
- Sharing community buildings such as churches, mosques, etc.
- Using new media (T.V. etc.)
- Using new pupil groupings
- Adopting learning techniques as used in traditional forms of education
- Using team-teaching
- Developing a curriculum to cater for minimum learning needs
- Evaluating the curriculum
- Devising self-instructional materials
- Using community resources
- Using national service manpower
- Using employers to finance schooling and bridge the school-to-work gap
- Developing open access to schools
- Developing compensatory programmes for drop-outs

- Using non-formal organizations for schooling.

The over-riding impression gained as the problem of universalization is studied is that a great deal of valuable and worthwhile experiment is going on. The need is for experience to be shared so that pragmatic and realistic policies may be imitated. The dominant problem of cost may well be tackled as groups of countries meet to share their experiences concerning better use of time, teachers and bildings. The relevance of the curriculum, high wastage and low attendance also demand urgent attention if the "inalienable right to education" is to be more than rhetoric and is not to lead to disillusionment and relapse to illiteracy as unrealistic expectations of school leavers are disappointed. As important as the "internal efficiency" matters mentioned above are, those efforts which take the problem of universalization out of the school teacher's hands and into the domain of the community, the employer and the family. The most rapid gains are likely to be experienced wherever in-school and out-of-school are integrated.

Bibliography

Abernethy, D: Political Dilemma of Popular Education, Holt, 1969.

Anderson, J: Struggle for the Schools, Longman, 1970.

Beeby: Quality of Education in Developing Countries, Harvard, U.P. 1966.

Brimer and Pauli: Wastage in Education, A World Problem; Unesco, 1971.

Bray, T.M.: U.P.E. in Kano State; The First Year, 'Savannah' magazine, June 1977.

Blaug, M: Education and the Employment Problems in Developing Countries: I.L.O. 1973.

Coleman, J: Education and Political Development; Princeton, UP. 1965.

Conference of African States: on Developmet of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, Unesco, 1972.

Coombes, P.H: World Educational Crisis; O.U.P. 1968

Coombs and Ahmend: Attacking Rural Poverty: Johns Hopkins 1974

Curle, Adam: Education for Liberation: Tavistock, 1973.

Dove, R.P: Pre-vocational studies: A comment on recent developments in Ceylonese education: I.D.S. 1973.

Dove, R.P: The Diploma Disease: Unwin, 1976.

Faure Report: 'Learning to Be'Report of International Commission on the Development of Education, Unesco, Harrap, 1972.

Freire, Paulo: Cultural Action for Freedom, Penguin 1972.

Hawes, H.W.R: Planning the Primary School Curriculum in Developing Countries, I.I.E.P. 1972.

Harbison & Myers: Education, Manpower & Economic Growth, McGraw, 1974.

Hawes & Williams: Aims of U.P.E.; West Africa Magazine, London, Sept/Oct. 1974.

Houghton & Richardson: Recurrent Education: A plea for Life Long Learning. Ward Lock, 1974.

I.B.E. (Unesco) Experiments & Innovations in Educstion series.

Iredale, R.O: Non-formal education in India, Dept. of Education, University of York, 1978.

Lister, Ian: Criteria for Alternatives in Education; Commonwealth Secretariat; London, 1975.

Lister, Ian: Alternatives in Education: Paper delivered at Sixth C.E.C., Jamaica, 1974.

Naik, J.P: What kind of an Educational System? Lead paper to Sixth C.E.C., Jamaica, 1974.

Naik, J.P: Elementary Education in India, A Promise to Keep; Allied Publishers, Bombay, 1975.

Nyerere, J: Ujamaa; Essays on Socialism, O.U.P., 1968.

Phillips, H.M:* Basic Education: A World Challenge, Wiley, 1975.

Reimer, E: Education in National Development, R.K.P., 1971.

Sanger, C: Project IMPACT: I.D.R.C., Ottawa, 1977.

Subramanian, T.K.V: Constraints of U.P.E. and Non-formal Education, N.C.E.R.T., New Delhi.

Subramanian, T.K.V: Key Issues in Indian Educationl A Search for alternatives, Dept. of Education, University of York, 1977.

Tamil Nadu Board of Continuing Education: Towards a Functional Learning Society, Madras, 1975.

UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia: Alternative approaches to school education at Primary level; Bankok, 1977.

White, R: An alternative Pattern of Basic Education; Radio Santa Maria, Unesco, I.B.E. 1976.

World Bank: Atlas, London, 1978.

World Bank: Education Sector Working Paper; Washington, 1974.

* Comprehensive bibliographies are a feature of Phillips' book which is probably the best treatment of the basic education/universalization debate available.

CASE STUDIES OF EFFORTS TOWARDS UPE

WITHIN THE COMMONWEALTH

NIGERIA

Developments leading to UPE

A scheme for UPE was announced in January 1974, prepared for by workshops and conferences and launched in September 1976. Hailed as "the dawn of a new era", UPE marked a massive effort to universalize and equalize educational opportunity. Early efforts to universalize primary schooling date from the 1950's when Western and Eastern Regional schemes were started. By 1970, the twelve states of Nigeria had a mixed bag of provision, in some parts free, elsewhere fee-paying; compulsory in some states, voluntary in others. After the civil war, educational expansion continued, culminating in the 1974 announcement of UPE. As "UPE-day" approached, the four major problems of Finance, Quality, Quantity and Control dominated preparations.

Finance

Capital and recurrent finance was to come from central (Federal) government and administration was to be in the hands of State governments. Teachers' Colleges also came under Federal control. By 1976/77, as much as 24% of the Federal recurrent budget was going to education (the 1960 figure was 16%).

Quantity

Compulsory and free education was the original aim of UPE but the main target for "UPE-day" became the provision of a classroom and a teacher for all

children reporting at the opening of schools. Compulsion became a target for 1979. Accurate figures for the general population, let alone the school-age children were unavailable. As many as 2.3 million six year olds were expected to enrol on "UPE-day". Actual enrolment was 3.9 million. Some states had over-estimated, others experienced a shortfall. Benue experienced a 189% over-enrolment whilst Sokoto suffered a 58% shortfall. Flexibility of class-size, shift systems and temporary buildings accommodated the over-age, under-age and the flood of children who might otherwise have enrolled later at age seven, eight or nine. Despite the twenty months of preparation, supplies and equipment were completely insufficient to cope with the huge enrolments.

Control

A major aim of the UPE programme was the removal of inequalities from state to state thus ensuring a more stable political future. Co-ordination of state efforts, strategic planning and provision of guidelines remained a Federal responsibility. However, each state was encouraged to feel a high level of control of its own destiny. Area Implementation Committees were set up by the states to bring the administration to the grass-roots level. As Bray remarks (see "Savannah" article in Bibliography) and as Hawes and Williams predicted in their "West Africa" magazine articles, it was precisely at this grassroots level that administration had its greatest problems, largely because of the inefficiency of the Federal authorities.

Quality

Complaints of "falling standards" had long plagued Nigerian education and did not diminish with the arrival of UPE. Special efforts have been made to ensure high quality in teacher education and curriculum development.

UPE in Nigeria has not meant radical, ideological changes. Vigorous attempts are being made to cope with large numbers of pupils. Resources have been stretched to their limits. Weaknesses are evident, particularly in administration, but improvements have been made, particularly by elimination of unscrupulous school proprietors and the upgrading of teacher education. Though there is still much to be overcome, this pioneering venture deserves respect.

SIERRA LEONE

Background to UPE

Nearly 200 years of missionary education characterize the history of schooling in Sierra Leone. Colonialists ignored the rich traditional and Islamic systems of education already in existence - their needs were for clerks, administrators and the like. A recent national review of education has led to major structural changes in order to cope with the 60% of primary teachers underqualified and the mere 35% of primary age children enrolled. Schooling has been over-academic and unrelated to the environment. Mere expansion of the system for universalization would be inadequate.

Finance

Within the limitations of its comparatively generous share of the national budget, improved primary schooling has become increasingly important, though even more grossly neglected areas such as agriculture and rural development may well become higher priorities. Despite its commitment to UPE by 1980, (Addis Ababa Conference target) Sierra Leone is unlikely to achieve this aim. A high population growth rate (3% p.a.) makes the setting of target dates increasingly unrealistic. The conventional school as a means of achieving UPE is proving too expensive.

Quality

UPE as an individual target has been abandoned in favour of a strategy of total educational development to maximize equality of access, improve quality and increase "relevance" to the developmental needs of the country. Attempts to shift financial and administrative burdens to local communities have failed as local administration proved inadequate.

Attempts to shift resources from secondary and tertiary levels to the primary sector have had a negative effect on quality higher up the system (cf. Phillips' recommendations on pages 49-59). A strategy which has proved more useful has been delaying entry age and shortening the cycle. Schooling on alternate days has also been considered but qualitative arguments arose again. Further strategies concern better use of complementary non-formal provision.

Role of the Community Education Centre

The major development in Sierra Leone's progress towards UPE has been the Community Education Centre as an educational base encompassing more than the conventional school, reaching into the wider community and creating realistic links between learning and life. A cautious and comprehensive approach is now in motion to ensure that progress towards UPE is more integrative and community-centred.

BANGLADESH

Background to UPE

First steps towards universalization were taken as far back as 1930, further modifications occurring in 1951. In 1959 an Education Commission recommended the introduction of UPE by 1970. In the third Five-Year Plan (1965/70), 1980 was adopted as a more realistic target date. In 1971 Bangladesh became an independent state. By 1974, just over three-quarters

of the estimated 10.7 million primary age pupils were enrolled, one third of the total being girls. Since July 1973 primary schools have been nationalized and their teachers have become government servants. Tuition is free but attendance is voluntary. About 96% of schools are in rural areas. Class 1 enrolments in 1975 were 2.85 million whilst Class 5 enrolments were 0.62 million, illustrative of the drop-out problem. Around 29% of primary age children never attend school. A number of major problems face universalization.

Insufficient accommodation

Double shifts operate; only about half the schools have adequate furniture; one chalkboard per school is the average provision and only half the schools have store-cupboards. Only 22% have latrines and only 43% of schools have a staff room.

Teacher supply and qualifications

Since 1975 the figure of 45% of primary teachers untrained has fallen to about 10% though 95% of all primary teachers are men. The attraction of regular pay and better conditions in government primary schools has led to significant recruitment of teachers from the private sector.

Drop-out rates

Drop-out rates are high, especially amongst girls. Parents who cannot afford the necessary books, clothing and equipment do not encourage their children to attend. Many children drop-out because they are needed for domestic and wage-earning duties.

Transport and Communication difficulties

Poor roads and seasonal flooding keep pupils out of school for long periods. Inspection of schools and distribution of equipment are similarly hampered. The "Bangladesh Times" of 19 January 1978 announced a new target date for UPE as 1985. The plan is not for a mere linear expansion but for consolidation of

facilities and the introduction of a double shift everywhere. It is, however, still unlikely that the target date will be met.

INDIA

The changing concept of UPE

Universal elementary education in Maharashtra would involve massive enrolments at the upper end of the schools since the 11-14 year age group has been the most neglected. Enrolment and retention of the 6-11 year age group are difficult because the main areas for improvement are backward and remote rural areas. Existing enrolments suffer from over-reporting, more girls than boys stay out of school, the weaker sections of society (scheduled tribes and castes) remain under-represented and the holding power of school is low.

In general, India is shifting her emphasis from Universal Primary Education to Universal Elementary Education - 6 years to 14 years of age with two sub-stages - primary schooling running from years 1 to 4 and years 5 to 7 forming the second stage, though a 10 + 2 + 3 pattern is now appearing.

Some objectives of the planned UPE programme

Plans have been made to ensure that there is a school within 1.5 km of every settlement. Major efforts are being made to restrict Class 1 enrolments to 6 year olds, encourage the enrolment of girls and scheduled castes and to develop part-time non-formal facilities. Qualitative improvements in the curriculum, in resource materials and methods of teaching are also being developed. Well planned improvement of administrative structures is also under way in Maharashtra, an important element being the devolution of much responsibility to

the block (local district) level. These and other developments contribute to Maharshtra State's rapid development of elementary schooling.

MALAYSIA

The need for a reappraisal of UPE

Universal provision, universal enrolment and universal retention are the aims of Malaysia's UPE. The commencement date of the planned implementation of UPE policies was 1962. Despite "statistical" success in the organizational aspects of universal provision, wastage, exacerbation of the rural-urban drift, school leaver problems and inappropriate curricula demand a reconsideration of Malaysia's provision.

As early as 1958 it was announced that every 6 year old could find a place in school but schooling did not become free until 1962 when fees were abolished in fully-assisted schools. School attendance is still not compulsory in Malaysia. Enrolment rates in Primary 1 remain well over 90% and new building has generally kept pace with the needs. Automatic promotion and the introduction of comprehensive rather than selective secondary education have led to good retention rates but wastage appears in the shape of unemployable 13 year old school leavers.

Teacher supply has been tackled by a three-fold pre-service approach of two year courses for those with a full secondary course, a three year programme for those with at least three years of secondary schooling and a three-year "sandwich" course for others with three years of secondary schooling.

Problems with Malaysia's UPE

Problems with Malaysia's universal provision of primary schooling include:

(a) Lack of clear aims

No revision of the curriculum in terms of basic learning needs has occurred to match the generalized objectives of UPE as aiming to meet the needs of the people and the country's development. Such matters as functional literacy and numeracy, the place of the community in schooling and the balance between individual development and group values have not been spelled out.

(b) Problems of the curriculum and socio-economic implications

Pre-occupation with quantitative expansion has led to neglect of qualitative changes. Despite 70% of the population being in rural areas the curriculum still reflects urban, academic and non-agricultural values. The rural-urban drift is not discouraged and children are disoriented from their home environment.

(c) Wastage, attrition and relapse into illiteracy

Main wastage and attrition points occur at transfer from primary to secondary. As would be expected, wastage affects costs, the unemployment picture and presents a possible social and political threat through the disappointment of school leavers.

(d) Teacher quality

Raising the entry qualifications of training colleges, altering the nature of college courses to allow

more mobility of teachers between primary and secondary schools and renewed emphasis on in-service work represent efforts to maintain high teacher quality.

Conclusion

Despite rapid quantitative improvements, Malaysia's universal provision has perhaps contributed to its own problems through lack of aims and the school-leaver problem. The whole concept of primary education needs re-examining in the light of Innotech's "Life Skills Objectives in Primary Education". Decentralization of curriculum control would lead to more meaningful content of schooling for rural dwellers. The concept of life-long education remains neglected.

JAMAICA

Background to UPE

Education in Jamaica was originally dualistic with church and state operating together. The major religious bodies still maintain a contribution, though the government finances all public education. About 45,000 pupils are catered for by a private sector which may eventually become grant-aided.

New Developments

The New Deal in Education (1966) and the Education Thrusts of the 1970's have revolutionized Jamaican education. Education is now free at all levels yet only 57% of primary school pupils go on to secondary - a reflection of sociological factors. Secondary education has become a national priority as middle and higher level personnel are trained from this sector.

The 1978/83 Education Plan established certain priorities in terms of education's role as an instrument of development.

The problem of quality

Quality at the primary level is a major constraint. Pupil and teacher wastage, inadequate resources, space and equipment are contributing factors to low quality. Lack of research, administrative weaknesses, weak evaluation procedures and inadequate curricula have also been identified as problem areas. Highest priority has therefore been given to qualitative improvements, particularly as figures show that 53% of primary school leavers do not reach the Grade 6 level of literacy. UPE has long been established (96% enrolled in 1977) but compulsion is only to be introduced on an experimental basis for the time being. Strategies for tackling the quality problem include improvements in teacher education, the curriculum, administration, evaluation procedures, research and supervision. More library facilities, guidance and counselling and reduction of the 35-1 pupil-teacher ratio are also envisaged. The use of mass-media in Jamaica has long been an effective feature.

The way ahead

Non-formal education is also well established in Jamaica. Expansion is based on a Government of Jamaica/USAID project which will establish 18 centres aimed at providing "life long education" opportunities.

Development of research facilities and improving inspection and supervision of schools, new school feeding, text-book and uniform programmes are further strategies of the 1978/83 plan. Qualitative improvement for national development needs is the keynote of Jamaica's provision.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Background to UPE

Prior to 1946, education in Papua New Guinea was restricted to elementary

schools run by Missions for some 90,000 pupils. In 1955, UPE became one of the major targets of newly formulated educational objectives. The UN mission of 1962 urged a change of emphasis to build up secondary education thus speeding localization of middle and higher level posts. UPE, originally planned for completion by 1973, became diluted to an overall target of 50% enrolment. By 1970, Grade 1 enrolments reached 76%. In the same year a National Teaching Service was established, ironing out anomalies between voluntary agency and government schools.

The Education Plan

After the rejection of a University Research Unit plan for educational development as too radical and a government committee plan as too expensive, A Five Year Plan (1975/80) was adopted. It provided for six years of primary schooling from age 7, followed by four years of secondary; instruction in English from the first day of primary; increased enrolments in community (first level) schools to 82% by 1980, reducing inequalities between provinces; increasing parental contributions in cash and kind; increasing representation of girls at all levels; rapid localization of teaching and administrative personnel. Throughout the plan, expansion, "relevance" and quality were emphasised. Integration of local community into school and school into local and national community in "creative participation" has been a key concept.

Problems with implementing UPE

Inequalities from district to district have long been a problem. Despite the new Organic Law (1977) offering financial support to backward areas anomalies remain. Equalization is unlikely to occur within the target date. Equal opportunities for girls seem similarly remote. Economic constraints

and the pull of rural development programmes may also keep enrolments down. A 19% increase in the primary-age population is expected by 1980. further affecting target achievement. Retention of teachers and unrealistic cost projections make true universalization very distant. Secondary provision is the main priority. Equality of access and rural development are seen as more important than UPE.

APPENDIX

PROGRESS TOWARDS UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION; A QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please tick the characteristics below which apply to the kind of UPE your country is aiming to achieve:

   (a) voluntary schooling

   (b) compulsory schooling

   (c) fee-paying schooling

   (d) free schooling

   (e) schooling for children only

   (f) schooling for citizens of any age who have had no previous education

   (g) providing schooling very similar to the existing primary programme

   (h) providing basic schooling only

   (i) using purpose-built school buildings

   (j) using any kind of building available

2. Governments have to tackle the problems of educational development in some order of priority. Please rank the following in order of priority for your country, No 1 being the area of highest priority, No 2 the next highest and so on:

   (a) development of secondary education

(b) development of technical education

(c) development of universal primary education

(d) development of higher education

(e) development of special education

(f) development of pre-school education

(g) development of non-formal education

3. Given that a period of planning and preparation is necessary before implementation of UPE, please give the date when preparation began or when preparation is to begin.

4. Assuming that a programme of UPE is to be introduced, in which year will the first enrolment of pupils take place?

5. Are different targets set for the achievement of <u>free</u> and <u>compulsory</u> basic education?

6. (a) How many years will it take from the time of the first enrolment of pupils until UPE is fully implemented?

(b) What would be the normal starting age for UPE pupils:

5 to 6 years?

6 to 7 years?

7 to 8 years?

8 to 9 years?

9 years and above?

7. What are the latest estimates, if available:

(a) of percentage of 6 to 12 age group attending primary school?

(b) of percentage of children who do not attend school at all?

(c) of percentage of children who do not complete four years of primary schooling?

8. If you expect to achieve UPE, which are the most important means of achieving it? Please rank the following in order of importance, placing a No. 1 against the most important, a No. 2 against the next and so on:

(a) national (federal) government programme only

(b) government and local community programme

(c) state government programme only

(d) local government programme only

(e) government and voluntary agency programme

(f) government, local community and voluntary agency programme

(g) other means (please specify
.....
.....
.....)

9. Please state how primary schooling is financed in your country, specifying the proportion raised by each sector:

(a) central government funding

(b) central and local government funding

(c) central government, local government and parental funding

(d) voluntary agency funding

10. If your country were to achieve UPE, which of the following financial conditions would apply?

(a) Educational expenditure would at least double

(b) Educational expenditure would increase to some extent

(c) Educational expenditure would not increase by very much

11. Progress towards UPE may be based on a number of methods or programmes. Please tick any of the following which your country is using:

(a) development of primary schools

(b) community development programmes

(c) broadcasting and multi-media approaches

(d) literacy programmes

(e) farmers' clubs, women's organizations and other adult organizations

(f) other programmes (please specify .....
.....
.....)

12. If achievement of UPE requires more teachers, which of the following steps are being taken to increase primary teacher supply? Please tick ALL those which apply in your country:

(a) more in-service training and retraining

(b) increased intakes of students for initial training

(c) building of new college(s)

(d) recruitment of teachers from other countries

(e) employment of auxiliaries in classrooms

(f) other methods (please specify
.....
.....
.....)

13. If more primary teachers are being trained, are their courses:

(a) traditional courses of teacher education?

(b) emergency or "crash" courses?

(c) courses to prepare teachers for a variety of roles in community development etc?

14. If UPE is to be achieved, adequate supervision of schools is obviously important. In which of the following areas has the inspectorate received attention? Please tick all the areas concerned and, if possible, attach brief details of steps taken:

(a) expansion of numbers of inspectors

(b) retraining of inspectors

(c) development of new programmes of initial training for inspectors

(d) more finance made available for school supervision

(e) appointment of staff to support and share the work of the inspectorate, e.g. advisers, co-ordinators.

15. If efforts towards UPE require more teaching and learning materials will these be:

(a) similar resources to those currently in use?

(b) newly developed materials?

16. Countries working towards UPE differ in their approaches to curriculum development. Is your emphasis on:

(a) curriculum development centres mainly staffed by specialists?

(b) materials mainly developed by classroom teachers?

(c) some combination of both?

17. What, if any, new methods of distributing curriculum materials are being developed? Please give brief details

.....
.....
.....

18. Some countries feel that a new curriculum is essential if UPE is to be achieved, others that a revision of the existing curriculum is best and others that no major changes are necessary. Into which group does your country fall:

(a) entirely new curriculum ?

(b) revision of existing curriculum?

(c) no major changes in curriculum?

19. Countries attempting UPE have to consider their sources of finance. For your country, which of the following are likely sources of finance? Please tick ALL the relevant sources and UNDERLINE the main one:

(a) external aid donors

(b) central government funds

(c) local government funds

(d) funds raised by local communities

(e) other sources (please specify

.....
.....
.....)

20. Which groups have been involved in planning for UPE? On the list below please tick ALL groups or bodies which have been involved:

(a) teachers' unions

(b) other teachers' organizations (e.g. Maths Association)

(c) headteachers' organizations

(d) parent groups

(e) employers

(f) local education authorities

(g) training institutions

(h) universities

(i) school inspectors

(j) special commissions

(k) other bodies (please specify
.....
.....
.....)

21. Co-ordination of the various aspects of an effort towards UPE is often difficult. Please tick ALL the areas below which are being co-ordinated:

(a) assessing probable enrolments

(b) construction of classrooms

(c) training of teachers

(d) provision of teaching materials

(e) supervision of UPE throughout the period of implementation

Please name the body responsible for co-ordination .....
.....
.....

22. If UPE means greatly expanded primary school enrolments, what plans are being made for coping with primary school leavers?

(a) most primary school leavers should be employable

(b) more secondary school places will be available

(c) alternative forms of further education will be available

(d) most primary school leavers should be self-employable

(e) no specific plans have been made

23. (a) Many countries have found that progress towards UPE is determined by a number of complex factors. From the following list, please tick those factors which most affect your progress and please UNDERLINE the one factor which you feel is the most important:

(i) cost factors

(ii) organizational problems

(iii) problems of teacher supply

(iv) lack of classrooms and other physical resources

(v) problems of curriculum

(vi) problems of communication and transport

(vii) problems of language policy

(viii) other problems (please specify .....
.....
.....
.....

(b) It has been suggested that progress towards UPE may vary greatly even within the same country. In your country:

(i) is progress fairly even?

(ii) are different policies and targets set for different regions?

(iii) does central government allocate additional resources to areas where progress is slower than the national average?

24. What specific information would you most like to receive from countries which are attempting UPE?

25. What major piece of advice would you offer another country embarking on a programme of UPE?

Published by
The Commonwealth Secretariat

May be purchased from
Commonwealth Secretariat Publications
Marlborough House
London SW1Y 5HX

ISBN 0 85092 158 9

ISBN 978-1-84859-279-7