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# **Education in Guinea-Bissau 1978-81.**

**The Impact of Swedish Assistance.**

**An evaluation made jointly by the Ministry  
of National Education, Bissau, and SIDA.**

**Edited by Roy Carr-Hill and Gunilla Rosengart.**



**September 1982.**

R É P U B L I Q U E   D U   S É N É G A L

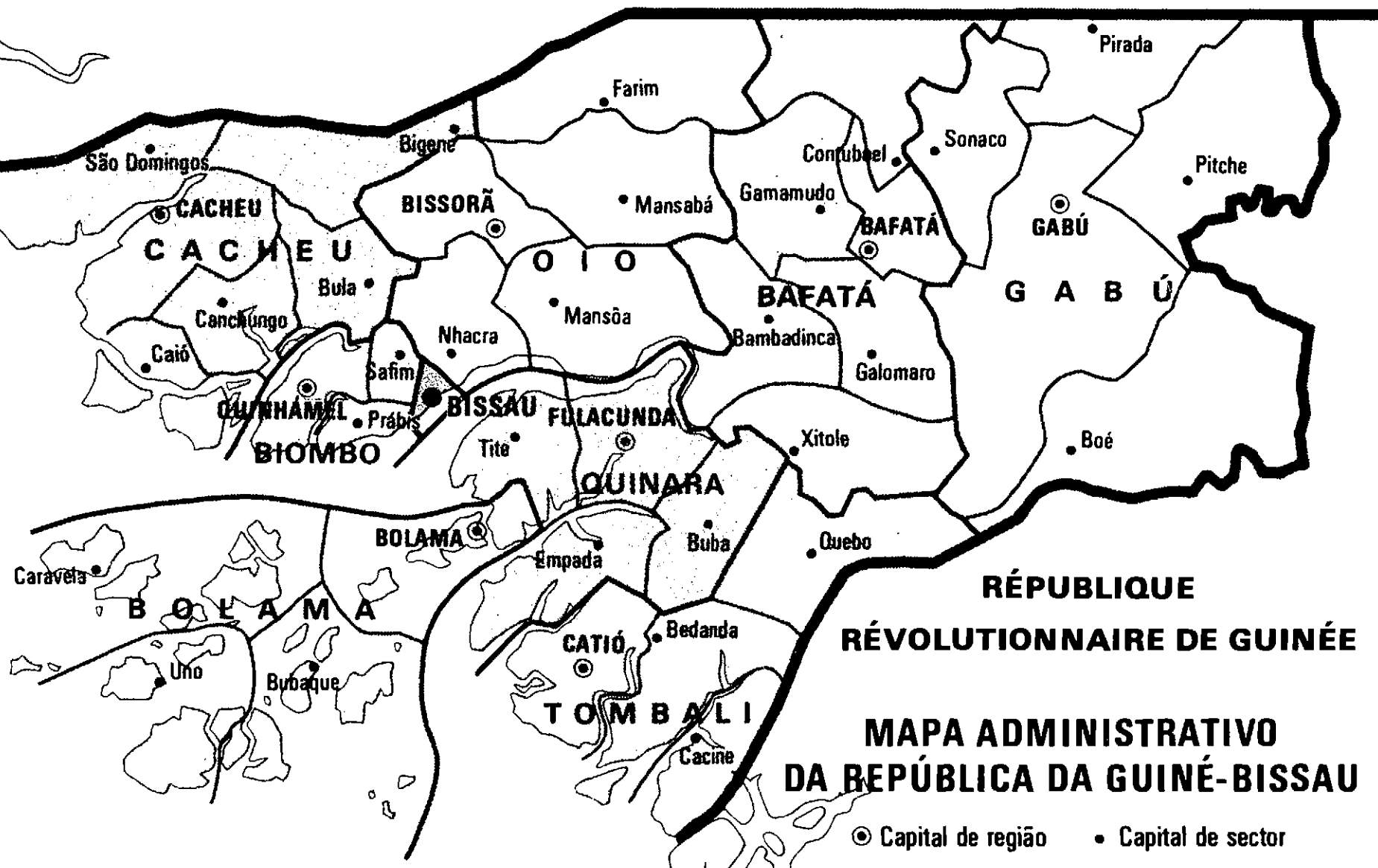


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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS \*

|       |                                                                                                                              |
|-------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| CBE   | Complementary Basic Education (Grades 5-6)                                                                                   |
| CEPI  | Centros da Educação Popular Integrada - Integrated Popular Education Centres                                                 |
| EBE   | Elementary Basic Education (Grades 1-4)                                                                                      |
| GDP   | Gross Domestic Product                                                                                                       |
| GDR   | German Democratic Republic                                                                                                   |
| GEOP  | Gabinete de Estudo e Orientação Pedagógica - Unit for Curriculum Development and Teacher Orientation                         |
| MNE   | Ministry of National Education                                                                                               |
| PAIGC | Partido Africano da Independência da Guiné e Cabo Verde<br>- The African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Capo Verde |
| PPND  | Professores de Posto Não-Diplomados - Teachers with 6-9 years of general education but without teacher training              |
| SNEF  | Sistema Nacional da Educação e Formação - the reform-proposal for a National System of Education and Training                |

### Exchange Rate - June 1982

|                   |                        |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| 100 Guinean pesos | = 15.20 Swedish crowns |
| 1 US \$           | = 5.90 Swedish crowns  |

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\* T.N. - The direct abbreviation and the English meaning only are given when the translation involves only transposition of adjective and noun, e.g. CBE, EBE, MNE. In other, more complicated, cases the original Guinean abbreviation is retained and both the Portuguese and English are given.

FOREWORD

This report is the result of a joint evaluation of the education sector in Guinea-Bissau made by the Ministry of National Education, Bissau, and the Swedish International Development Authority, SIDA.

Swedish assistance to the education sector in Guinea-Bissau dates back to 1969. During the Liberation Struggle it was channeled through PAIGC to support education efforts in the liberated areas. After Independence the cooperation developed, and in 1978 a five-year agreement was signed between Guinea-Bissau and Sweden on support to the education sector.

The decision to evaluate the education sector in Guinea-Bissau was made in September 1981 by the then Minister of Education, Mario Cabral, and representatives of SIDA. The present Minister of Education, Alvito José da Silva, has given his full support to the work.

The purpose of this study is to look into the development of the education sector in Guinea-Bissau, with particular emphasis on the last five year period. By analysing the role and effects of the Swedish sector support, background information for decisions about future Swedish assistance will be provided.

Preceded by a special study of the Ministry's Building Programme, made by Daniel Taillon and Christofer Greene of the Building Department of the Ministry, and the SIDA Consultant Bo Bjurström, in April 1982, the main part of this study was done during three weeks in May-June 1982.

The report is based upon the study of documents, of visits to a large number of schools in various parts of the country, and upon frank and thorough discussions with officials at the Ministry of National Education and with school administrators at regional and sectoral level. We were also able to talk with some teachers, pupils and parents. More important, it is the

outcome of intense and fruitful cooperation within the evaluation team, consisting of, for the MNE:

- Galdé Baldé, Head of Department of Primary Education, MNE
- Abdulai Djau, Head of Department of International Cooperation, MNE
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## 0. SUMMARY

### 0.1 Background

Guinea-Bissau is an agricultural country. Agriculture is the main economic activity of around 85% of the population. They live in the 3,600 villages that are the basic units of settlement. After 500 years of colonialism the rural world of Guinea-Bissau has remained fundamentally traditional.

At Independence PAIGC inherited glaringly under-developed economic and social infrastructures: harbours and asphalted roads were scarce, built only to connect Portuguese army camps, and the industrial base was extremely limited. Health and educational facilities were concentrated to urban centres and military posts: there was 1 doctor per 10,000 inhabitants, and the literacy rate was around 5%.

So the tasks of the first Government of independent Guinea-Bissau were enormous: to develop a productive sector, to create the economic infrastructure that is the prerequisite for the development of the productive sector, and to develop the human potential of the country by creating health and education facilities for the entire population.

During the first years of Independence when ambitious plans in all these fields were made, there were a series of dry years and agriculture has suffered. The estimated food deficit has been increasing up to 65,000 tonnes in 1981. As a result exports have declined dramatically with

an estimated balance of payments deficit of around 190 million Swedish kronas in 1981.

It is against this background that the development of the education sector has to be viewed.

## 0.2 The Education System

On the basis of the PAIGC-statement that education is the right and the duty of every citizen, schools were opened also in the remote parts of the country and the number of pupils increased considerably at all levels of education. Tremendous efforts were made in spite of lack of planning experience and capacity, lack of trained teachers, lack of adequate curricula, textbooks and teaching material and lack of school building.

Soon after Independence Primary Education was re-structured to include also class 5-6. New curricula and more relevant textbooks were progressively being introduced.

In fact, the educational system is internally consistent and well-articulated. The trouble is at its point of contact with the surrounding universe, both at the point of initial entry to the system and when the students leave the system. The report concentrates on three aspects: participation in basic education; equality between social groups; and the quality and relevance of teaching.

### 0.2.1 Participation in Basic Education

While the number of students in classes 5 and 6 and in secondary education has increased more than 40% since 1977/78 there has been a slight but steady decrease of enrolment in classes 1-4

during the same period. This decrease is partly explained by the fact that the rate of repetition has gone down. Also, the decrease is concentrated amongst children above the age of 9, whereas there is a slight tendency for the age-specific participation of children aged 6, 7 and 8 to increase. But even with these explanations the fact remains that participation rate has decreased rather than increased. One reason for this could be the clash between traditional culture with its age-stratified teaching-learning system, and the modern school. Another reason might be the parents' scepticism towards the utility of the teaching given at the school. Also, the children are often needed to help in family farming.

In 1979, the year of the census, the average enrolment rate of children between 7 and 14 was 44%. As regards equality of education there is a large variation in access between the regions, between rural and urban areas as well as between the sexes. The proportion of girls in Primary School has been stable at around 33% since Independence.

The transition between classes 4 and 5 is a critical stage since the number of pupils drops by 50% between the end of class 4 and the beginning of class 5. Those girls who do continue their studies usually remain in their home region, whilst most of the boys transfer to the city.

#### 0.2.2 Equality between Areas and Generations

In order to enhance equality of education a school construction programme for the rural areas is

being carried through. Thus, a considerable part of the investment budget is spent in the countryside whereas a comparatively larger part of the current budget is spent in the urban centres where the class 5-6 schools and where all secondary education is located.

Adults have been integrated in the education system in two ways: via evening classes parallel to the normal day-time courses, and through alphabetisation projects. Enrolment changes in the evening courses follow the same pattern as the day school; whereas the number of pupils in class 5 and 6 and in secondary education has risen considerably, the decrease in class 1-4 since 1978/79 is 21%.

Despite the political declarations about the importance of alphabetisation, the various alphabetisation projects have not been successful and very few participants have become literate.

#### 0.2.3 Quality and Relevance of Teaching

As to the quality and relevance of the teaching provided, there is not yet sufficient information on what happens to school leavers in their active life. But given that more than 80% of the population are peasant farmers, the teaching should take into account the rural reality of Guinea-Bissau, so that the pupils can be integrated in farming activities.

So far, the teaching is still too academic, and the link between productive work and the other lessons need to be improved. The school leavers do not seem motivated to remain in the rural areas.

Another indication that the quality of the teaching could be improved is the drop-out rate. Fifty-four per cent of the children enrolled in the first class do not even try to pass the exams at the end of the year. One of the reasons for this could be the contents of the curriculum which is heavy and detailed and not sufficiently related to local environment. One other explanation is probably that the language of instruction is Portuguese, which is spoken by only around 10% of the population.

Another reason could be that the great majority of the teachers are unqualified. However, great efforts have been made to up-grade teachers. There is also a tendency for the few qualified teachers who do exist to be sent to the rural areas.

### 0.3 Swedish Aid

Swedish assistance to the education sector in Guinea-Bissau is in the form of sector support, and is thus fully integrated in the overall activities and programme of the Ministry of National Education.

Priority has been given to Primary Education, Teacher Training and Up-Grading and Alphabetisation/Adult Education with the objectives of increasing the equality in the education sector, and raising the quality of the teaching.

#### 0.3.1 The Aid Programme so far

The largest part, around 45%, of the support has been utilised for the production of textbooks and for the purchase of teaching material for pupils in the above sub-sectors.

Another important field of cooperation has been in the building and repair of schools. 20 new primary schools have been constructed, all of them in rural areas, by "Building Animators" trained within this programme of cooperation.

The Swedish support has contributed around 10% of the yearly investment of the Ministry of National Education. Funds have also been provided to cover local costs for teacher up-grading and alphabetisation courses.

It would have been presumptuous to expect any substantial improvements as regards equality or teaching quality after only a few years of Independence following on 500 years of colonial rule. Some encouraging signs have already been noticed; the new primary schools are being located in the rural areas, more qualified teachers move to the rural areas, and new textbooks, better adapted to the local environment, are produced.

But tremendous efforts will still have to be made during the years to come.

#### 0.3.2 Recommendations for Future Aid

It is suggested that the Swedish assistance during the 1980s be concentrated in the following sub-sectors: Primary Education, Alphabetisation and Skill training for Adults.

In order to improve the quality of teaching within these sub-sectors, attention should be paid to the adaption of curricula, of textbooks and of teaching material as well as to the training and up-grading of teachers and instructors.

Support could also be given to the building and repair of primary schools.

Within the Alphabetisation programme, support should be given to pilot projects of alphabetisation in local languages.

Efforts should be made that the programmes of Alphabetisation and Skill Training be related to the SIDA-supported Zone 1 project.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Objectives of the Evaluation

The aims of this study of the education sector in Guinea-Bissau is to provide information as a basis for deciding upon the appropriate emphasis of future aid in this sector. To do this, we first describe overall development in the education sector since Independence and especially during the last four years. Then, on the basis of that description and of the objectives that constituted the framework of the Guinea-Bissau/Sweden agreement in the field of education, we analysed the principal problems in the education sector. Thirdly, we discussed the success of the programmes in the sector which benefitted from Swedish aid during the last four years, and we tried to identify the important bottlenecks in these programmes. On the basis of these analyses, we have formulated our recommendations for the ways in which Swedish aid should be allocated over the next few years. The terms of reference for this evaluation mission are given in an annex to this chapter. (Annex 1.1)

### 1.2 Methodological Approach

We approached the analytical part of our work with the classical model in mind. That is, we envision human and material inputs as being distributed between the various programmes of the education sector and these programmes in turn are intended to make a contribution to the attainment of the objectives of the sector.

In this model, the objective of analysis is to understand and evaluate the importance of the links either between the various inputs and the different

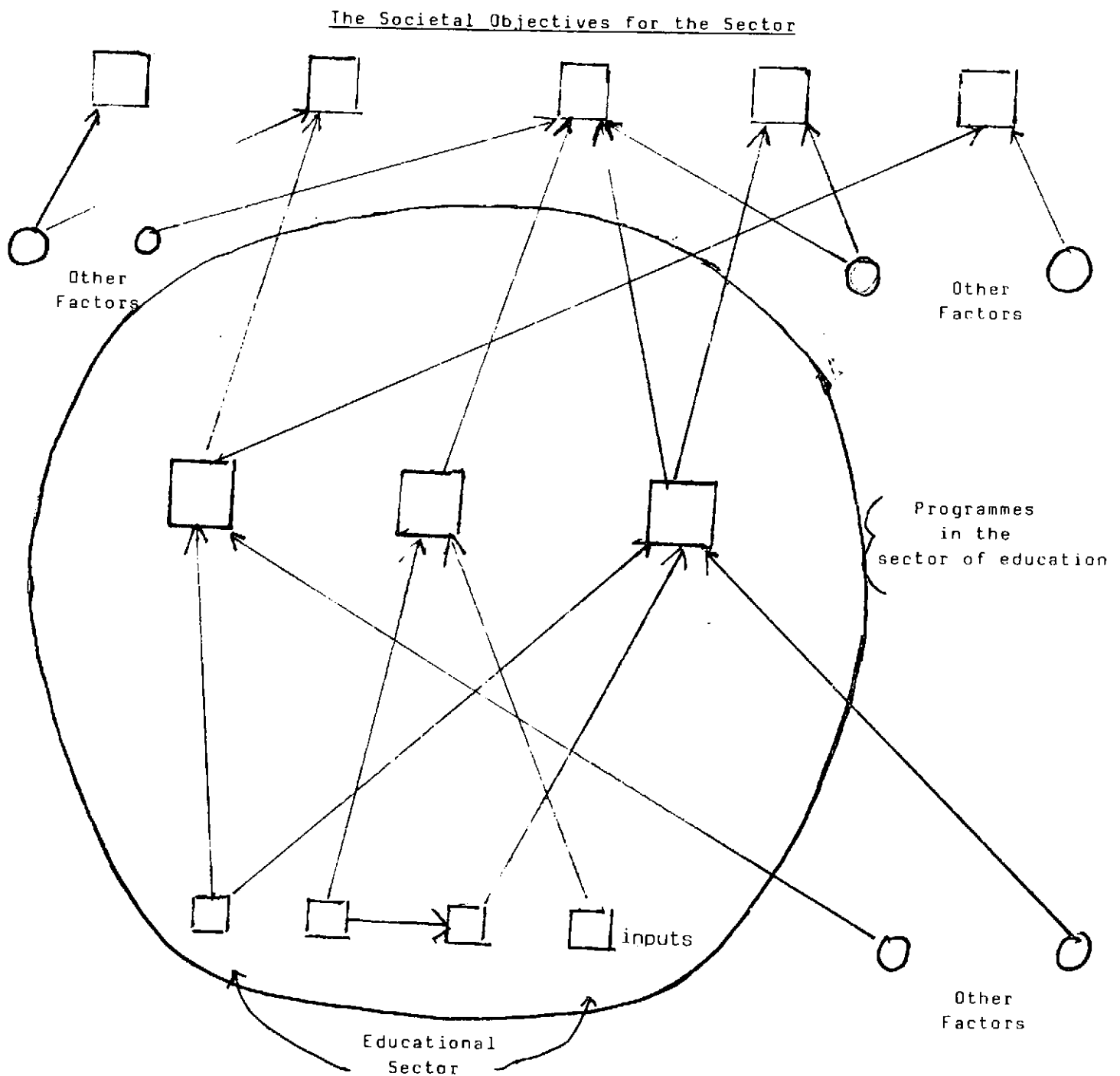
programmes within the sector, or between the different programmes and the objectives. This model can be represented schematically as in Diagram 1.1.

But the problem with this model, although classic, well known and conceptually simple, is that we can only take advantage of it if we have a detailed knowledge of all the factors that may contribute to the implementation of the programmes and the way in which they interrelate; and equally, we have to have a theory on which to base an analysis of the relative influence of the programmes, given that there is probably a large variety of factors which operate on one or another level and that some of those factors will be outside the education sector.

Moreover, there are practical limitations; the evaluation had to be completed in three weeks and the data which were available did not permit a complete analysis of this type. For all of these reasons, our approach will be more modest; we do not make a detailed study of the way in which the inputs are used within the programmes, neither do we go deeply into theoretical and abstract debate. Instead, we have used what data there are available and made as many visits as possible to observe different types of educational establishment at work. Whenever we need to put these data and/or our observations into a theoretical framework, we simply present the assumptions or suppositions of that theory without attempting to justify them at length.

It is true that this approach implies that we cannot make a precise quantitative assessment of the contribution of Swedish aid to the development of education. But this situation is not specific to

Diagram 1.1

The Classical Evaluation Model

this particular evaluation of the aid to education in Guinea Bissau: what is crucially missing - regardless of the amount of data or the time available - is a theoretical model linking together all the important factors. We have to be more modest.

So, we have analysed the development in general taking into account the objectives that constituted the framework of the Guinea Bissau/Sweden agreement and, separately, we have discussed the sector programmes when there has been an input from Swedish aid.

### 1.3 Structure of the Report

A report on the development of education whatever the country must start from an appreciation of the socio-economic realities of the country. That is why we present, in Chapter Two, a brief summary of the socio-economic development since Independence. In Chapter Three, we describe the education sector, concentrating on the existing situations and developments during the last four years. That description is the basis of our analysis. In Chapter Four we describe the objectives of the Guinea-Bissau/Sweden agreement in the education sector and in Chapter Five we describe in some detail the activities and programmes in which Swedish aid has contributed during the period of the agreement.

The two following chapters are analytical: in Chapter Six we look at the overall development of the education sector concentrating on the level of participation in school, equality of access for different groups of children, and the quality of the teaching that is provided. In Chapter Seven, we comment on the use of

Swedish aid in the fields of school construction, didactic materials, alphabetisation and the training and upgrading of teachers.

The last two chapters are reflections on this evaluation. First, in Chapter Eight, we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of sector support vis-a-vis aid to specific programmes and projects. Finally, in Chapter Nine, we review the conclusions of our analysis and give some recommendations concerning the appropriate directions of future Swedish aid.

Annex 1.1Terms of Reference for an Evaluation of the Swedish support to the Education Sector of Guinea-Bissau

## BACKGROUND

An agreement between Guinea-Bissau and Sweden on support to the education sector of Guinea-Bissau was signed in February 1978. The agreement covers five calendar years, 1978-1982. It is envisaged that the co-operation in the field of education will continue.

During the sector review 1981 it was agreed that a joint evaluation of the sector support 1978-1982 be carried out in Spring 1982, by a team in which the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and SIDA are represented.

## PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to look into the development of the education sector in Guinea-Bissau and to analyse the role and effects of the Swedish sector support. The study should provide background information for decisions about future Swedish assistance.

## DUTIES

Through study of relevant documents, visits to educational institutions and discussions with the Guinean authorities concerned the team should:

- (a) describe and analyse overall development in the field of education in Guinea-Bissau:
- (b) summarise achievements in the programmes supported by Sweden, eg. programme of building and repair of schools, programme of education material (procurement, production, distribution), programme of teacher upgrading;
- (c) identify bottlenecks in the implementation of the programmes indicated in the foregoing paragraph:
- (d) look into the efficiency of sector support as a mechanism for transfer of resources as compared to other forms of support, eg. project support:
- (e) identify possible areas to be included in the Swedish assistance to the education sector as from 1983

A draft report, written in Portuguese or French, should be completed before the non-Guinean members of the team leave Guinea-Bissau.

## MEMBERS OF THE TEAM

The team should comprise at least one member representing the MEC, and 1-2 representatives of SIDA. In addition, 1-2 consultants, experienced in the fields of school-buildings and education material, should be included.

## DURATION

The work shall be undertaken during April and May 1982

Around two weeks will be spent in Guinea-Bissau.

## COSTS

Costs induced by the non-Guinean members of the team will be met by SIDA.

## 2. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

### 2.1 Introduction

Guinea-Bissau has a population of about 800,000 and a total area of 36,125 km<sup>2</sup>. The economy of the country is essentially agricultural. It is estimated that approximately 85 per cent of the working population are engaged in rural activities.

GDP at constant 1979 market prices was 4663 million pesos, while GDP per capita in 1979 was estimated at 170 US \$ for the country as a whole, but less than 100 US \$ in the interior of the country.

The average rate of population increase for the country as a whole is estimated at 1.4 per cent per annum (probably an underestimate). In the city of Bissau the rate is estimated at 5 per cent. The birth rate is fairly high (average family size: 6.3 persons), but the infant mortality rate is very high.

The consumption of energy is very unevenly distributed: whereas in the interior the per capita consumption is less than 5 kwh, the city of Bissau consumes seven times as much energy as the rest of the country.

The country's principal agricultural products are rice, groundnuts, palm nuts, maize, sorghum, timber and fishing resources. The crops are affected by periodic Sahelian droughts, which make both agriculture and livestock production difficult.

### 2.2 The Period after Independence

Upon declaring Independence on 24 September 1973

and winning full independence, under the auspices of PAIGC, in the following year, the country inherited glaringly under-developed economic and social infrastructure. At independence, the country possessed only one small harbour, 430 km of asphalted road and a brewery originally established to supply the expeditionary forces. The literacy rate was around 5 per cent. In the health sector there was only one doctor per 10,000 population and 1,169 hospital beds or one bed per 685 population. The superficial nature of Portuguese colonialism's economic involvement explains in part the continued existence of a very extensive non-monetary sector, accounting for approximately 65 per cent of the gross domestic product (GDP). Of an estimated economically active population of 450,000 only 25,000 are in paid employment. The rural world of Guinea-Bissau has thus remained fundamentally traditional in its techniques and social organisation. A feature of that organisation is the existence of 3,600 villages, which are the basic units of settlement in rural areas.

Since Independence in 1974, efforts have largely been channelled into infrastructure activities accounting for 46% of the investments in 1980 including the reclamation of mangrove-covered land, the opening up and restoration of the main transport routes, the establishment of trading and storage networks, the organisation of telecommunications enabling contact to be maintained efficiently between the towns and the rural areas and the creation of energy production and water supply infrastructures. However, economic conditions in Guinea-Bissau are heavily influenced by climatic variations and especially by the dry periods which the country has experienced for several years, and any disruption of agriculture has

immediate repercussions on economic activity as a whole, owing to the overriding importance of the agricultural sector. The estimated food deficit was 45,000 tonnes of cereals in 1980 and 65,000 tonnes in 1981.

The crisis in the agricultural sector has been the main cause of the decline in production. Exports, 75 per cent of which are agricultural products, have been hard hit, while increasing exports of food-stuffs are swelling the country's trade deficit. The estimated balance of payments deficit for 1981 is \$ 32 million. External debt is currently \$ 170 million. From 1982 onwards the country will be obliged to spend \$ 10 million annually on servicing the State debt.

In spite of this gloomy picture, account must be taken of the under-utilisation of such sectors of the economy as farming, fishing, forestry and mineral resources. For example, in the case of farming, today only 400,000 hectares (ha) of the available arable land of 1 million hectares are under cultivation: in fishing, catches represent only 25 per cent of the potential annual catch of approximately 200,000 tons of fish. In the case of mineral resources, large deposits of phosphate (35 million tons), bauxite (250 million tons) and offshore oil remain unexploited.

### 2.3 Perspectives

With a view to improving the people's living conditions, the Provisional Government, appointed by the Revolutionary Council in February 1981, formulated in July 1981 a short-term programme for national economic recovery and development. Its stated objectives include increasing food

production with a view to self-sufficiency, together with the creation of national reserves of rice to be used to supply the population, improving and expanding training and education, reorganising health services, strengthening the transport and communications infrastructure and economic and administrative institutions, prospecting for and developing natural resources, the development of the poorer regions and regional development.

The country's planned and implemented Investment programme for 1980 is given in Table 2.1 (see next page).

The planned investments decreased considerably (to 3,172.2 million pesos) in 1981. This could be ascribed to a higher degree of realism on the part of government planning, given the known restrictions in the country's implementation capacity.

The bulk of the investments is financed through external assistance (grants and loans); domestic resources financed about 12 per cent of the total. Of the foreign financial aid received, only a fraction was spent in Guinea-Bissau, for most of it was used to pay for the purchase of goods abroad and for training and technical assistance.

### 2.3.1 Agriculture, Forests and Fisheries

The primary sector accounts for some 40 per cent of GDP, although it engages almost 90 per cent of the economically active population. In relation to the number of persons engaged, agricultural yields are thus extremely low (in the case of rice, only 920 kilograms (kg) per hectare).

Table 2.1 Public Investment Program, 1980,  
Planned and Implemented (in millions  
of Guinean pesos)

| Sectors                                                 | Planned<br>Investment | Implemented<br>Investment | % Imple-<br>mented of<br>what was<br>planned | % of<br>total<br>Invest-<br>ment |
|---------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <u>Productive Sectors</u>                               | <u>1,739.5</u>        | <u>889.6</u>              | <u>51.1</u>                                  | <u>31.4</u>                      |
| Agriculture, forestry<br>and livestock                  | 597.0                 | 145.6                     | 24.4                                         | 5.1                              |
| Fisheries                                               | 381.4                 | 205.7                     | 53.9                                         | 7.3                              |
| Natural Resources                                       | 211.8                 | 122.4                     | 57.8                                         | 4.3                              |
| Industry                                                | 549.3                 | 415.9                     | 75.7                                         | 14.7                             |
| <u>Economic Infrastructures</u>                         | <u>2,552.2</u>        | <u>1,271.6</u>            | <u>49.8</u>                                  | <u>45.0</u>                      |
| Energy                                                  | 725.4                 | 367.8                     | 50.7                                         | 13.0                             |
| Transportation                                          | 1,428.1               | 768.8                     | 53.8                                         | 27.2                             |
| Commerce                                                | 77.9                  | 20.8                      | 26.6                                         | 0.8                              |
| Telecommunications                                      | 247.7                 | 107.9                     | 43.6                                         | 3.8                              |
| Tourism                                                 | 70.3                  | 6.3                       | 9.0                                          | 0.2                              |
| Meteorology                                             | 2.7                   | --                        | --                                           | --                               |
| <u>Social Sectors</u>                                   | <u>956.6</u>          | <u>547.0</u>              | <u>57.2</u>                                  | <u>19.3</u>                      |
| Education                                               | 479.7                 | 277.5                     | 57.8                                         | 9.8                              |
| Health                                                  | 183.4                 | 124.0                     | 67.6                                         | 4.4                              |
| Housing, urban<br>development<br>and sewerage           | 260.9                 | 142.5                     | 54.6                                         | 5.0                              |
| Information and<br>Culture                              | 32.6                  | 3.1                       | 9.4                                          | 0.1                              |
| <u>Administrative and<br/>Financial Infrastructures</u> | <u>198.1</u>          | <u>119.3</u>              | <u>60.2</u>                                  | <u>4.3</u>                       |
| <u>Total</u>                                            | <u>5,446.3</u>        | <u>2,827.6</u>            | <u>51.9</u>                                  | <u>100.0</u>                     |

Source: Ministry of Economic Co-ordination and Planning

Total agricultural output is accordingly inadequate to meet the country's food needs.

The Government's basic objective is to eliminate food deficits. This will be done by increasing the area under cultivation, and introducing more appropriate techniques. The increase in the area under cultivation should lead to increased output and encourage populations in areas experiencing migration to settle. Improved fishing techniques should improve the population's food intake. Rational exploitation of forests with the aim of controlling the spread of the desert in meeting the country's requirements for timber is also a government priority.

#### 2.3.2 Human Resources

The proportion of illiterates is still extremely high in Guinea-Bissau. This means that most of the population are unable to handle arithmetic, weights and measures, basic hygiene, principles of health, collective labour organisation which are usually viewed as prerequisites for economic development. The development of the education sector is, of course, the subject of this report.

#### 2.3.3 Health

The medical infrastructure in Guinea-Bissau is negligible. The country has only one doctor per 10,000 population and one hospital bed per 685 population. The supply of medicines is far from adequate or evenly distributed. Measures to prevent and treat disease are not universally available, a situation which seriously affects the capacity to work and morale of the population. There is a serious incidence of malaria, gastrointestinal disease, filariasis, tuberculosis and

leprosy. The infant mortality rate is estimated at 250 per thousand, and the mortality rate among children under five years is slightly over 400 per thousand. The objectives which the Government wishes to pursue are the development of preventive and prophylactic medicine, education of the population in rudimentary standards of hygiene, the elimination of the major endemic diseases, mainly through vaccination and, finally, the development of a medical infrastructure (personnel and equipment) in villages and towns.

Government expenditure on health accounted for 11.9% of its current budget in 1979 and 4.6 of the investment budget of 1981.

#### 2.3.4 Natural Resources

The natural resources of Guinea-Bissau are still poorly utilised. Many villages have only one waterpoint, which serves both the drinking and agricultural needs of the local population. The water supply potential for irrigation and electric power is virtually untapped, and most of the country has no electricity. Mining of bauxites and phosphate has not yet started. Government programmes in the field of natural resources give priority to supplying villages with water by drilling wells, maintaining them, and providing mechanical and electric pumps. These programmes have important direct results: saving labour, improvement of water quality and, therefore, of the health of the population, the survival of cattle during droughts, and the irrigation of the surrounding land. In energy, top priority will be given to diversifying sources of supply (biodigester systems, for example) and saving diesel oil or fuel oil energy.

Government investments in natural resources accounted for 3.8% of the investment budget in 1981, of which water alone accounts for 2.4%.

#### 2.3.5 Transport and Communication

Despite effort undertaken since Independence, transport remains one of the major constraints to economic growth. The transport system, although extensive, is in poor condition. Furthermore, the network was built to serve military needs and not development. Thus, the Southern part of the country, where most of the rice is grown, is not serviced by roads. Paved roads exist between some of the major towns, but regional roads in the South are not passable during the rainy season, and feeder roads in the North are inadequate. Transport of groundnuts from the Northern region to Bissau for processing and export has to be made by road and river. Currently, river transport is also the only means of bringing rice from the surplus regions of the South to the capital. Priority will be given to the movement of goods and people between regions with an agricultural surplus and Bissau or deficit regions. River and coastal traffic will have priority among transport development objectives and a sustained effort will be made to construct and maintain secondary roads connecting villages to major roads. Bilateral assistance in this field has been granted by, among others, Kuwait, the Netherlands and Sweden.

#### 2.3.6 Industry

Industrial activity is little developed so far; a brewery/soft drinks factory, an automobile assembly plant, and some processing or agricul-

tural products form the bulk of manufacturing production. The industries that are to receive Government support are in the main those processing agricultural products, e.g. rice milling, groundnut processing palm-oil and copra processing, etc., which use simple machinery and relatively little energy. Sugar cane is to be transformed into sugar and alcohol through the use of simple and relatively inexpensive machinery like that used in Brazil. Palm-oil is to be used for making soap, certain hard fibres (ramie, jute) are to be cultivated and used for the manufacture of sacks, rope, etc. and tobacco is to be grown for the manufacture of cigarettes. Cottage industries for the manufacture of fabrics, yarns, garments and textiles are to be encouraged.

#### 2.4 Public Financing and Balance of Payments

Budgetary revenues are low, reflecting the small contribution from import and export duties, a legacy from the colonial tariff structure which is now being revised. Revenues only cover 44% of budgetary expenditures, leaving a current deficit 1978 of GP 671 million (US \$ 20 million), which had to be financed by Central Bank advances and some external borrowing. Extra-Budgetary expenditures (mainly capital outlays, technical assistance, and emergency food supply) are high (40% of total expenditures) and growing rapidly. In 1978, they amounted to US \$ 32.5 million (26% of GDP) and were entirely financed by foreign assistance. The size of the civil service (15,000 employees, exclusive of the military) represents a serious medium-term problem, since domestic resources would probably not be sufficient to cover the salaries. Today

these salaries account for about 55 % of the government's current budget.

The country's balance of trade and balance of payments are chronically unfavourable, for the value of exports has remained virtually stationary in recent years, whereas imports have doubled. Only about 23% of the cost of imports was covered by exports in 1976. The balance of payments deficit (estimated at about \$32 million in 1981) is largely attributable to the burden of payments of interest and principal on the public debt (currently standing at about \$170 million) and to outgoings in respect of service. Over the period 1975-78, Guinea-Bissau received on average about US \$ 30-35 million a year in foreign grants and loans, which in comparison to other West African countries was rather high (US \$ 40 per capita per annum or 20-30% of GNP). Foreign aid consisted of substantial balance of payments support to bridge the country's most difficult years. As well as project aid to a variety of sectors (fisheries, agriculture, health, education and telecommunications). In the next few years, foreign aid is likely to remain at a high level, with a shift, however, from program aid to more project-oriented assistance.

A potential problem which may soon reach large proportions in Guinea-Bissau is the future burden that most aid projects place on future current expenditure budgets. Heavy investments today which are not planned carefully, means tying down a large part of tomorrow's current budgets, thus restricting the government's future policy options. In view of the critical balance of payments position, Guinea-Bissau can only afford the necessary foreign borrowing if it is made available at very conces-

sionary terms. Estimates show that total debt contracted in 1979 amounted to about US \$ 70 million of which about US \$ 20 million disbursed. Although most of the debts contracted carry maturities of at least 20 years, the service on public debt in 1978 already claimed about 12% of total earnings from exports of goods and non-factor services.

## 2.5 Foreign Aid

Today's foreign aid to Guinea-Bissau from the various sectors is the following: in the field of livestock production support is given by Sweden, Switzerland, GDR; for food cropping, agroindustrial production and food storage by USA, Netherlands, France, Norway, China and the World Council of Churches; for forestry, by Canada; and for fishery, by SIDA, USA and EEC.

There is considerable bilateral medical assistance. At present, there are more than 100 foreign doctors working in Guinea-Bissau (China, Cuba, France, German Democratic Republic, USSR, Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden). The Netherlands and the Vatican, among others, are providing financial assistance for the construction of hospitals. WHO is providing assistance for seven projects for the period 1982-83. EEC is also making a contribution in the health sphere.

Also in the field of natural resources there is important foreign aid received by Guinea-Bissau. The Fund for Aid and Co-operation (France) is financing a study which is to culminate in an inventory of water resources which could be brought into use by means of hill dams, weirs and salt-water barrages. The Netherlands and

France are working on a large number of wells and boreholes. The Soviet Union is providing technical assistance (10 experts). In the field of electrical energy, the German Democratic Republic, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and SIDA are providing Guinea-Bissau with generating sets. The Interim Fund for Science and Technology for Development will provide assistance in setting up the geo-technical studies section of the Ministry of Natural Resources.

## 2.6 The Implications for the Education Sector

Both during the years of the liberation struggle and since Independence, PAIGC has viewed education as a basic human right, as a vehicle for integrating the individual with the surrounding society, and as a means for economic and social development. As such, the government has tried to ensure that the development of the education sector is in accordance with social and economic realities and with the development goals. Given the picture presented above this implies an emphasis on agricultural and vocational training. We shall bear this in mind during the followign chapters.

Table 2.2 Surface Area, Number of "Tabancas", Resident Population by Sex and Number of Families in Each Region and Sector in 1979

| REGIONS<br>AND<br>SECTORS | SURFACE<br>(km <sup>2</sup> ) | NUMBER<br>OF<br>"TABANCAS" | RESIDENT POPULATION |         |         |          |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|---------|---------|----------|
|                           |                               |                            | SEX                 |         |         | FAMILIES |
|                           |                               |                            | TOTAL               | MALES   | FEMALES |          |
| 2                         | 3                             | 4                          | 5                   | 6       | 7       | 8        |
| Guinea-Bissau             | 36,125.00                     | 3,631                      | 777,214             | 375,026 | 402,026 | 124,354  |
| S.A. Bissau               | 52.50                         | --                         | 109,486             | 52,933  | 56,553  | 19,117   |
| Regions:                  |                               |                            |                     |         |         |          |
| Bafata                    | 5,896.90                      | 875                        | 117,202             | 57,824  | 59,378  | 19,486   |
| Biombo                    | 729.38                        | 132                        | 57,724              | 27,584  | 30,140  | 9,211    |
| Bolama                    | 1,550.56                      | 169                        | 25,713              | 12,601  | 13,112  | 3,908    |
| Quinara                   | 2,825.24                      | 235                        | 35,360              | 16,676  | 18,684  | 5,785    |
| Cacheu                    | 4,624.39                      | 622                        | 134,108             | 63,519  | 70,589  | 20,295   |
| Gabu                      | 8,867.50                      | 670                        | 105,500             | 52,625  | 52,848  | 15,920   |
| Oio                       | 5,183.50                      | 620                        | 137,595             | 65,423  | 72,172  | 22,020   |
| Tombali                   | 3,283.75                      | 308                        | 54,526              | 25,814  | 28,712  | 8,612    |

Source: Census Department of the State Commissariat for Economic Coordination and Planning (CECEP)

### 3. DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR IN THE REPUBLIC OF GUINEA-BISSAU

#### 3.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to describe the development of the education sector in the Republic of Guinea-Bissau during the period of the agreement between Guinea-Bissau and Sweden (1978-1982). In order that this account is clear and understandable, we must first describe what was the situation in the education sector before that period. But, even though this latter description of the colonial epoch and of the years immediately following Independence is essential to situate subsequent developments, the description here will be very short and we shall refer to other documents and reports which are already available.

For obvious reasons, this chapter is quite complex as it has to take into consideration changes which have taken place following Independence, mainly in the relevant four year period (1978-1982). We shall distinguish four phases:

- (a) the colonial period
- (b) the period immediately following Independence
- (c) the present situation in each of the subsectors
- (d) the National System of Education and Training (SNEF)

In elaborating this chapter we have, in the main, relied on the official documents from the Ministry of Education (yearbooks and statistics over the last four years), the SNEF proposals, and reports of previous foreign missions.

### 3.2 Historical Retrospective

For centuries, children and youth in Guinea-Bissau have learnt what it was considered they needed to know in order to live from the 'elders' of the community. The most respected men of the villages were responsible for teaching the young both practical knowledge and about the traditions of the group.

#### Colonialist Education

The introduction of education by colonialism only served to reinforce already existing inequalities. It was controlled by the Portuguese and by the local petite bourgeoisie, discriminating against the vast majority of the population, the peasantry. Thus, education served as the vehicle of colonialist ideology by which the reality of oppression and exploitation could be hidden from those being educated.

In general, in the colonialist society, the vast majority of the population were resigned to the educational system and only a small minority, the local petite bourgeoisie, had any real access to education. Let us leave on one side Secondary Education, which was destined essentially for the children of senior civil servants and of the commercial class.

We can follow the development of Elementary Basic Education over time in the following table (see over)

The picture presented here shows that the majority of the schools were Catholic missionary schools until 1966: so that in 1961 the 207 missionary schools represented 94% of all schools in the

Table 3.1 Twenty Years of Development of Primary Education  
in the Zones Occupied by the Colonial Regime, 1954-1974

| YEARS   | EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENTS |                   |                |       | NUMBER OF PUPILS |                   |                |        |
|---------|----------------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------|------------------|-------------------|----------------|--------|
|         | Official                   | Catholic Missions | Military Posts | Total | Official         | Catholic Missions | Military Posts | Total  |
| 1954/55 | 11                         | 120               | -              | 131   | 732              | 7,181             | -              | 7,913  |
| 1955/56 | 11                         | 129               | -              | 140   | 825              | 9,353             | -              | 10,178 |
| 1956/57 | 11                         | 139               | -              | 148   | 760              | 10,307            | -              | 11,067 |
| 1957/58 | 12                         | 152               | -              | 164   | 876              | 10,499            | -              | 11,375 |
| 1958/59 | 13                         | 194               | -              | 207   | 1,061            | 12,473            | -              | 13,534 |
| 1959/60 | 13                         | 201               | -              | 214   | 1,272            | 11,976            | -              | 13,020 |
| 1960/61 | 13                         | 207               | -              | 220   | 1,280            | 11,976            | -              | 13,256 |
| 1961/62 | 13                         | 143               | -              | 156   | 1,345            | 11,108            | -              | 12,453 |
| 1962/63 | 13                         | 119               | -              | 132   | 1,827            | 8,728             | -              | 10,555 |
| 1963/64 | 13                         | 109               | -              | 121   | 1,953            | 9,561             | -              | 11,514 |
| 1964/65 | 57                         | 96                | -              | 153   | 2,058            | 9,355             | -              | 11,393 |
| 1965/66 | 77                         | 85                | -              | 162   | 3,644            | 9,900             | -              | 13,540 |
| 1966/67 | 88                         | 82                | -              | 170   | 4,385            | 10,912            | -              | 15,297 |
| 1967/68 | 88                         | 82                | -              | 170   | 4,874            | 11,649            | -              | 16,523 |
| 1968/69 | 88                         | 85                | -              | 173   | 5,988            | 11,981            | -              | 17,969 |
| 1969/70 | 91                         | 84                | 66             | 241   | 7,505            | 10,494            | 2,759          | 20,759 |
| 1970/71 | 96                         | 81                | 92             | 269   | 10,464           | 10,266            | 6,706          | 27,436 |
| 1971/72 | 158                        | 79                | 119            | 356   | 17,786           | 9,384             | 7,667          | 34,837 |
| 1972/73 | 171                        | 79                | 128            | 378   | 21,793           | 9,677             | 8,566          | 40,036 |
| 1973/74 | 179                        | 79                | 160            | 418   | 25,249           | 10,457            | 10,255         | 45,961 |

colonialist occupied zones. From 1961/62, the colonial government began to give more importance to the education sector and, as a result, the missionary schools began to decline in importance and, much later, Military School Posts were created. And, from 1963/64, the colonial state started to exercise a progressively more direct control over educational institutions as part of its moves to centralise ideological and political power and thus to frustrate the armed struggle for national liberation.

The third phase is marked by the creation of Military School Posts starting in 1969. These schools were introduced as part of the programme of "strategic villages" whose purpose was to provide a focus of opposition to PAIGC authority in the liberated areas. This policy was an attempt to extend, in quantitative terms, the coverage of the school network which, even so, never included more than 50,000 pupils for a total population estimated at that time at 800,000 inhabitants. But, we have to take into account the contribution of that policy to the educational explosion which we describe in more detail below.

Education during the National Liberation Struggle  
From the beginning of the national liberation struggle, the development of education in Guinea-Bissau was always a fundamental preoccupation of PAIGC.

The decisions taken soon after the historic Congress of Casaca in 1964 contributed enormously to the development of a structure for the educational system in the then liberated areas. As an obvious example of this preoccupation, we can cite the

words of the Founder of the national movement, Comrade Amílcar Cabral: "Nobody can know without learning and the most ignorant is he who 'knows' without ever having learnt. Learn from living, learn alongside our people, learn from books and from the experience of others. Never stop learning."

The progress of the national liberation struggle and the extension of the areas controlled by the PAIGC, considerably facilitated the installation of a real school network in the liberated areas.

Moreover, contrary to what was happening in the colonial schools, the purpose of schooling in the old liberated zones was to systematise and deepen the people's lived experience and to be part of an environment which was in itself mobilising, organising and educational.

There were three axes to the pedagogy practised in this kind of school: political education, technical training, and the transformation of individualistic attitudes into collective behaviour. This kind of school took root in the community and was seen as a privileged place where soldiers, peasants, and young students could meet amongst the people and in contact with their daily life, and so learn anything which could be useful in advancing the struggle.

### 3.3 Changes in the Education System

During the first two years following Independence, teaching in Guinea-Bissau continued within the Portuguese structure. It was not possible to implement straightaway the wide-reaching reforms envisaged by the PAIGC, given the complexity of

the situation and the numerous difficulties encountered. A gradual and planned change was preferable.

The first change which occurred was in the content of teaching: the curricula and textbooks which had been used in the liberated zones were adapted to the new reality of National Independence and introduced into the first four classes. Only later was there an attempt to change the structure of the education system.

The colonial system was divided into two parts: a Primary Education of four classes and a Secondary Education including a Lycee, Technical Schools and Teacher Training Colleges. The transition between Primary and Secondary was done through a Preparatory Cycle of two years.

Another important characteristic of the colonial educational system was the emphasis on the pre-primary education. The objective of that level was that the child could adapt to the culture of school. For various reasons - including simply a lack of resources - the Ministry of Education decided to suppress this level as a separate stage, preferring to include the curriculum in the first grade of primary school. This also explains the big increase in the enrolments of the first grade in 1976/77. Taking into consideration that the language of instruction - Portuguese - is a foreign language for the majority of the people, it seems obvious that, in order that children can assimilate the material, there needs to be some kind of preparatory stage for the children whatever the name.

In respect of the other levels, the colonial system was highly selective and discriminatory. The function for the Preparatory Cycle and, in turn, the function of the teaching therein was to prepare students for the Lycee. In principle, the education in Technical Schools gave a better preparation for an active productive life, but in reality students graduated from them without an adequate preparation and were unable to integrate themselves into the economic life of the country. Finally, there was a teacher training course but it was so designed that very few actually succeeded in completing the training.

The whole situation and its organization was such that it imposed on PAIGC the necessity to make urgent structural changes in order to affirm not only its political but also cultural and economic hegemony. The principles of the educational reform which are listed below are based on the assumption: the content and shape of the education system should be in accordance with the political choices and principles laid down by the PAIGC and should be oriented towards the achievement of its objectives.

(a) Education should promote the complete development of man, in order that he can assess the choices open to him in the light of the principles laid down by the Party;

(b) The democratisation of education whether understood as equality of access or as equality of opportunity for success, requires a transformation of the whole system of relations, the organisation and administration of education;

(c) Education should incorporate all the positive aspects of traditional African knowledge both

through its activities of research and through integration into the community.

(d) Adaptation of the programmes and of the methods of teaching to reality and the national necessities. Based on these principles, the Ministry of National Education introduced a series of transformations, in particular:

- (i) A first level of Basic Education with six grades;
- (ii) A second level with three years of schooling corresponding to General Polyvalent Education, post-primary Professional Training, and the training of primary teachers;
- (iii) A pre-University level: the training of Secondary Teachers and Polytechnic education provided by the Institutes.

It is important to underline that the first significant transformation was the introduction of a new system of Basic Education with the eventual objective of providing six years of free schooling for each citizen. In this way the old Preparatory Cycle which had been part of Secondary Education was transformed into a second cycle of Basic Education. Even more important was the new orientation given to Basic Education which was no longer seen as a preparation for the Lycee but instead for life outside school.

One other important feature is that the curricula for the 5th and 6th grades were developed scientifically (this topic is discussed in more detail in Chapters 6 and 7). The objective of the second level of teaching is to prepare skilled personnel (both administrative and technical) so that in their productive life they will be able to carry

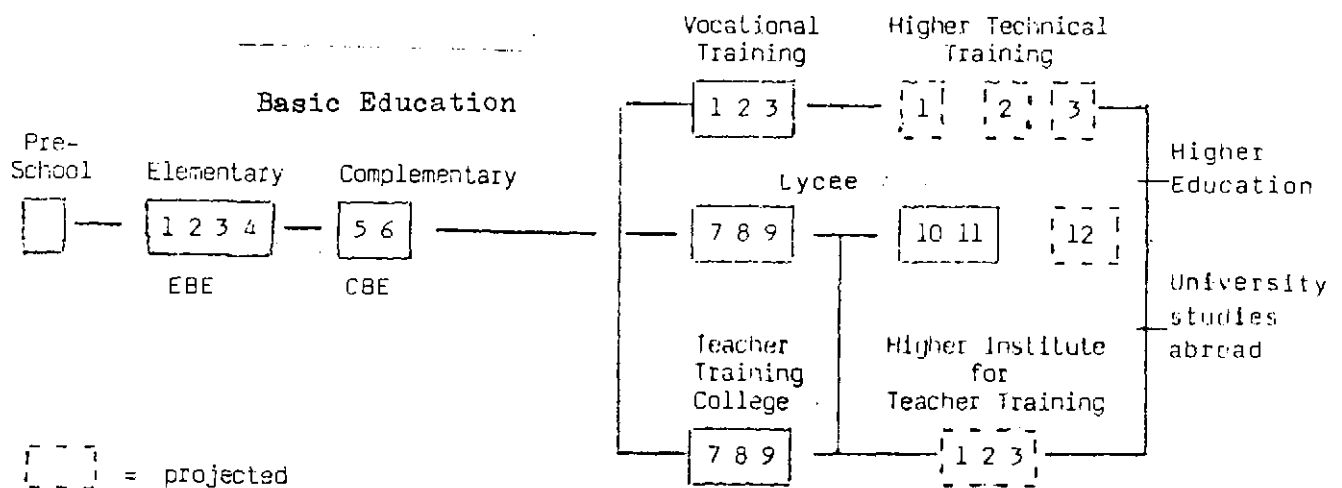
responsibility for projects and tasks within the development programmes.

The third and final level is a kind of pre-University education. The principal problem - and this applies also to the second level of education - is that as admission is very limited, it is very difficult to avoid elitism and hence discrimination.

### 3.4 The Present System

We can describe the educational system in the following way.

Diagram 3.1: Paths Through the Educational System



NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN THE SCHOOL-SYSTEM BY SCHOOL-YEAR,  
SEX AND AGE 1980/81

School-year

School-ye:

11

MALES

215

35

FEMALES

11

10

341

56

10

□ — Children

9

334

75

9

8

688

294

8

7

748

168

7

1 215

1 140

393

350

-37-

6

1 634

2 210

750

394

6

5

1 854

3 731

1 474

575

5

4

1 979

8 316

2 408

455

4

3

1 278

8 389

3 516

255

3

2

1 020

10 947

5 446

187

2

1

1 083

16 870

9 817

160

1

Pre-school

206

213

Pre-school

18 000 16 000 14 000 12 000 10 000 8 000 6 000 4 000 2 000 0 2 000 4 000 6 000 8 000 10 000 12 000

### 3.4.1 Pre-School

With the objective of increasing the possibility for children to succeed in the first grade and, specifically, to facilitate their comprehension of Portuguese - the language of instruction - the Ministry has reinitiated pre-school activities in 1979/80 for children aged 3 to 6. The number of children in pre-primary increased from 300 in 1979 to 419 in 1980. Until this school year, nearly all pre-primary classes were concentrated in Bissau. Although the development of these activities were stressed in the July 1981 programme of the Provisional Government, there are no resources for spreading the provision any wider at the moment. There are, however, plans being elaborated in the Ministry for pre-school education. These should lay down the framework and correct orientations for those organisations which, if all goes according to plan, are going to operate pre-school in all areas of the country.

### 3.4.2 Elementary Basic Education (1st to 4th Grades)

Of the total of 95,267 attending all kinds of educational institutions in the country (1980), more than 72,000 or 75% are in Elementary Basic Education. The following table gives the evolution of numbers in EBE since Independence (see over). If we look carefully at this table, we can see that there has been a substantial decrease in numbers of students over the last few years - the percentage of girls among the day-time school population has stayed at around 33% in every year with an even lower proportion among adults.

If we compare these figures with the provisional census results, the rate of scholarisation for

Table 3.2 Number of Students (Children and Adults)  
1st to 4th Grades, 1975/6 to 1980/1

| YEAR    | CHILDREN |        |        | ADULTS |       |        | TOTAL  |        |        |
|---------|----------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
|         | Boys     | Girls  | TOTAL  | Men    | Women | TOTAL  | Male   | Female | TOTAL  |
| 1975/76 | 34,419   | 16,343 | 50,762 | 9,234  | 1,565 | 10,799 | 43,653 | 17,908 | 61,561 |
| 1976/77 | 49,281   | 25,011 | 74,292 | 5,382  | 1,132 | 6,514  | 54,663 | 26,143 | 80,806 |
| 1977/78 | 50,801   | 25,396 | 76,197 | 6,433  | 1,663 | 8,096  | 57,234 | 27,059 | 84,293 |
| 1978/79 | 49,597   | 23,394 | 72,991 | 4,967  | 1,125 | 5,092  | 54,564 | 24,519 | 79,083 |
| 1979/80 | 46,229   | 21,922 | 69,151 | 4,994  | 1,143 | 6,137  | 51,223 | 23,065 | 74,288 |
| 1980/81 | 44,522   | 21,187 | 65,709 | 5,360  | 1,057 | 6,417  | 49,882 | 22,244 | 72,126 |
| 1981/82 | 43,819   | 21,201 | 65,020 |        |       |        |        |        |        |

children aged between 7 and 14 in Elementary Basic Education is 44%.

An analysis of the number of pupils by school year shows that the numbers enrolled decrease progressively from the 1st to 4th grade.

Table 3.3 Number of Pupils, Children 1978/79-1981/82, EBE

| Grade | 1978/79 | %   | 1981/82 | %   |
|-------|---------|-----|---------|-----|
| 1     | 33,557  | 46  | 26,919  | 41  |
| 2     | 18,198  | 25  | 16,114  | 25  |
| 3     | 11,998  | 16  | 11,646  | 18  |
| 4     | 9,238   | 13  | 10,341  | 16  |
| TOTAL | 72,991  | 100 | 65,020  | 100 |

In 1978 there were enormous differences in the distribution of pupils between the different grades, of Elementary Basic Education, but the distribution appears to have improved by 1981/82. We note also

that, proportionately, there is a low percentage of females in the 3rd and 4th grade.

The same data, which is the basis for this table, shows that the frequency of repeaters and drop-outs is still a serious problem even though there has been a slight improvement since 1978. For example: of the pupils enrolled in the 1st grade for the first time in 1978, only 34% passed at the end of the year; 35% repeated the year and 31% dropped out. And, in 1979, 41% of the pupils enrolled in the 1st grade passed at the end of the year and 59% were repeaters or drop-outs.

Table 3.4 Teaching Staff in Elementary Basic Education, 1977/78-1980/81

|                                      | 1977/8 | %   | 1978/9 | %   | 1979/80 | %   | 1980/1 | %   |
|--------------------------------------|--------|-----|--------|-----|---------|-----|--------|-----|
| 1. School Monitors                   | 1,768  | 67  | 1,627  | 71  | 1,540   | 64  | 1,408  | 53  |
| 2. Ordinary Teachers without Diploma | 593    | 23  | 480    | 21  | 678     | 28  | 976    | 37  |
| 3. Ordinary Teachers with Diploma    | 61     | 2   | 78     | 3   | 130     | 5   | 160    | 6   |
| 4. Primary Teachers without Diploma  | 21     | 1   | 13     | 0.5 | 22      | 0.9 | 21     | 0.8 |
| 5. Primary Teachers with Diploma     | 13     | 1   | 18     | 0.5 | 17      | 0.7 | 28     | 1   |
| 6. Pedagogical Brigade               | 164    | 6   | 72     | 3   | 34      | 1   | 48     | 2   |
| TOTAL                                | 2,620  | 100 | 2,288  | 100 | 2,421   | 100 | 2,641  | 100 |

1. 4 years of schooling
2. 6-8 years of schooling
3. 6 years of schooling plus 3 years of teacher training
4. 9 or more years of school
5. 9 years of schooling plus 3 years of teacher training
6. Lycee students from 10th and 11th class

This table shows that the number of qualified teachers (categories 3 and 5) has been steadily increasing since 1977 although the percentage is,

even today, only 7%. At the same time, it shows clearly that the percentage of ordinary unqualified teachers is increasing. This is partly the result of the programme of making recycling and upgrading courses available and partly because the Ministry no longer recruits school monitors (those with only 4 years of schooling), as there is an increasing number of students every year who complete 6th grade of Complementary Basic Education.

The number of students per teacher decreased from 34 in 1978 to 27 in 1980.

#### 3.4.3 Complementary Basic Education

In 1977/78 there were 14 establishments at this level of education and in 1981 this number had increased to 21, of which 4 were in the Autonomous Sector of Bissau.

Table 3.5 Number of Pupils, 1977/78-1981/82, CBE

| YEAR    | CHILDREN |      |       | ADULTS |     |       | TOTAL |      |       |
|---------|----------|------|-------|--------|-----|-------|-------|------|-------|
|         | M        | F    | TOTAL | M      | F   | TOTAL | M     | F    | TOTAL |
| 1977/78 | 4326     | 1277 | 5603  | 2403   | 857 | 3360  | 6729  | 2134 | 8863  |
| 1978/79 | 4760     | 1779 | 6539  | 3277   | 756 | 4033  | 8037  | 2535 | 10572 |
| 1979/80 | 5224     | 1949 | 7173  | 2999   | 749 | 3748  | 8223  | 2698 | 10921 |
| 1980/81 | 5941     | 2224 | 8165  | 3218   | 969 | 4187  | 9159  | 3193 | 12352 |
| 1981/82 | 6266     | 2345 | 8611  |        |     |       |       |      |       |

From 1977/78 to 1981/82, there was a total increase of 54% in the day-time (children) numbers whilst the number of female students increased by 84%.

Table 3.6 Teaching Staff in Complementary Basic Education, 1977/78 to 1980/81

|                                      | 1977/78 | 1978/79 | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
|--------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. School Monitors                   | 11      | --      | --      | --      |
| 2. Ordinary Teachers without Diploma | 2       | 4       | 2       | 8       |
| 3. Ordinary Teachers with Diploma    | 17      | 11      | 6       | 4       |
| 4. Primary Teachers without Diploma  | 215     | 282     | 336     | 557     |
| 5. Primary Teachers with Diploma     | 9       | 11      | 28      | 15      |
| 6. Pedagogical Brigades              | 96      | 211     | 225     | 101     |
| 7. Others                            | 1       | 10      | 2       | 7       |
| TOTAL                                | 366     | 529     | 599     | 692     |
| Pupils/teacher                       | 24      | 20      | 18      | 18      |

From 1977/78 to 1980/81, the number of teachers at this level of education increased by 89%, leading to a decrease in the student/teacher ratio from 24 to 18. This relatively low ratio is due to the fact that each teacher only teaches 18 sessions a week and only in one subject.

Only a very small number of teachers, less than 3%, have any teacher training. There is still no course specifically designed for those teaching 5th and 6th grades of the Complementary Basic Education

#### 3.4.4 Integrated Popular Education Centres (CEPI)

As well as the ordinary courses given in the schools of Complementary Basic Education, there is, in the countryside, another form of

education provided by the Integrated Popular Education Centres whose objective is to establish a close contact between school and the economic, social and cultural life of the local rural populations. Nearly all the students of any particular CEPI come from the immediate locality and receive a training which corresponds to the 5th and 6th grades, including both technical studies and practical work.

Table 3.7 CEPI Students 1978/79 to 1980/81

|         | Males | Females | TOTAL | No. of Centres |
|---------|-------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 1978/79 | 127   | 3       | 130   | 2              |
| 1979/80 | 392   | 11      | 403   | 4              |
| 1980/81 | 534   | 45      | 579   | 6              |

At the moment, according to information from the Director of the Centre at Cufar, the CEPI personnel are fundamentally concerned with improving the quality of the education, leaving aside the question of increasing beyond six the number of centres which already exist in the different Regions of the country.

#### 3.4.5 Secondary Education

The following table shows the development of Lycee education over the last few years.

We can see from this table that there has been an increase of around 41 % in the day and night time courses together between 1977/78 and 1980/81. In 1978, the percentage of repeaters was 28% and in 1980, 21%.

Table 3.8 Lycee Students 1977/78 to 1980/81

| YEAR    | Daytime |         |       | Evening |         |       | TOTAL |
|---------|---------|---------|-------|---------|---------|-------|-------|
|         | Males   | Females | TOTAL | Males   | Females | TOTAL |       |
| 1977/78 | 2339    | 643     | 2982  | 1209    | 421     | 1630  | 4612  |
| 1978/79 | 2650    | 657     | 3307  | 1119    | 313     | 1432  | 4739  |
| 1979/80 | 2740    | 683     | 3423  | 2006    | 423     | 2429  | 5852  |
| 1980/81 | 2793    | 853     | 3646  | 2248    | 594     | 2842  | 6488  |

Table 3.9 Teaching Personnel in the Lycee 1978/79-1980/81

| YEAR    | COOPERANTES |    | NATIONALS |    | TOTAL |     |
|---------|-------------|----|-----------|----|-------|-----|
|         | No.         | %  | No.       | %  | No.   | %   |
| 1978/79 | 125         | 51 | 119       | 49 | 244   | 100 |
| 1979/80 | 118         | 48 | 127       | 52 | 245   | 100 |
| 1980/81 | 108         | 30 | 251       | 70 | 359   | 100 |

In the last three years, the number of teachers in Secondary Education has increased by 47%. The proportion of nationals in this number has increased from 49% to 70%.

We note also that:

-- The national Lycee, Kwame N'Krumah includes both the 7th, 8th and 9th grades (the old 3rd, 4th and 5th years of the Lycee) and the 10th and 11th grades (the old 6th and 7th years of the Lycee) whilst the remaining Lycees only operate on the level of the 7th, 8th and 9th grades.

-- More than 50% of the pupils enrolled in Secondary Education go to the National Lycee Kwame N'Krumah.

## 3.4.6 Higher Education

In the whole country, there are only two schools for higher education;

- the National School of Physical Education and Sport with 36 students in 1980
- the School of Law with 64 students 1980.

University studies are done outside the country (see following table)

Table 3.10 Students with Grants 1979/80 to 1980/81

| Country of study | 1979/80     | 1980/81     |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Cuba             | 289         | 274         |
| Portugal         | 226         | 276         |
| USSR             | 205         | 275         |
| Rumania          | 84          | 84          |
| Brazil           | 51          | 61          |
| Other            | 275         | 275         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>     | <b>1130</b> | <b>1243</b> |

## 3.4.7 Training and Upgrading of Teachers

As can be seen in Tables 3.4 only 7% of the teachers in Elementary Basic Education in 1980 could be considered sufficiently qualified.

There are a variety of training and upgrading courses destined to improve the level of the teachers. In Co and Jabada, and today in Bula, there is a parallel course for the comrades who were teachers during the National Liberation struggle. And there

are also the so-called Directed Courses providing on-the-job training for teachers without qualifications. The plan is to train more than 500 monitors or teachers up to 1985.

There are also the teacher training colleges which have trained 630 students over this period:

|              |                     |
|--------------|---------------------|
| 1977/78      | 142 students        |
| 1978/79      | 184 students        |
| 1979/80      | 71 students         |
| 1980/81      | 233 students        |
| <u>TOTAL</u> | <u>630 students</u> |

From next school year (1982/83) the Teacher Training College "Amilcar Cabral" will be functioning as a residential institution with a capacity of 200 students.

In 1979/80, the pedagogical vanguard unit "Chico Te" was created, with the aim of producing teachers for secondary education. This unit, which had designed a four year training course, enrolled 67 students in 1979/80, and 109 in 1980/81. During its first few years there were many drop-outs, but this has improved recently. The Centres for Integrated Popular Education also trains their own teachers and 38 graduated in 1979/80 and 58 in 1980/81.

Furthermore, there are programmes for up-grading teachers and during the long vacation, the Ministry organises 2-4 week courses in Bissau: in recent years, more than 1500 teachers have taken part in one

or other of these courses. Finally, during the school year, there are the Study Committees grouping 12-25 teachers and directed by an experienced teacher; these committees meet every fortnight and participation is obligatory for all teachers.

#### 3.4.8 Vocational Training

In 1979, the Technical Institute for Professional Training (ITFP) was created. In this Institute, courses of professional training lasting three years are provided for those graduating from the 6th grade. In 1979/80, 162 students took courses in Civil Construction and General Mechanics at the Institute: and in 1980/81 the number was 190. Since 1980/81 the Institute has also organised intensive courses and upgrading courses in General Mechanics (9 students), Electricity (15 students), Administration (26 students), Civil Construction (22 students) and Rural Mechanics (15 students). The Institute has also organised intensive courses in different regions of the country.

There is only one Agricultural College in the country: in the residential school of the Comrades Institute in Boe. It is a 3 year course, taken after graduating from the 6th class. In 1979/80, the school had 96 students and in 1980/81, 87 students. The school was closed temporarily in May 1982.

Apart from these courses, there is provision to train nurses in Bissau, Bolama and Njala organised by the Ministry of Health. And finally, there are also courses organised

internally by the various factories and development projects. There does not appear to be any efficient co-ordination of these different types of technical education.

#### 3.4.9 Comrades Institute

During the period of the armed struggle, the Comrades Institute was especially created for the children of the fighters. Nowadays, this institution operates as an autonomous entity within the Ministry and is responsible for a system of schools and boarding schools which function in parallel with the National System of Education.

Table 3.11 Number of Students in the Comrades Institute  
1977/78-1980/81

| LEVEL                         | 1977/78 | 1978/79 | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
|-------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Pre-School                    | 74      | 57      | 84      | 77      |
| Elementary Basic Education    | 901     | 641     | 653     | 294     |
| Complementary Basic Education | 413     | 467     | 732     | 334     |
| Lycee                         | 389     | 359     | 368     | 342     |
|                               | 1779    | 1524    | 1837    | 1047    |

In this table, a clear decrease in the number of students can be observed especially in Elementary and Complementary Basic Education. From 1979/80 to 1980/81 there was a decrease of more than 50%. We have no explanation for these changes, nor for the criteria which have been used to select students after Independence. The number of teachers has also decreased from 113 in 1979 to 89 in 1980, which latter figure implies a student-teacher ratio of 12.

## 3.4.10 Adult Education and Alphabetisation

Since Independence, there has been a system of night courses intended for adults running in parallel to the normal day time educational system. This table shows the number of adult students at different levels.

Table 3.12 Number of Adult Students 1977/78-1980/81

|                               | 1977/78 | 1978/79 | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
|-------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Elementary Basic Education    | 8096    | 5092    | 6137    | 6417    |
| Complementary Basic Education | 3360    | 4033    | 3748    | 4187    |
| Lycee                         | 1630    | 1432    | 2429    | 2842    |

We can observe a decrease of 21% between 1977/78 and 1980/81 in Elementary Basic Education, an increase of 25% in Complementary Basic Education, and an increase of 74% in Secondary Education. The numbers involved in alphabetisation programmes have not shown a similar development. In the first seven years of Independence - until now - there have been many alphabetisation projects but due to a variety of difficulties, the results have not been very satisfactory in that, of the approximately 4000 students who enrolled initially in the culture circles, only a small percentage successfully followed the programmes and learned how to read and write. As from 1982, alphabetisation in Creole has started and didactic material is being prepared for alphabetisation in other national languages.

3.5 Proposals for Reform in the System  
of National Education (SNEF)

In August 1981, a working group within the Ministry of Education presented a proposal for a new school system entitled "Bases for the Implementation of a National System of Education and Training" (SNEF). The text of this proposal starts with a critical analysis of the existing situation, encompassing both the problem of parents' motivation to send children to school and the difficulties of recruiting teachers. The proposal was approved at the 4th National Meeting of Professional Staff and, the final decision concerning the reform of the educational system is expected before the end of 1982.

The proposal for reform implies a heavy investment in primary school, in adult education and in professional training, organised in a practical fashion. Each cycle of schooling should be considered as a complete and integral phase of education and not as a springboard to the next cycle. The official teaching program should be better adapted to the country's requirements and the whole educational system should be designed so as to reflect the intimate relation between theory and practice, education and work and schooling and working life.

The Lycee, in its existing form, is considered as a colonial hangover and should be replaced by an education which is professionally oriented towards the specialities in various sectors. The report also discusses the possibility of distributing educational services among the population in a fairer way. This

distribution could be accomplished by requiring work experience of students requesting entry to these higher levels of education, or through allocating fixed percentages of places to the different social groups. It also discusses a limit on the number of years which each student is allowed to repeat, suggesting a maximum of two together with a maximum age of entry of 15 to Complementary Basic Education. The report also argues that priority should be given to Alphabetisation and Occupational Training for Adults, for example through intensive and frequent courses at the work places. These forms of alphabetisation and post-alphabetisation should substitute progressively for the Night School in parallel to Elementary Basic Education.

### 3.6 Administration and Budget

The Ministry of National Education has the overall responsibility for the educational sector in Guinea-Bissau. In each of the country's nine regions, there is a Regional Delegate who, together with 4 or 5 collaborators is responsible for education in that region and provides the Ministry with systematic information. Each region is divided into sectors. There are 37 sectors altogether in the country, in each of which there is a full time sector delegate whose function is to direct, orient and supervise educational activities in the sector. Since 1975, the Ministry has been one of the largest spenders in the Government's current budget.

Table 3.13 Current Budget of MNE, 1979-1982

| YEAR | Gross Total (in G.Pesos) | As % of State's Current Budget |
|------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1979 | 207,521,000              | --                             |
| 1980 | 207,511,000              | 13.7                           |
| 1981 | 241,804,000              | 13.4                           |
| 1982 | 260,000,000              | 11.4                           |

The major part of this current budget (more than 80%) is for the salaries of teachers and administrative personnel.

The investment budget in 1980 was 277,500,000 pesos, that is 9.8% of the total investment budget of the State (see Table 2.1). In 1981, the investment was 236,532,000 pesos. This means that in 1981, the total contribution of the State to each and every student in the country was, on average, 5000 pesos or 750 Swedish crowns.

The investment budget is almost totally financed by SIDA, USAID, Netherlands, ILO, UNESCO, and the African Development Bank. The Ministry also is in receipt of a large number of scholarships from Portugal, Cuba, USSR and DDR. These same countries also send teachers to teach in Guinea-Bissau.

4. THE OBJECTIVES OF SWEDISH AID TO THE  
EDUCATIONAL SECTOR IN GUINEA-BISSAU

"Our children are the flowers of our struggle and the principal reason for our fight", thus said Amilcar Cabral.

Education has been one of the main preoccupations of the PAIGC, since the beginning of their struggle.

To put education within the reach of the mass of the population was one of the principal reasons for the national liberation struggle. Indeed, one of the main factors in mobilising support for the PAIGC was the creation of schools in the liberated areas.

After Independence, the Third Congress of PAIGC formulated the objectives for the educational sectors as follows:

"To produce a cultured person, who is a conscientious worker, who has internalised notions of both responsibility and the proper balance between collective demands and his/her individual requirements and who is able to participate actively in national reconstruction".

The report of the Superior Council of the Struggle further underlined the following fundamental principles:

1. The role of the State as the only institution which can provide an educational system
2. Education as the right and duty of every citizen (reflecting the democratic potential of education)
3. The interrelation between the planning of the educational system and the country's economic

and social development

4. To facilitate the development of indigenous cultural values
5. To develop the organic link between theory and practice, through an interdisciplinary methodology
6. The importance of the link between school and the community to which it belongs
7. The formation of the necessary technical personnel and the raising of their scientific level, in order to adapt modern techniques and technology to the country's development
8. To progressively encourage teaching in a national language

Let us now look at the SIDA objectives as they have been expressed by the Swedish government.

1. Development of resources
2. Promotion of social and economic equality
3. Respect for selfdetermination and national independence
4. Development of democracy

It is clear that the objectives for Swedish development aid are very close to those of the Guinea-Bissau Ministry of Education, so that it was not difficult to arrive at an agreement on the fields of co-operation.

In the 1978 agreement, the following objectives were formulated.

1. Access to education for all children
2. Alphabetisation
3. Increase the scientific level in the schools
4. Introduction of productive work in the schools
5. Continuous ideological training

Our evaluation in the remainder of this report will be based on these five points.

## 5. DESCRIPTION OF THE SWEDISH AID TO THE EDUCATION SECTOR

### 5.1 Introduction

Since 1969, that is even during the struggle of national liberation, SIDA (the Swedish International Development Authority) has given its support to the education sector in Guinea-Bissau.

The first reading texts for Elementary Basic Education were printed in Uppsala (Sweden) for pupils in the liberated zones. The support also included the provision of building materials and transport.

After Independence, more precisely since January 1978, a five year agreement between Guinea-Bissau and Sweden has been in force concerning the form of the support to the Education sector. This agreement expires in December 1982.

### 5.2 The Five Year Agreement of 1978

On the basis of this agreement the Swedish government has put at the disposal of the government of Guinea-Bissau the following funds:

|      |             |     |
|------|-------------|-----|
| 1978 | 2 million   | SKr |
| 1979 | 3 million   | SKr |
| 1980 | 3.8 million | SKr |
| 1981 | 4.5 million | SKr |
| 1982 | 4 million   | SKr |

The following sums were actually used:

|      |               |                  |
|------|---------------|------------------|
| 1978 | 2,027.000 SKr | 13,378.000 pesos |
| 1979 | 2,252.000 SKr | 14,863.000 pesos |

|                        |                       |                         |
|------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1980                   | 3,807.000 SKr         | 25,126.000 pesos        |
| 1981                   | 3,468.000 SKr         | 22,889.000 pesos        |
| 1982<br>(up to<br>May) | 1,234.000 SKr         | 8,144.000 pesos         |
| TOTAL                  | <u>12,788.000 SKr</u> | <u>84,400,000 pesos</u> |

As can be seen, the Swedish aid to the educational sector gradually increased, corresponding to the increased capacity of the educational sector to absorb funds put at their disposal. During the first two years, because of the inexact definition of the areas within the educational sector which should benefit from the help, there was a noticeable difficulty in using the entirety of the funds put at their disposal. In 1980, given the very large programme of printing and acquisition of didactic materials, the grant initially allocated was slightly overrun.

Although the objectives of Swedish aid were defined in the agreement, there has been an annual meeting between the representatives of MNE and of SIDA to decide upon the directions of future support. In that same meeting, the representatives also analyse the way in which the grant has been used during the previous year.

Since the beginning of the agreement on cooperation, the support has been orientated by both parties so as to give priority to the following areas:

- Basic Education
- Training and Upgrading of Teachers
- Alphabetisation and Adult Education

However, other areas have also benefitted from SIDA support.

When divided as between projects, we can construct the following table for the period up to May 1982.

Table 5.1 Distribution of Aid to Different Projects  
1978 - May 1982

| Projects                                         | Swedish Aid |            |
|--------------------------------------------------|-------------|------------|
|                                                  | SKr         | PG         |
| Didactic materials, eg. basic material and paper | 5,704.000   | 37,646.000 |
| Building, repairing and equipping schools        | 4,500.000   | 29,700.000 |
| Transport                                        | 769.000     | 5,075.000  |
| Alphabetisation                                  | 635.000     | 4,191.000  |
| CEPI                                             | 525.000     | 3,465.000  |
| Training and upgrading of teachers               | 370.000     | 2,442.000  |
| Productive work                                  | 285.000     | 1,881.000  |
| Pre-school                                       |             |            |
| Technical training                               |             |            |
| TOTAL (up to May 1982)                           | 12,788.000  | 84,400.000 |

Of this amount, about 1,300.000 SKr, or a little more than 10%, was used in Sweden. About 650,000 SKr or 5% were disbursed in Guinean pesos, by the National Bank of Guinea-Bissau, to cover the running costs of seminars for teachers and alphabetisation circles.

The Swedish grant in 1981 was almost 10% of the investment budget of MNE. Technical assistance to the Sector has consisted of three cooperants. Since October 1981, Marcela Ballara has been working with the pilot projects of Alphabetisation, and two other cooperants, Göran Andersson (1977-1979) and Kjell Knutsson (1979-80) worked in the areas of school construction and the

production of furniture. They were recruited from the Swedish Africa Groups.

### 5.3 Results Obtained

#### 5.3.1 Types of Aid

Didactic Material. This area has benefitted considerably from Swedish aid during the five years. Thus, around 45% of the grant was directed to the printing of textbooks, basic teaching material and the import of paper.

The following school books were printed abroad:

- Reading Textbooks (for 1st to 4th classes)
- Mathematics " (for 1st to 4th classes)
- Atlas (to help  
in Geography) (for 5th and 6th classes)
- Reading Books (for 5th and 6th classes)
- Social Sciences (for 5th class)
- Mathematics (for 5th class)
- Social Sciences (for 6th class)

Paper for local printing and items such as pencils, rubbers, pens and chalk were imported.

#### Construction, Repairing and Equipping Schools.

Around 30,000.000 G.Pesos or 35% of the Swedish grant, was directed to the construction of new schools, repair and maintenance of others, as well as the equipment of some of them.

Specifically, we can point to:

##### New Constructions

- 9 schools for Elementary Basic Education ,  
eleven more being planned for the current  
year
- 5 schools for Complementary Basic Education

- one CEPI school
- one school for Administration and Law

#### Adaptation and Repair

- Repairs and adaptations to numerous schools in all regions of the country

#### Training

- Training by RECREE of 24 animators for the construction of rural schools

#### Transport

Whilst this was not one of the areas foreseen in the agreement between MNE and SIDA, it has benefited enormously from Swedish aid. This is because MNE has to provide a minimum of basic equipment to the Regional Delegations and the sectors to make possible their work of organisation and inspection.

#### Seminars and Recycling Courses for the Upgrading of Teachers

The aid granted during this five year period enabled the Ministry to carry out a variety of programmes of training and upgrading of the teaching personnel, seen as essential by the authorities. Among these, we can single out:

- recycling seminars during the long holidays
- courses of directed study as part of a process of upgrading of teachers from Elementary Basic Education
- procuring of teaching materials for the training colleges
- development, finalisation and printing of programmes, curricula and texts for students in training and as support for teachers already in their job

Equipment for Productive Work

The financial support from SIDA has enabled, over several years, the development of this area which plays a very important role in the educational choice which has been made about policy:

that is, to connect the school to life and to motivate young students to participate actively in the economic development of the country.

SIDA has also enabled the procurement of a variety of equipment such as gardening tools, watering cans, etc.

### 5.3.2 Aid by Sub Sectors

These resources, which have been detailed above, were distributed to the following principal sectors:

Elementary Basic Education

Construction and repair of school buildings, printing of text books, provision of school furniture and basic learning materials for all students

Complementary Basic Education

Construction and repair of institutions appropriate for this level of education, printing of text books provision of school furniture and basic learning materials for all students

Training and Upgrading of Teachers

Organisation of seminars, repair of the Bula Centre and providing basic learning material for all students

Alphabetisation

Construction of centres and houses for cultural circles; research into national languages, didactic material, technical assistance.

There has also been a small proportion of the funds given to CEPI schools, Technical Training and for Pre-School Education.

6. ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR TAKING INTO ACCOUNT THE FIVE OBJECTIVES OF THE GUINEA-BISSAU - SWEDEN AGREEMENT

6.1 Introduction

In evaluating developments in the education sector, we need to take into account the five objectives of the agreement between Guinea-Bissau and Sweden which has been the basis of Swedish aid during the period 1978 to 1982. As we have already explained in the first chapter, we are approaching the problem of evaluation starting out from the objectives and commenting both on overall tendencies that can be inferred from the educational statistics and on particular observations that we made during our visits to various different types of educational establishments. To avoid making the chapter too long and detailed, our visits are described - as case studies - in Annex 6.1 to 6.5 drawing on them in this chapter only when necessary to illustrate our analyses.

As explained in Chapter 4 there are five 'common objectives'

- access to education for all children
- alphabetisation
- increase the scientific level in the schools
- introduction productive work in the schools
- continuous ideological training

To facilitate the organisation of this chapter, we have decided to consider these objectives in two groups

- 1 - including the first two objectives - which we can call 'equality in the education system'
- 2 - including the other three objectives - which we can call 'quality of teaching'

In doing so we intend only to simplify the organisation of the chapter: we are not suggesting that this two-fold division should replace the existing five-fold classification. It is also important to emphasise that this

chapter will be analysing developments of the education sector starting from the objectives. Because of this we shall not be able to specify the direct contribution of Swedish aid to the general objectives. For a proper analysis of the factors which determine the impact of such contributions on the objectives is very complicated and requires a well worked-out model, which we do not possess. Instead, an analysis of the importance of the Swedish contributions to the programmes and projects of the education sector is treated separately in Chapter 7 (See Introduction, Chapter 1, where this separation is explained)

Besides the analysis of the progress relative to these five objectives, there is a common concern which includes aspects of them all, that is, the level of school participation which is, nationally, low. We think that this is a fundamental problem and have therefore analysed it in the immediately following section (6.2) before treating the problems of equality of access (in section 6.3) and the quality of teaching (in section 6.4).

## 6.2 School Participation Rate

The brief presentation of the evolution of the educational system in Chapter 3 showed that there was an explosion in the numbers going to school, at the level of Elementary Basic Education (EBE) in the two years immediately following Independence. Up to now there has been a yearly increase in the numbers enrolled in higher levels of education, but there has been a slight decrease in the numbers enrolled in Elementary Basic Education from 1977 on. That situation has already been discussed in a previous report (cf. Rosengart 1981 - 'Education in Guinea-Bissau') and, given that there has been no change this year, it requires a thorough analysis.

It is clear that this cannot be done within the framework of this evaluation. For this reason we shall only discuss this decrease in the numbers enrolled when broken down by class, age, sex and zone, concentrating on the question of the initial entry to the first class, using the statistics from 1978 to 1982.

#### 6.2.1 Decrease since 1977/78

The table (3.2) presented in Chapter 3 showed that the total number of children registered in EBE increased from 50.762 in 1975/76 to a maximum of 76.187 in 1977/78, when the numbers began to decrease progressively to the present number of 65.020 in 1981/82. The tendency has been the same for both sexes, the proportion of girls varying only from 32% in 1975/76 to 33.3% in 1977/78, 32.3% in 1980/81 and 32.6% in 1981/82. There are many factors which may have contributed to this decrease but, before attempting to comment on their importance, we shall further investigate the form of that decrease. Table 6.1 compares the total decrease in enrolment in classes 1 to 4 between 1978/79 and 1980/81 and the decrease in the numbers enrolled in the first class. It is evident that

Table 6.1 Enrolments in the Four Grades of EBE 1978/79 - 1981/82

|                            | 1978/79 | 1979/80 | 1980/81 | 1981/82 | Decrease between<br>1978/79 & 1981/82 |      |
|----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------------------------------------|------|
|                            |         |         |         |         | Absolute                              | %    |
| Enrolments<br>grades 1     | 33 557  | 28 775  | 26 687  | 26 919  | 6 638                                 | 19.8 |
| Enrolments<br>grades 2-4   | 39 434  | 39 376  | 39 022  | 38 101  | 1 433                                 | 3.6  |
| Total no. in<br>grades 1-4 | 72 991  | 68 151  | 65 709  | 65 020  | 7 971                                 | 13.7 |

the decrease in total enrolment in elementary basic education concerns only the first class. Enrolment in other classes has been more or less constant during the period of our study. This is a very important conclusion.

We are left therefore with the fact of a quite considerable decrease in the enrolment in the first class (19.8% between 1978/79 and 1981/82). Going further into the analysis of this situation, we first look to see if the decrease is constant in every region or if it is specific to some regions, and second, whether it is linked to a drop in school efficiency because it is possible that the observed decrease is concentrated among new enrolments rather than among repeaters.

Table 6.2 which gives the number of enrolments and

Table 6.2 Enrolments (incl. Repeaters) and Repeaters in the First Grade, by Region, 1978/79 - 1980/81

| Region      | 1978/79    |                       | 1979/80    |                       | 1980/81    |                       |
|-------------|------------|-----------------------|------------|-----------------------|------------|-----------------------|
|             | Enrolments | Among which Repeaters | Enrolments | Among which Repeaters | Enrolments | Among which Repeaters |
| S.A. Bissau | 3280       | 1650                  | 3022       | 1335                  | 2666       | 1169                  |
| Biombo      | 3545       | 991                   | 2703       | 1297                  | 2040       | 693                   |
| Cacheu      | 7394       | 3650                  | 6240       | 2856                  | 6132       | 2657                  |
| Oio         | 6131       | 2455                  | 5148       | 2452                  | 4763       | 2165                  |
| Bafata      | 4030       | 1316                  | 3796       | 1169                  | 3710       | 898                   |
| Gabu        | 3318       | 942                   | 2729       | 1041                  | 2515       | 945                   |
| Tombali     | 2885       | 896                   | 2524       | 893                   | 2078       | 659                   |
| Quinara     | 1660       | 810                   | 1165       | 427                   | 1462       | 442                   |
| Bolama      | 1314       | 624                   | 1448       | 519                   | 1321       | 470                   |
| TOTAL       | 33557      | 13334                 | 28775      | 11989                 | 26687      | 10098                 |

repeaters in the nine regions during the school years 1978/79 to 1980/81 shows that there has been a decrease in the total of enrolments in the first class of about 20.5% in the whole country, varying from a decrease of 11.9% in Quinara to 42.5% in Biombo. On the other hand, the same table shows that the decrease in the number of repeaters has been relatively higher than the decrease in the number of new enrolments, in that the

repeaters decreased between 1978/79 and 1980/81 by 24%. The decrease of new enrolments between 1978/79 and 1980/81 is 18%; that is - while still high - lower than we observed above. The same tendency can be observed in all regions, except Biombo, Oio, Gabu. We conclude that even though there are big variations, this decrease is not limited to certain regions and that the decrease in new enrolments in the first class is lower than the decrease in repeaters. This last result is encouraging.

We can account for this drop of students in primary school as resulting from the fact that in the first year after Independence, in part due to the campaigns of education, students of all ages were enrolled in primary school, but that afterwards only those of 6, 7 and 8 years tended to enrol.

Table 6.3 gives the distribution by age of students in the first class during the years 1975/76 to 1980/81. We can see that there has been an increase during that period in the absolute number of children enrolled who are 6, 7 and 8 years old, whilst there has been a more than equivalent decrease among students aged 9, 10, 11 and 12 years. Even if we ignore the figures for the first few years, given the integration of pre-school into the primary system in 1976/77, we can observe an increase in the age groups 6 and 7 from 1978/79 until 1980/81, whilst there has been an even bigger decrease among those aged 8 to 12.

Table 6.3 Distribution of the Ages of Students in the  
First Grade of EBE - Day School:  
Evolution from 1975/76 to 1980/81

| Age<br>Group | School Years |         |         |         |         |         |
|--------------|--------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
|              | 1975/76      | 1976/77 | 1977/78 | 1978/79 | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
| 6            | 719          | 1951    | -       | 2708    | 3183    | 3338    |
| 7            | 4029         | 13571   | -       | 10374   | 9870    | 11039   |
| 8            | 5639         | 11500   | -       | 9402    | 8227    | 8591    |
| 9            | 6700         | 9459    | -       | 8452    | 6859    | 5357    |
| 10           | 7078         | 8418    | -       | 6757    | 5341    | 4173    |
| 11           | 5141         | 6183    | -       | 3625    | 3016    | 2057    |
| 12+          | 8376         | 8866    | -       | 4825    | 3020    | 1949    |
| TOTAL        | 37753        | 62411   | -       | 46143   | 39516   | 36504   |

The tendencies appear clearly in Table 6.4 where we give the proportion of 6 and 7 year old children among normal (non-adult) enrolments in the first class. This proportion increased progressively from 13% to 39%.

The conclusion is very clear: among children of the prescribed school ages, there is an increasing proportion who are being enrolled, and the observed decrease of enrolments in the first class results from the fact that there was a successful mobilisation campaign to attract children of all ages to school in the years immediately after Independence which is now less effective.

Table 6.4 Proportion of 6 and 7 year old Children among  
Normal (non-Adult) Enrolments in Grade 1 from 1975/76  
to 1980/81

| Year                              | 1975/76 | 1976/77 | 1977/78 | 1978/79 | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
|-----------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Total no of<br>enrolled           | 27 332  | 44 920  | 28 624  | 33 557  | 28 775  | 26 687  |
| Of which 6-7<br>years old         | 3 494   | 11 021  | 8 621   | 9 471   | 9 413   | 10 397  |
| Percentage<br>of 6-7 years<br>old | 13      | 25      | 22      | 28      | 33      | 39      |

Therefore, the analysis in this section has shown that the decrease in total enrolments in Elementary Basic Education can be accounted for by the fact that increasingly there is a tendency to enrol only 6 and 7 year old children in the first class. But that is not enough: we also want to ask 'Why has there not been an increase in the total number of children enrolled given that there has been a campaign to encourage enrolment?' Without conducting a comprehensive and detailed study of the socio-cultural reality of Guinea-Bissau, it is impossible to give a definitive answer to such a question. Further, it is important to understand that it would not, in any case, be possible to give one answer for the whole country, because there are variations between the regions and within the regions, between the urban centres and the rural areas (see Section 6.3.1).

#### 6.2.2 Some Important Factors

With these caveats, what are the possible explanations of this trend?

First, we need to emphasise that the 'modern' type of school has only been introduced on a wide scale relatively recently to Guinea-Bissau. Indeed, for centuries, the 'big men' (homens grandes) of the villages (tabancas) were responsible for the transmission to the youth of that knowledge which would guide and instruct them through life. So the question is not only that there might be opposition to the introduction of 'modern' knowledge but also to understand that the implantation of a school where the children of the village will receive teaching from somebody who is a stranger to the community and where the content of teaching will be different from that usually given by the 'homens grandes', constitutes a threat to the community's traditional authority. This is even more understandable when we realise that the ethnic groups

in Guinea-Bissau are strongly age-stratified, and that almost all the ethnic groups practice the 'fanado' ritual in which the young learn their role in the community and especially their duty to follow the example given by their elders. In this situation, the implantation of a 'modern' type of school is in conflict with traditional structure. Moreover, we also have to remember that the teaching is, effectively, in a foreign tongue.

We can see the consequences of this reality, for instance, in the implantation of other types of schools which are not so clearly opposed to the traditional structure - the Koranic and Arabic schools. There are a large number of Koranic schools in Guinea-Bissau where children learn the Koran by heart. It is difficult to estimate either the number of schools or the number of children who go to them. The provisional results of the 1979 Census suggest that compared to the 89,720 who attend the official schools, the total number of children going to Koranic or Arabic schools was then 16,458 concentrated mainly in the regions of Bafata and Gabu.

The importance of these schools was confirmed for us during an interview with the Director of the Arabic school in Gabu. These Arabic schools teach 'normal' subjects such as mathematics, geography, history, natural sciences as well as Koran. These schools are well organised. They are centrally administered including the issuing of diplomas which were shown to us by a teacher in the Arabic school which we had visited in Bissau.

In addition to resistance to school, there is also the question of the utility of schooling, in comparison with other possible activities in the rural areas. For example, in the harvest season, a father will think

that it is more in his interest to have the son working on the land rather than going to school.

Indeed, it is important to coordinate the school year with the busy periods on the land. But the impact of this way of thinking will be more or less strong depending on the utility of the teaching given in school. If, for example, after one of his sons has finished fourth class, the father believes that the son has not learnt anything useful and, at the same time, does not want to work on the land, the same father will not be encouraged to send his other children to school. And, if he does send them, he will not have any scruples in deciding to keep them at home away from school during harvest season or other busy periods on the land.

The statistical influence of these factors cannot be evaluated with precision. On the one hand, some of the children who go to the Koranic and Arabic schools also go to the official schools. Estimates vary: according to the Director of the Arabic school in Gabu, all the children attending his school also went to what he called the 'Portuguese school'; when we asked that question in the Arabic school in Contum (Bissau) only 25 of the 120 pupils admitted going to the official school (see case studies nos. 2 and 4). On the other hand, although it is true that there is a large drop-out rate and that this varies between the regions (see Section 6.4.3), it is not clear how a partial absence or infrequent attendance is represented in the official statistics.

We can conclude this section by saying that the level of enrolment in schools depends upon the influence of the socio-cultural traditions of each ethnic group and upon the way in which the 'modern' school is accepted and the perceived utility of the teaching given at the school. That will be the subject of Section 6.4.

### 6.3 Equality in the Education Sector

The first of the five objectives of the Swedish-Guinean agreement dealt with equal access and the second with alphabetisation. We consider them together here because the objective of an alphabetisation programme is to eliminate illiteracy amongst adults, whilst the objective of Elementary Basic Education is that all children should know how to read, write and count. The principal difference is then only one of age: that is, alphabetisation is for adults and Elementary Basic Education is for children. The question becomes whether or not there are equal opportunities for adults and for children. Age, therefore, can be treated as a disaggregating factor in the same way as we analyse the distribution between regions, and between urban centres and rural areas, as well as analysing whether or not there is any discrimination between the sexes.

Our analysis consists in a comparison of the participation rates of the different social groups, whether defined by regions, by urban or rural zones, by sex, or by age. Moreover, we are going to interpret 'access' in three ways:

- 1 - participation simply on the level of enrolment by the different social groups
- 2 - educational resources used by the different social groups
- 3 - results in the sense of the possibility of transition between the different levels of school for the different social groups

Given the complexity of this topic, we shall simplify the discussion of access in terms of enrolment and of results by making another restriction to considering only the basic levels of education (both elementary and complementary). This limitation is not as

restrictive as it might appear, as the numbers involved at the other levels of education - from secondary to intermediate and to receiving a grant to study abroad - are relatively small and, in any case, concentrated in Bissau. Thus, the analysis of equality of access and of transition probabilities (results) will concentrate on the basic levels of education, only commenting in general on access to the other levels of education. Note that this restriction cannot be applied to the analysis of the distribution of educational resources precisely because the resources obtained by the different social groups depends on their relative participation in the different levels of education.

#### 6.3.1 Equal Access

We said, in the introduction to this section, that on logical grounds we were going to consider the alphabetisation objective on the same level as the objective of equal access for all children to elementary school. However, there is such a large difference between the participation of children and adults in the school system that they are being treated separately here.

##### A Access to Elementary Basic Education

There are quite large variations between the regions and, inside the regions, between the urban centres and the rural areas. This is clear when we compare the level of school participation and the (provisional) results of the Census. Table 6.5 shows the school participation rate in Elementary Basic Education on the basis of the number of children aged between 7 and 14. We can see that the overall rate is 44%, but that the rate varies from 29% in Gabu region to 67% in the Bolama region.

Table 6.5 School Participation Rates by Region:  
Elementary Basic Education 1978/79

| Region      | No. of Students<br>of School Age<br>(7-14)<br>in Region | No. of Children<br>of School Age<br>(7-14)<br>in Region | School<br>Participation<br>Rate<br>% |
|-------------|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| S.A. Bissau | 9138                                                    | 20238                                                   | 45                                   |
| Biombo      | 5176                                                    | 11616                                                   | 45                                   |
| Cacheu      | 14546                                                   | 26467                                                   | 55                                   |
| Oio         | 11328                                                   | 24974                                                   | 45                                   |
| Bafata      | 8403                                                    | 23705                                                   | 35                                   |
| Gabu        | 6217                                                    | 21637                                                   | 29                                   |
| Tombali     | 4842                                                    | 10202                                                   | 47                                   |
| Quinara     | 2551                                                    | 6885                                                    | 38                                   |
| Bolama      | 3550                                                    | 5326                                                    | 67                                   |
| TOTAL       | 65861                                                   | 150950                                                  | 44                                   |

We need to be careful in interpreting these figures, given the difficulties of carrying out a census in the rural areas where many fathers are reluctant to divulge information about their families to census agents and where the mother's estimate of the child's age will nearly always be approximate. Despite these caveats, however, the contrast between regions with a lower participation rate (such as Bafata and Gabu) and those with a higher participation rate (such as Bolama and Cacheu) is clear.

It is also important to calculate the participation rate in the first class of the primary school for children who are exactly 7 years old (the age of official entry into the school). Table 6.6 shows an overall participation rate of 28%, and again, there is a contrast between the regions with a low rate

(Bafata and Quinara) to regions with a higher rate (Bolama and Biombo). In this way, we can provisionally conclude that the northern and eastern regions appear to have a higher resistance to school than the western regions.

Table 6.6 School Participation Rates in the First Grade of EBE - Day School of Children aged 7 years 1978/79

| Region      | No. of<br>7 year old<br>Students<br>Enrolled | Estimated<br>No. of<br>7 year old<br>Children | Participation<br>Rate<br>% |
|-------------|----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| S.A. Bissau | 900                                          | 3147                                          | 29                         |
| Biombo      | 982                                          | 1859                                          | 53                         |
| Cacheu      | 1564                                         | 4086                                          | 38                         |
| Oio         | 1032                                         | 4779                                          | 22                         |
| Bafata      | 812                                          | 3958                                          | 21                         |
| Gabu        | 956                                          | 3464                                          | 28                         |
| Tombali     | 384                                          | 1769                                          | 22                         |
| Quinara     | 195                                          | 1245                                          | 16                         |
| Bolama      | 326                                          | 804                                           | 41                         |
| TOTAL       | 7151                                         | 25112                                         | 28                         |

Given the mixture of ethnic groups, one would have to understand the variations in the ways in which school is accepted by the different groups, in order to understand the variations in resistance.

It is easy to forget, but one very important factor (in determining school participation rates) is the strong reluctance to the idea that girls can go to school. We have already shown that the proportion of girls among enrolments did not change between 1975/76 and 1981/82, being stable at around 33%, see p 38 and 39. A more detailed analysis, broken down by regions, distinguishing between the urban centres and the rural zones shows that the proportion of girls among enrolments

is somewhat higher in the urban centres and lower in the rural areas. However, it is difficult to infer too much from this table since the differentiation between rural and urban areas is not always easy to make.

Table 6.7 Students Enrolled in the First Grade in Urban Centres and in the Rural Zones in Different Regions, by sex, 1980/81

| Region            | Urban Centres |       |       |      |       |       | GRAND TOTAL |
|-------------------|---------------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------------|
|                   | Boys          | Girls | TOTAL | Boys | Girls | TOTAL |             |
| S.A Bissau/Biombo | 1321          | 1345  | 2666  | 1353 | 687   | 2040  | 4706        |
| Cachau            | 1292          | 932   | 2224  | 2611 | 1297  | 3908  | 6132        |
| Oio               | 1061          | 283   | 1344  | 2236 | 1183  | 3419  | 4763        |
| Bafata            | 715           | 491   | 1206  | 1639 | 865   | 2504  | 3710        |
| Gabu              | 456           | 353   | 809   | 1058 | 648   | 1706  | 2515        |
| Tombali           | 575           | 231   | 806   | 900  | 372   | 1272  | 2078        |
| Quinara           | 227           | 109   | 336   | 722  | 404   | 1126  | 1462        |
| Bolama            | 261           | 233   | 494   | 443  | 384   | 827   | 1321        |

We note also that there is some variation between the regions in the female participation rate.

For example, we can see that the number of girls enrolled in the region of Tombali is low (less than 30 %). Such variations are likely to be linked to variations between ethnic groups.

## B Adult Education

There remains the question of the extent to which adults are integrated into the educational system. This happens in two ways: via evening classes in parallel to the normal day time courses, and through alphabetisation projects.

First, then, evening classes: we have already shown in Chapter 3 that, in Elementary Basic Education, there was a decrease of 21% in the number of adults enrolled between 1978/79 and 1980/81. It would have been nice to infer that, because so many adults enrolled in basic education immediately after Independence, there is now less of a 'need'. But, as we know that, at Independence, the literacy rate was only 5%, we think instead that this decrease represents a real falling away of adults from participating in the system of basic education.

Second, alphabetisation: despite political declarations about the importance of alphabetisation, the first seven years since Independence have not been crowned with success. In all, a maximum of 4000 have been enrolled in alphabetisation courses, but many of them dropped out before finishing their course. It is probably true to say that none of them can now read and write Portuguese properly or even reasonably without a considerable effort after participating in an alphabetisation course. There have been many projects but the effort has been spread too wide and they have often been badly prepared.

It was only in 1979 that it proved possible for the Department of Adult Education (DEA) to pay its own teachers. At that time, DEA only comprised eight staff out of the 120 staff in the MNE. In 1980 this number had increased to 24.

In this sense, before 1980 there was a very great inequality between the young and adults - at least on the level of official effort. Now, with a stronger DEA and with the introduction of alphabetisation in the mother tongues, it appears that there is less inequality.

Our conclusion is that there is a big difference between the opportunities for children and for adults to enter basic education. We think that it is an unfortunate situation because it implies that, in the years to come, the majority of the (adult) population will not be able to read and write. The implicit bias against the old, within the formal educational system, is made explicit whenever selection for places is necessary because of a limited supply; the only criterion ever used in the selection process is age and only age. In a certain sense, this process is a curious reversal of the privileged position of the elderly in the strong age-stratification of the traditional society.

#### 6.3.2 Access to Educational Resources

Whilst, in the previous section we have discussed participation of children in the school system, there are other aspects of equal access to schooling: for example, what kind of school - good or bad - is available to the child; and again, what are the educational resources which are likely to be made available to each child. These two aspects are discussed here.

- A Immediately after Independence, the majority of schools were simple huts ('barracas'). The present situation is described in Chapter 7 and, whilst in absolute terms the number of new permanent school buildings is growing (via the programme RECREE) - in relative terms the majority of existing EBE schools, around 72%, are still either huts or provisional constructions. This situation is only to be expected given the enormous increase in school attendance over the last decade or so. But we should look at the geographical distribution of these recently constructed schools relative to the distribution of the population as well as the proposals for siting other new schools.

The distribution of the new schools has been such that the rural areas have benefited. There is, for example, the programme of "Construction Animators of Rural Schools" in Tombali, Oio and Bafata. That programme, which consists in building new schools in rural areas, using at least 80% of local materials, is carried out by 'Animators'. They first trained 'on the job' in the techniques of civil construction as a group but then work separately each supervising a team of eight workers. We had the opportunity to visit some of these schools and they appeared simple and solid. However, one may ask whether, in financial terms, the State can realistically propose to replace all the recently unsatisfactory schools in this way. Even although the estimated cost is low at around GP200,000, 20% of the materials are imported which implies a foreign exchange commitment of at least SKr6000 for each school. (see 7.1 for more detail)

In any case, we can conclude that, inasmuch as the construction of new schools to replace the old ones is a priority, either because they are only temporary huts or because they are very old buildings or because they are badly adapted, the present distribution of construction effort favours the rural areas.

B Now we come to the question of finding which of the social groups are benefitting from the way in which the budget is distributed between the different levels of education. This information, which is only available for the school year 1979/80 is presented in Table 6.8.

From this table we can see that 48% of the budget goes to Elementary Basic Education, and 12.7% to secondary education. In the same year, of the total of 95,000 students in the school system, 78.2% were in Elementary Basic Education. Proportionately, those

Table 6.8      Distribution of Students at Different Levels  
of Education Compared with the Distribution  
of the Current Budget 1979/80

| Sub-Sector                       | No. of Students |       |       | Budget (1000 pesos) |                |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|-------|-------|---------------------|----------------|
|                                  | Boys            | Girls | TOTAL | TOTAL               | %<br>Personnel |
| Administration                   | --              | --    | --    | 15499               | --             |
| Comrades<br>Institute            | 1802            | 235   | 2037  | 21000               | --             |
| Pre-School<br>Education          | 154             | 146   | 300   | 1101                | 100.0          |
| Elementary Basic<br>Education    | 51223           | 23065 | 74288 | 99582               | 90.2           |
| Complementary<br>Basic Education | 8967            | 2792  | 11759 | 36747               | 92.2           |
| Secondary<br>Education           | 4746            | 1106  | 5852  | 26444               | 89.3           |
| Professional<br>Training         | 243             | 19    | 262   | 3167                | 58.3           |
| Teacher<br>Training              | 294             | 9     | 303   | 3970                | 66.5           |
| TOTAL                            | 67429           | 27372 | 94801 | 207521              | 73.5           |

who go to the Lycee, receive three times more than those who go to Elementary Basic Education (4519 pesos per student in the Lycee compared to 1340 pesos per child in Elementary Basic Education); at the same time as we know that the Lycee students are all in urban centres and especially Bissau, we can see that on the contrary to the distribution of investments, the distribution of the current budget benefits the city.

Moreover, given that the proportion of girls among children in EBE is 31.0%, the proportion of girls among students in the lycee is 18.9%, we can see

that the distribution of resources benefits boys. Overall, of the total current budget going to the three main levels of education, we can infer that girls receive 44.6 million pesos whilst boys receive 118.1 million pesos.

We conclude that the distribution of the current budget benefits largely boys.

### 6.3.3 The Transition to Complementary Basic Education (CBE)

We have already shown in Chapter 3 that there has been a global increase in enrolments in CBE. We discuss here the process of transition from the 4th class of EBE to the 1st class of CBE. The government has adopted six years of free schooling as an objective and, in consequence, altered the status of the 5th and 6th classes from being a preparatory cycle for lycee aspirants to being a complementary cycle of basic education: yet we have noted a large decrease as between 4th and 5th class in the number of enrolments. There could be several reasons for this phenomenon: but before commenting upon them we want to explore the nature of this decrease a little further.

First, we give, in Table 6.9, the number of students initially enrolled in the 4th, 5th and 6th classes in 1978/79, 1979/80 and 1980/81.

We can see that the numbers enrolled have increased in each of the classes between 1978/79 and 1980/81, but that the increase in enrolments in 4th class was greater (16.0%) than in either the 5th class (6.5%) or the 6th class (12.1%). Further, the numbers enrolled in 4th class is about double that

Table 6.9 Total Enrolments in the  
4th, 5th and 6th Grade - Day School - 1978/79-1980/81

| Class     |       | School Years |         |         |
|-----------|-------|--------------|---------|---------|
|           |       | 1978/79      | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
| 4th Class | Boys  | 7303         | 8367    | 8316    |
|           | Girls | 1935         | 2232    | 2408    |
|           | TOTAL | 9238         | 10599   | 10724   |
| 5th Class | Boys  | 3814         | 3472    | 3797    |
|           | Girls | 1074         | 1411    | 1409    |
|           | TOTAL | 4888         | 4883    | 5206    |
| 6th Class | Boys  | 2119         | 1802    | 2210    |
|           | Girls | 522          | 538     | 750     |
|           | TOTAL | 2641         | 2340    | 2960    |

in the 5th class which in turn is double that in the 6th class. These figures give the impression that it is quite difficult to enter complementary basic education and that once inside the cycle the rate of repeating or drop-out is still quite high.

However, before drawing conclusions, we delve a little deeper into the transition between 4th and 5th class. Table 6.10 gives a picture of the progression of students through the different stages of transition between the 4th and the 6th class by sex and in different regions.

Table 6.10 Passes in the 4th Grade in 1979/80  
and Enrolments in the 5th Grade in 1980/81,  
by Region and Sex

| Region      | Passes in<br>4th Grade<br>1979/80 |       | Total Enrolments<br>in 5th Grade<br>1980/81 |                       |       |                       | Passes in<br>5th Grade<br>1980/81 |       |
|-------------|-----------------------------------|-------|---------------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-------|
|             | Boys                              | Girls | Boys                                        | of which<br>repeaters | Girls | of which<br>repeaters | Boys                              | Girls |
| S.A..Bissau | 687                               | 514   | 1781                                        | 372                   | 848   | 212                   | 900                               | 427   |
| Biombo      | 501                               | 72    | 86                                          | -                     | 14    | -                     | 42                                | 6     |
| Cacheu      | 1245                              | 265   | 465                                         | 83                    | 171   | 27                    | 314                               | 96    |
| Dio         | 821                               | 102   | 330                                         | 20                    | 88    | 3                     | 192                               | 41    |
| Bafata      | 518                               | 140   | 454                                         | -                     | 117   | -                     | 234                               | 56    |
| Gabu        | 314                               | 64    | 262                                         | 42                    | 81    | 11                    | 211                               | 69    |
| Tombali     | 324                               | 41    | 150                                         | 38                    | 28    | 6                     | 98                                | 12    |
| Quinara     | 216                               | 30    | 72                                          | 2                     | 23    | 1                     | 91                                | 13    |
| Bolama      | 242                               | 134   | 197                                         | 6                     | 39    | 3                     | 40                                | 6     |
| TOTAL       | 4878                              | 1362  | 3797                                        | 563                   | 1409  | 263                   | 2124                              | 726   |

We can see:

- 1 - the majority of girls pursue their studies after passing 4th class exams and (if we ignore the possibility of equal inter-regional mobility) we can also say that they tend to stay in the same region with the exception of the regions of Biombo and Bolama. Given the increase in the number of female students in the autonomous sector of Bissau from 514 to 848, we can infer that the movement of these two regions has been towards Bissau. Given that Biombo is the rural area of S.A.Bissau and that there are strong connections between Bolama, the previous capital, and Bissau, the present capital, both of these are understandable.

2 - There is a decrease of 22.2% between the number of boys who pass the 4th class exams and initial enrolments in 5th class. The more important feature of this table is that there appears to be a substantial movement from the regions to the autonomous sector of Bissau where the number of new enrolments increased by up to 105%. In any case, the significance of the dramatic decrease in enrolments compared with the number of passes in certain regions cannot be denied. This is particularly the case in Biombo, Cacheu, Oio, Tombali and Quinara where the new enrolments (in 5th class) are less than 40% of passes (of the exams at the end of 4th class) in the same region. On the other hand, in Bafata, Gabu and Bolama, the proportion of new enrolments is about 70% of passes in the same region. The explanation of these variations is probably that parents think that their sons will have more opportunity to follow on to the lycee if they have taken 5th and 6th class in Bissau. That hypothesis is supported by the fact that, of the three exceptional regions (Bafata, Gabu and Bolama), two (Bafata and Bolama) have a Lycee. We have to admit, however, that this does not provide a satisfactory explanation for the lack of movement from Gabu where there is no lycee nor for Cacheu where there is a lycee with a good academic record and where the majority of boys leave the area.

We conclude, therefore, that at least for the boys, Bissau acts as a magnet. In one visit we made to a 4th class in Biombo, 95% of the students wanted to go on - if they passed their exams - to study in Bissau despite the fact that there is a school for Complementary Basic Education in the Region in Quinhamel, with

only half the rooms occupied by students of CBE  
(see case studies, annexes 6.1 and 6.3)

#### 6.4 Quality of Teaching

The other three objectives which are common to the government of Guinea-Bissau/Sweden co-operation are:

- increase the scientific level in the schools
- introduction of productive work in the schools
- continuous ideological education

From the analytic point of view, these three objectives can be considered together under the rubric 'quality and relevance of teaching to society'. Thus, the objective of raising the scientific level in the schools is determined by the content of curricula in school and depends directly on the quality of teaching. The objective to link education and productive work reflects an attempt to reintegrate the sector of education with the outside world and at the same time is desirable pedagogically; ideological teaching is an essential part of each Guinean's education and also testifies to the link between education and society. It is, however, clear that these three objectives do not cover everything which is contained within the phrase 'quality and relevance of teaching to society'. Equally these three objectives are linked to other aspects of education which are not directly linked to the quality of teaching.

##### 6.4.1 Link Between Teaching and Productive Life

We remain therefore with analysing the evolution of the quality and relevance of teaching to society.

First, we note that the crucial point in the analysis of the relation between the three objectives is to know what happens to students who leave school. Because a good pedagogy together with a relevant educational content should have a positive effect, which means that school-leavers find a job or are otherwise engaged in an activity relevant to the country's development; if this does not happen then this suggests there is something wrong with the pedagogy or the content of education. It is not possible to decide if the curricula and pedagogy are absolutely good in abstraction from society. They have to be evaluated relatively, taking into account the actual context and socio-cultural reality of Guinean society.

Unhappily, there is no information about what happens to school leavers in their active life. The provisional results of the census show that, out of the population above 8 years of age, 38.1% claimed to be economically active.

Amongst those who are economically active are 80.1% peasant farmers and, if we exclude the autonomous sector of Bissau (which has a very small peasant population) the proportion in the rest of the country is 88.4%. At present, therefore, the only solution for the majority of school-leavers is either unemployment or to be a peasant farmer. Given that the emigration of youth from the countryside to the city is undesirable and that the unemployment they will almost certainly find there is also to be deplored, the implication is that the teaching should take into account the rural reality of Guinea-Bissau, so that they can be integrated into farming activities.

During this mission, we examined the relation between what is taught and the rural character of Guinea in terms of the curriculum, productive work and the CEPI schools.

A

In the first place, the content of the curricula. It has already been pointed out (Chapter 3) that this was a preoccupation of PAIGC after Independence and that when the textbooks that had been used during the struggle did not correspond to the new situation of National Independence, new manuals were elaborated.

Meanwhile, within the Ministry of Education the Unit for Curriculum Development and Pedagogical Guidance (GEOP) was created whose function was to monitor the curricula and, where necessary, to elaborate new texts (we shall be speaking of their activities in more detail in Chapter 7). Whilst we welcome this effort, the Delegation finds the content of the programme quite heavy given that Portuguese is a foreign language for the majority of children. Thus, it was a surprise for us to learn that the mathematics curricula of the 1st class included all four of the arithmetic operations (+, -, x, ÷), to see that within the social science programme, the relations of production were explained at the international level without any reference to the local reality, and to realise that Portuguese grammar is taught in such detail (see case studies, annexes 6.3 and 6.5)

The same criticism applies also to the proposed new texts that we examined at GEOP which - whilst more closely reflecting the country's social reality - are still overcrowded with

material; indeed, we think that this might be one of the reasons for the high drop-out rate. It is possible that our criticisms are a little premature; the experience of the next two or three years will be crucial. We hope that the efforts made up until now, in the sense of adapting the content of what is taught to the Guinean realities, will be pursued.

B           The link between teaching and productive work is very important. The curricula of Elementary Basic Education provides for two sessions a week of productive work and in Complementary Basic Education this is supplemented with one session in the workshops. The intention is to be applauded but we noticed in our visits that the productive work was not always very well organised and that there was an acute shortage of materials. We hope that this situation is going to improve.

C           The CEPI schools - which substitute for the 5th and 6th class - were set up to resolve the situation discussed here wherein school-leavers are alienated from work in the countryside and, on escaping to the city, find no employment there either.

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All the six CEPI schools are located in or near villages. Various documents are available which present the objectives and report on the progress of the schools (eg. Luiz de Sena (1981) *Creation de Center d'Education Populaire Integree en Guinea-Bisau*). The curriculum of the CEPI schools is divided into three phases:

1 - Efforts by the students to understand their local rural environment through interviews

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with the population and observation of their surroundings ;

- 2 - Academic study in order to reflect on what they have learnt;
- 3 - Practical work wherein the students in the local rural environment apply their new knowledge.

The principal objective of CEPI is that, after two years, the students will return to live in their home village with the possibility of reintegrating themselves and helping to improve the quality of rural life. During our visits - which were unhappily very short - we learnt that the main present preoccupation of the CEPI personnel was exactly to avoid the drift from the country into the city; according to them, one possible solution is to bring ex-students together into small co-operative projects.

This is an important step and we hope that it is successful. However, we still have doubts as to whether the pedagogy being used is appropriate, our impression being that it is not very different from the formal and mechanical methods used throughout Complementary Basic Education. (see Case Study no.5)

Our problem here is as follows: the efforts to develop the curricula, the attempts to introduce productive work into the schools, and the projects of CEPI are very important and interesting. But it is not easy to use them to evaluate whether or not any progress has been made in linking education with productive life over the last few years. At the same time, as the subject is very important, we shall attempt to tackle it in two ways.

First, we shall suppose that the quality of education will improve if the teachers are better qualified. In this case, we would be interested in developments among the corpus of teaching personnel. In the second place, in the same way as we have supposed that unemployment or, better, inactivity upon leaving school is undesirable, we shall assume that drop out from school is also undesirable. In this case, we would be interested in changes in the drop out rates during this period.

#### 6.4.2 Development of Teaching Staff

We have already shown in Chapter 3 that there has been an improvement in the quality of the teaching staff over the last four years. But, given that our preceding discussion led us to the conclusion that the decisive factor is the link between the education given in school and productive life in the rural areas, it becomes important to know if the distribution of qualified teaching personnel assists in the various efforts to integrate children into their own environment or, on the contrary, reinforces the movement of the youth towards the towns.

Table 6.11 shows the changes in the three principal categories of teaching personnel in elementary basic education during the last three years separately for the Autonomous Sector of Bissau as against the other regions.

Table 6.11 Distribution of Teaching Personnel between the Three Principal categories in Elementary Basic Education in the Autonomous Sector of Bissau and the Rest of the Country 1978/79-1980/81

|                 | Teaching Posts |         |        |               |         |        | School Monitors |         |        |
|-----------------|----------------|---------|--------|---------------|---------|--------|-----------------|---------|--------|
|                 | Qualified *    |         |        | Not Qualified |         |        |                 |         |        |
|                 | 1978/9         | 1979/80 | 1980/1 | 1978/9        | 1979/80 | 1980/1 | 1978/9          | 1979/80 | 1980/1 |
| S.A.Bissau      | 10             | 26      | 20     | 76            | 75      | 109    | 128             | 128     | 141    |
| Rest of Country | 68             | 104     | 140    | 404           | 603     | 857    | 1499            | 1412    | 1267   |
| TOTAL           | 78             | 130     | 160    | 480           | 678     | 966    | 1627            | 1540    | 1408   |

\* For explanation of categories, see Table 3.4

We can see that, as we have already emphasised in Chapter 3, there has been a national tendency for the category School Monitor to be replaced by the category Unqualified Professional Teacher, PPND (via retraining and upgrading courses). Also, we can see that it is the regions which have benefitted most from this overall tendency: in Elementary Basic Education, there has been a decrease in the number of school monitors, and the number of PPND has doubled, whilst in Bissau, the number of PPND has only increased by 40%. Taking into account that the Ministry has great difficulty in sending teachers to the countryside, in that each year the majority of (rural) teachers request a transfer to the urban centres, this development, small as it is, is encouraging.

In Complementary Basic Education, we can see from Table 6.12 that, as has already been explained in Chapter 3, there has been a large increase in teaching personnel corresponding to the equally large expansion in the number of

students. However, we notice that the increase in teaching staff has been larger outside Bissau although, in this case, the expansion has been concentrated in the less qualified category of teacher (with 9th class or less).

Table 6.12 Distribution of Teaching Personnel between the Two Principal Categories in Complementary Basic Education, in Bissau and the Rest of the Country, 1978/79-1980/81

|                 | 9th Class or less |         |         | 10th and 11th Classes |         |         |
|-----------------|-------------------|---------|---------|-----------------------|---------|---------|
|                 | 1978/79           | 1979/80 | 1980/81 | 1978/79               | 1979/80 | 1980/81 |
| S.A. Bissau     | 89                | 83      | 183     | 34                    | 25      | 35      |
| Rest of Country | 96                | 172     | 278     | 63                    | 56      | 61      |
| TOTAL           | 185               | 255     | 461     | 97                    | 81      | 96      |

Once again we note that the Ministry has great difficulty in keeping the teachers in the regions. We had occasion to notice this when we found that in the CBE school in Gabu, out of a total of 30 teachers, 27 had already applied for scholarships abroad (see case study annex 6.4). This would imply a constant replacement of the teaching staff which is not helpful.

We can, therefore, conclude that in elementary basic education, the tendency during this period has been for the qualifications of the teachers to increase, especially outside Bissau. Given our initial supposition, such a tendency strengthens the quality of

education in the countryside, a measure which is going to assist the process of integrating the school with the community. It is more disappointing, however, that the expansion of teaching staff in complementary basic education in the rural areas has been principally in the less qualified categories. But the obvious kind of solution to this problem: such as establishing the 10th and 11th classes in regions - in order that the CBE teachers with 'only' 9th class want to stay there - is not very compatible with the long term development of a mass education policy.

#### 6.4.3 Drop-Out

We have already presented in Chapter 3 the national figures for the numbers transferring between one grade and the next within Elementary Basic Education. It is possible to combine these figures, using the "reconstructed cohort method", to make an estimate of the total educational resources used in enabling a pupil to reach a certain level. A study already done within the MNE for the years 1975/76 to 1978/79 using this method, showed that, on average, over 11 years of schooling was required in order that one student could complete all four grades of EBE (because of the repetition and the school years "wasted" on drop-outs).

This figure is very high even in the African context. Thus, the UNESCO figures for "Survival in Primary Education" show that Guinea-Bissau has the steepest fall (based on 1977 data). Indeed, the proportion reaching grade 4 in Guinea-Bissau (293 / 1000) is about 25% lower than that of the next lowest country (Chad).

However, that method depends on various assumptions which are not obviously applicable to Guinea-Bissau. For example, the method supposes that it is the same children who are passing from one grade to another, when it is quite feasible that children will leave school for a year, even after having passed the end-of year exam; it is also assumed that at each grade level the repeating rate is the same for both new enrolments and repeaters: etc.

On the one hand, because of our doubts about the applicability of these assumptions and, on the other hand, because we want to make comparisons between the regions - which would not be possible within such a method unless we had data on inter-regional transfers - we are going to present our results in another way. Instead of comparing the enrolments from year to year (and implicitly the transfer from one grade to another) at the end of the school year, we are going to concentrate on the drop-outs during the school year. This will avoid, in large part, the purely statistical problem of inter-regional mobility.

Moreover, given the nature of our concern with the quality of education and its relevance to the outside world, we think that the drop-out rate during the first year will be one of the best indicators of the inappropriateness of the content of education to the surroundings. Our argument is that as the parents of the children have already decided to send them to school, a drop-out during the year indicates a complete disaffection of either the children or their parents with what happens at school.

We present, therefore, a comparison - unhappily only available for the years 1979/80 and 1980/81 - between the number of initial enrolments in 1st class and the number of children who are allowed to take the exams at the end of the year (whether they passed or failed) calculating the drop-out rate during the year broken down by sex and by region.

We can see in Tables 6.13 and 6.14 that the drop-out rates - even when calculated in this way, that is, not including drop-outs between school years - are high. Overall, we find that in both years, 54% of those children enrolled at the beginning of the year do not even try to take the exams at the end of the year.

Further, we can see that there is an important variation between the regions. Thus, whilst Bissau and Gabu have a drop-out rate of about 45%, Biombo and Dio have a drop-out rate of about 65%. These variations are roughly the same in both years. And finally, we can see that the drop-out rates are higher for girls and lower for boys, in all regions except Bissau, Biombo and Quinara.

From our point of view these drop-out rates represent a large wastage of human and material resources. And, whilst the factors influencing drop-out during the first year will be partly related to the initial resistance to school, which we have already discussed (see section 6.2 above) the principal factors are likely to be different.

Table 6.13 Drop Out Rate during the School Year  
1979/80 - Grade 1

| Region      | Initial Enrolment |       |       | Nos. presented for the end of yr.exams |       |       | Drop-Out Rate during the yr.(%) |       |       |
|-------------|-------------------|-------|-------|----------------------------------------|-------|-------|---------------------------------|-------|-------|
|             | Boys              | Girls | TOTAL | Boys                                   | Girls | TOTAL | Boys                            | Girls | TOTAL |
| S.A. Bissau | 1444              | 1578  | 3022  | 842                                    | 932   | 1774  | 41.6                            | 40.9  | 41.3  |
| Biombo      | 1806              | 897   | 2703  | 605                                    | 305   | 910   | 66.5                            | 66.0  | 66.3  |
| Cacheu      | 4028              | 2212  | 6240  | 2003                                   | 949   | 2952  | 50.2                            | 57.1  | 52.7  |
| Oio         | 3379              | 1769  | 5148  | 1256                                   | 427   | 1683  | 62.8                            | 75.9  | 67.3  |
| Bafata      | 2400              | 1396  | 3795  | 1233                                   | 1690  | 1890  | 48.6                            | 52.9  | 50.2  |
| Gabu        | 1687              | 1042  | 2729  | 1032                                   | 540   | 1572  | 38.8                            | 48.2  | 42.4  |
| Tombali     | 1715              | 809   | 2524  | 843                                    | 169   | 1039  | 50.8                            | 75.8  | 58.8  |
| Quinara     | 792               | 373   | 1165  | 370                                    | 181   | 551   | 53.2                            | 51.5  | 52.7  |
| Bolama      | 783               | 665   | 1448  | 350                                    | 276   | 626   | 55.3                            | 58.5  | 56.8  |
| TOTAL       | 18036             | 10741 | 28775 | 8534                                   | 4463  | 12997 | 52.7                            | 58.4  | 54.8  |

Table 6.14 Drop Out Rate during the School Year  
1980/81 - Grade 1

| Region      | Initial Enrolment |       |       | Nos. presented for the end of yr.exams |       |       | Drop Out Rate during the yr.(%) |       |       |
|-------------|-------------------|-------|-------|----------------------------------------|-------|-------|---------------------------------|-------|-------|
|             | Boys              | Girls | TOTAL | Boys                                   | Girls | TOTAL | Boys                            | Girls | TOTAL |
| S.A. Bissau | 1321              | 1345  | 2666  | 755                                    | 782   | 1537  | 42.8                            | 41.9  | 42.3  |
| Biombo      | 1353              | 687   | 2040  | 477                                    | 242   | 719   | 54.7                            | 64.8  | 64.8  |
| Cacheu      | 3903              | 2229  | 6132  | 1957                                   | 916   | 2873  | 49.8                            | 58.9  | 53.1  |
| Oio         | 3347              | 1416  | 4763  | 1328                                   | 439   | 1767  | 60.3                            | 69.0  | 62.9  |
| Bafata      | 2354              | 1356  | 3710  | 1196                                   | 585   | 1781  | 49.1                            | 56.9  | 52.0  |
| Gabu        | 1514              | 1001  | 2515  | 853                                    | 415   | 1268  | 43.6                            | 58.5  | 49.6  |
| Tombali     | 1475              | 603   | 2078  | 779                                    | 229   | 1008  | 47.1                            | 62.0  | 51.5  |
| Quinara     | 949               | 513   | 1462  | 425                                    | 166   | 591   | 55.2                            | 67.6  | 59.6  |
| Bolama      | 704               | 617   | 1321  | 343                                    | 288   | 631   | 51.2                            | 53.3  | 52.2  |
| TOTAL       | 10870             | 9817  | 26687 | 8113                                   | 4062  | 12175 | 51.9                            | 58.6  | 54.4  |

For instance, the problem of language. The provisional results of the census show that as many as 54.5% of the population only speak a local language: and, at the other extreme, only 11.1% of the population claim to speak Portuguese. The census conclude that 'Portuguese is mainly spoken in the Autonomous Sector of Bissau but is spoken to some extent everywhere so that, whilst in absolute numbers quite small, it is always the second most frequent behind the local language in each of the regions' (p.158). Although we do not want to question the government's policy of adopting Portuguese as the national language, we think that it is important to emphasise that this decision has several implications and especially in the education sector. If the political will exists to make a school education accessible to all children, it is important to be very careful that the language of instruction is introduced in such a way that everybody can follow the teaching provided within the school. In some of our visits, we found that children in the 1st class - and even in higher grades - had difficulty in following the teacher (see case study annexe 6.5).

There is also the question of the curricula which we find too full especially for the 1st class. We have already drawn attention to this above: here we want only to emphasise the problem of the first class, given that very little pre-primary facilities are available.

Finally, there is the question of teaching method, which we have also mentioned previously. During our visits, although the teachers we met were often enthusiastic about their job, we noticed that a large part of the material was taught by repetition and by rote, and that the teacher left very little space for the pupil to develop his or her imagination (see case studies Annexe 6.5).

## 6.5 Conclusions

In this chapter, we have analysed the overall development of the education sector of Guinea-Bissau, during the period of the Guinea-Bissau/Sweden agreement, in the light of the five objectives agreed upon. The discussion was divided into three sections: the first on the level of participation; the second on equality within the educational system; and the third on the quality of the teaching.

A On the level of participation, the most important phenomenon is the apparent decrease during the last five years. We concluded that this decrease is, overwhelmingly, concentrated amongst children aged between 9 and 12 and that, although it is small, there is a slight tendency for the age-specific participation of children aged 6, 7 and 8 to increase. We noted also that the decrease varied among the regions and that it is lower among new enrolments as compared to repeaters.

We discussed these results very briefly, concentrating on two essential points. First, the conflict between the teachings of the big men of the

village and the 'modern' type of school. This is not only in terms of the types of knowledge being passed on and being taught in a 'foreign' language, but also because the introduction of a 'modern' school in the village, in a variety of ways, constitutes a threat to the traditional structure of authority. Second, the conflict between the usefulness of schooling and productive work in the field especially in terms of the parents insisting that their children should stay at home during certain periods, eg. harvest-time. This tendency is likely to be exacerbated if the father has already had the experience of a child who has completed school and who has apparently not learnt anything useful and does not want to work on the land either.

B

We treated equality in terms of observed differences between sociodemographic groups defined in terms of age, sex, region and the urban/rural split. We considered three aspects of equality: the access per se to the school, the distribution of educational resources, and the possibilities of transition between the different levels of the educational system. We concentrated on EBE and CBE.

1 - Using the results of the census, we found a large variation in access as between the regions and as between the sexes. We also demonstrated that there were variations between the urban centres and the rural zones in each region which suggested that parents are more reluctant in sending daughters to school in the rural areas. And this phenomenon does not seem to have changed.

- 2 - We discussed two aspects of the distribution of resources: the spatial distribution of schools and the distribution between the different levels of education. We contrasted the programme of school construction which, on the whole, benefits the rural areas, with the distribution of the current budget which is more concentrated in the urban centres. This latter is because of the concentration of complementary basic education and secondary education, both of which are relatively expensive, in urban centres.
- 3 - When we tackled the problem of the transition between the different levels of education, we concentrated on the transition between the final class of EBE (the 4th class) and the first class of CBE (the 5th class). The analysis showed, first, that the number of pupils drops by 50% between the end of EBE and the beginning of CBE and again by 50% between the 5th and 6th class; and second, that whilst girls have a tendency to continue their studies in the same region, boys prefer to transfer to the city.

C

In the third section, we discussed the quality and relevance of the teaching provided. We used that phrase to cover the discussion of the three objectives of raising the scientific level in the schools, of linking education with productive work and of political education. All the three original objectives are aspects of the link between the educational system and society and, more concretely, of the problem of integrating the school-leaver into productive activities.

From our discussion, we can pick out the following observations:

- too many topics are covered in the curricula in an academic and detailed manner
- the link between productive work and the other lessons within schools needs to be improved
- although the intentions of the CEPI schools are good, leaving students do not seem to want to work in the countryside, because there is no concrete strategy for rural development

Unhappily, although we observed that GEOP were preoccupied with the problem and had the capacity for self-criticism, and that the CEPI schools are making important attempts to improve, it is not possible to be more precise in our assessment because we lack information on what happens on the labour market to students after they leave school. It is for this reason that, as we need to make some kind of assessment of the developments during the period of the agreement, we have tackled the problem through evaluations of teaching quality and drop-outs.

In a brief analysis of changes in the corpus of teaching personnel, we showed that in basic education there was a considerable increase in numbers of teachers. We also showed that, in elementary basic education, there is a tendency for those qualified teachers who do exist to be sent to the rural areas and that in complementary basic education the brunt of the increase has been in the regions outside Bissau.

In our analysis of drop-out, we concentrated on drop-outs during the course of the first year, because we think that this level is the most critical in terms of motivation. We showed that:

- the drop-out rate is very large in that 54% of the children enrolled in the first class do not get as far as the exams
- there is a constant and significant variation between the regions so that the drop-out rate is 45% in Bissau and Gabu and 65% in Biombo and Oio.
- the drop-out rate of girls is higher (around 58%) than that of boys (around 52%).

We discussed the process of drop-out, concentrating on:

- the fact that the language of instruction is Portuguese which is only spoken by 11% of the overall population
- the content of the curricula especially in the 1st class
- the pedagogy in the classroom lessons is very formal and repetitive which does not correspond to the Ministry's desire for an education which allows for the self-realisation of each individual

Annex 6.1

Case Study 1 - Visit to Bolama

DATES

Tuesday - Wednesday, 25th - 26th May 1982

PARTICIPANTS

Galde Balde, Julieta Mendes Pereira, MNE, The  
Delagate for Primary Education in the Region of  
Bolama, Karlis Goppers, Lars Thorsell, Roy Carr-Hill,  
Gunilla Rosengart, SIDA

We were invited to participate in the solemn inauguration of the rebuilt Teacher Training College "Amilcar Cabral" in Bolama on May 25. The College will provide a three year teacher training course for students who have completed class 6. The capacity of the College is 200 students, 100 of which are boarding students. The Ministry will start a campaign this spring among class 6 students to recruit a sufficient number of students to the course that is planned to start in November 1982.

On the following day, after a short visit to the Director of Education in Bolama, we visited the combined Lycee and Complementary Basic Education school in Bolama. Our visit was really too short to get a thorough impression. We were told that some text-books for class 5 and 6 were still missing, e.g. Social Sciences and Portuguese but otherwise, the pupils were well provided with books. The school lacked equipment for science teaching. We saw one class working in the school garden, but there did not seem to be enough equipment (or work) for everyone to participate at the same time.

We then proceeded to a primary school in Lala, a couple of kilometres outside Bolama. At the time of our visits all the children were actively engaged in productive work, picking cashew-fruits around the school. In the classroom we saw big sacks of nuts which they had collected earlier. The school was newly built, with the help of US AID, and consisted of two rooms. Classes 1 and 2 studied in the morning, classes 3 and 4 in the afternoon. There were around 25 students in classes 1 and 2, but only around 10 in each of classes 3 and 4. We were told that many students move to an urban school after class 2, probably to have better chances to proceed to higher education afterwards. After class 2 some children will also leave school altogether in order to help their families. We were a bit surprised to learn about the urban centres being such "magnets" also to children in primary schools, all the more since the school in Lala was a new, beautiful building and had 4 well qualified teachers. We felt that the resources of the school were not fully utilised.

We visited one more primary school, Ulysses Grant, in Bolama. Also, this school was financed by US AID, and the classrooms were built like huge, six-sided huts of concrete blocks, with enough space for at least 60 pupils in every room. The building work was not yet completely terminated, but the school was planned for 350 pupils. We were a bit hesitant about this very spacy sort of architecture.

Before we left for Bissau, we made a quick visit to the store of the Regional Educational office. We saw large numbers of textbooks that were no longer in use, e.g. a Geography book. Since Geography is now included in Social Science, this book is not in complete accordance with the new curriculum. We suggested that the older books might serve as reference literature in the schools rather than being stored. We also saw great quantities of "O meu primeiro/secundo livro de matematica". These books were available in Bissau already in September 1981. Because of their content minor changes would have to be made before delivery. We seriously hope that these books will be available to all primary school children in the beginning of the next school year.

Gunilla Rosengart

Annex 6.2

Case Study 2 - Visit to Bissau

DATES

Friday, 21st May 1982

PARTICIPANTS

Galdé Baldé, Julieta Mendes Pereira, MNE  
Karlis Goppers, Lars Thorsell, Roy Carr-Hill,  
Josué Gomes de Almeida, SIDA team

We met at the Ministry and proceeded immediately to visit the largest school for Complementary Basic Education in the country, Escola Salvador Allende, which is nearby. The school has 3,000 students just for the 5th and 6th classes with 25 class units in the morning, in the afternoon, and in the evening. After a very interesting discussion with the director, we split up and visited several different classes: in some classes the teaching seemed very traditional (repetitive and sometimes by rota); in others the teachers were very enthusiastic; and in yet others (the natural science classes) the teaching was in groups.

The school is in a reasonably good physical condition although there seems to have been very little maintenance since Independence. The problem with materials was reflected in the workshops where although the work being done was quite imaginative, there were simply not enough materials to go around.

However the school Salvador Allende clearly has a good reputation and there are many more applications for entry than are admitted. We were told that the criteria for selecting among those applying who had passed 4th class was simply by age - the youngest first. We were even told that a 14 year old was likely to have to go to the evening session because of the pressure on places. As a postscript, it is worth remarking that two of the SIDA team made an impromptu visit to the evening sessions around 11 p.m. and were very impressed by the dedication shown at such a late hour by both students and teachers.

Our next visit was to another school for Complementary Basic Education - the Guinea-Bissau/Swedish Friendship school. There were 'only' 900 students divided between morning and afternoon sessions. We had the opportunity in this school to ask what the future graduates wanted to do when they left: in a class of thirty, 25 wanted to go to lycee.

We then went on to look at a school for Elementary Basic Education in the centre of town. This had previously been

a missionary school and had been kept in very good condition. The teaching was good in both classes we visited, especially in one where the pupils were dramatising the Human Body. We had time to talk to the children individually and learnt that most had been to pre-school (which made this rather an unusual school) and that the few children who were considerably older than the average for that class were there because of family problems.

In contrast, our next visit was to a school for Elementary Basic Education in Contum - on the outskirts of Bissau. This had been, recently, built by the local population and had no chairs or desks and although children had exercise books there were clearly not enough textbooks. We noticed here the same phenomenon as in some other schools; an imbalance in the number of classes of each grade with four classes of the first grade, three of the second, two of the third, and only one of the fourth. We supposed, but could not establish, that this was because pupils shifted to other - better equipped? - schools as soon as they were older and more independent.

Our final visit to an operational school was to the Koranic school (not part of the official system), also in Contum. This was situated in a 'baracca' with two teachers and about 110 children. Only one of the teachers could speak Portuguese - he had completed 4th grade inside the Arabic educational system. The 'pedagogy' consisted in writing phrases on the board and getting the children to chant them repetitively. In response to a question from us through the teacher, about 25 said that they also went to the Portuguese (sic) school. We were lucky enough to talk to a father who said that the main reason he preferred this school to the official school was a question of religion.

We ended the rather crowded morning by yet another contrast - a visit to the unused Lycee near the airport. It is a luxurious construction with covered walkways and covered sports pavilion. The ostensible reason for its non use is that the equipment has not yet arrived; but we sensed that it was more complex than that.

We returned to the hotel at about 13.00.

Roy Carr-Hill

Annex 6.3

Case Study 3 - Visit to Bafata and Gabu

DATES

Monday - Tuesday, 24th - 25th May 1982

PARTICIPANTS

Abdulai Djau, MNE, Roy Carr-Hill,  
Josué Gomes de Almeida, SIDA team

Objectives of Visit

- (1) To understand local circumstances and the specific reality of teaching in Bafata and Gabu
- (2) To explore further the possible causes of the low levels of entry and of passing in the initial grades of Elementary Basic Education; and
- (3) To establish the extent to which there is a real link between school and community.

We arrived in Bafata at 11h00 where, via a brief discussion with the Regional Delegate for Education, we established the programme of our visits.

Gabu

We arrived around 11h30, met the Regional Delegate who accompanied us on a visit to a school for Complementary Basic Education. There we were welcomed by the Director who accompanied us on our visit to the only functioning class in that building - a Mathematics 5th grade lesson. We remained in the class for half an hour and, at the end, had a small discussion with the teacher and some students particularly about the pedagogy employed in the teaching of mathematics. We investigated the physical condition of the school, which was reasonable.

Next, we went to visit another Basic Education school in the centre of town, where the only functioning class was a 6th grade group who were completing a test in Political Education. We were surprised by the kind of questions in the test: they left no room for the development of the student's critical faculties. We then visited the school buildings and remarked upon its bad physical condition.

After lunch, we visited the EBE school, 11th November, where we found a large number of students and also the sector delegate who lived at the school. The latter explained in general terms

the educational situation in his sector and in the region, dwelling upon the difficulties he encountered in visiting all the schools even inside the one sector because of the lack of appropriate transport. We talked with several students and investigated the physical conditions as well as the availability of teaching materials; this school seemed to have relatively few problems. We also met here a physically handicapped pupil.

From the 11th November school, we went to visit the Arabic school of the region which was near the Mosque. There were no students but we did meet one of the teachers who also happened to be the Director who agreed to accord us an interview.

We started by discussing the reason for the existence of the school, its present conditions and future perspectives (see below), the number of registered students (around 100 in Gabu), the pass rate and the curricula (including apparently Arabic, geography, history, mathematics, natural sciences and Portuguese as well as the Koran). We learnt that this school had existed since Independence and that the numbers on the roll had dropped substantially in the intervening period.

According to the Director, the majority of the students in his school are at the same time students in the ordinary (state) schools whether of Elementary or Complementary Basic Education. The Arabic school receives support from Egypt, Libya and Saudi Arabia. At the moment, the school is facing various difficulties on an organisational level and also in terms of providing upkeep for its teachers. They have already presented various proposals for overcoming these difficulties to the Government but have not yet received any response.

#### CEPI-Sonaco

We left for Sonaco to visit a CEPI school. We did not meet any students there because they were preparing for the 1st June festivities. However, all the staff (administrative and teaching) were there and we learnt how this Centre had been started, how it functioned and about its present difficulties. In particular, we discussed the problem of integrating school and community (given that this CEPI was located at 2km from the centre of Sonaco) and the opportunities available for leaving students. It was clear that the teachers were fully aware of the problems: what was lacking was solutions.

On 1st June, we left at 7h30 for Contubel in order to visit the Alphabetisation Centre and to be informed about the state of Elementary Basic Education there. We were welcomed by the sector delegate who explained the activities in his sector in great detail. He also informed us of the project to repair the old barracks to serve as a school for Complementary Basic Education.

The one school we did visit was in bad structural condition, needed painting and windows repairing. But that day there was no teaching as the children were all involved in the commemoration of International Children's Day.

However, the activities of alphabetisation were functioning normally, so that we sat in on a lesson. We had discussions both with the local animator and with the functionaries from the corresponding Department of the MNE who had travelled to Contubel to show us the activities of alphabetisation in the sector on the spot. With these functionaries, we visited a site belonging to the Department which had been under construction since 1980. The project consisted in the construction of two houses, one as a residence for the personnel and the other for the alphabetisation activities themselves. There had not been much progress during the previous year.

### Bafata

In this sector, we visited a school under construction within the RECREE programme.

After lunch, we had a meeting with the Comrade Regional President. This meeting was very important. We had the opportunity to hear his views in respect of all the above-mentioned objectives of our delegation, and about the regional priorities in terms of creating appropriate structures for the harmonious development of the region. We were interested to note that one of the preoccupations of the Regional President was the construction of a Centre for Vocational Training in the Contubel area. He saw such an Institute as being entirely devoted to training for rural development, such as agriculture, fish farming, civil engineering, etc.

We left for Bissau at 17h.

### Conclusions

- (1) All the schools we visited were in very bad repair, in particular the roofs of the school for Elementary Basic Education in Gabu were dangerous.
- (2) The low participation rate in the first grades in this area must once again provoke a fundamental rethink of educational policy. The MNE should study the situation in these schools and make proposals for reform.
- (3) The CEPI should be carefully studied and particularly in respect of the way in which its students can be integrated into the development of the rural areas as per its own objectives. The whole CEPI project is of great importance for the development of the National System for Education and Training.
- (4) The preoccupation of the Regional President in Bafata about the creation of a Technical Institute for Vocational Training in the region should be studied.

Abdulai Djau  
Roy Carr-Hill

Arinex 6.4

Case Study 4 - Visit to Biombo

DATE

Monday, 24th May 1982

PARTICIPANTS

Galde Baldé, Julietta Mendes Pereira, MNE  
Karlis Goppers, Gunilla Rosengart,  
Lars Thorsell, SIDA

Objectives of Visit

To evaluate the development of the education sector in the region of Biombo during the last four years (1978-1982).

The delegation left Bissau at 9h45, arriving at the Regional headquarters after having visited the following schools on the way:

- Bissalanca Controlo
- Ilonde and the three schools of Bizzauzinho

In Quinhamel, we visited "Francisco Mendes" school, for Complementary basic Education, and a school for Elementary Basic Education. During the whole visit, we had the opportunity to observe the operation of a number of factors which contribute directly or indirectly to school failure:

(1) Physical Condition

The majority (c.70%) of the schools in the regions are "barracas" and beaten earth or palm tree are used as writing surfaces

(2) Length of School Day

In almost every school we visited, there were only classes in the morning, leaving the rooms empty in the afternoon.

(3) Drop-Outs

There was a very high percentage of drop-outs and repeaters which, according to the Comrade Regional Director of Education, is due mainly to:

- constant movement of parents or guardians from one locality to another;
- children going to help with the caju harvest;
- curricula ill-adapted to the local reality.

(4) Exodus of Students to Bissau

Because of local conditions and specifically the pressure on accommodation, it was confirmed that around 95% of the students presently enrolled in the 4th grade of Elementary Basic Education in the regions want to continue with their studies in Bissau, even though there is a Complementary Basic Education school in Quinhamel. This school is now functioning at only 50% for Complementary Basic Education and 50% for Elementary Basic Education. Moreover, even the students who completed their 5th grade in this school tended to go for the 6th grade to the Complementary Basic Education in Bissau, as can be seen from the following table:

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Number of Class-Groups in each Grade  
1981/82

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| 5th grade |   | 6th grade |   |
|-----------|---|-----------|---|
| Day-time  | 5 | Day-time  | 1 |
| Evening   | 1 | Evening   | 1 |

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Curricula

The curricula, in the view of the Delegation, are not sufficiently adapted to the childrens' reality, or to the knowledge of the environment in which they live. We can cite as an extreme example the morphological analysis of the word geography. For a pupil of 3rd class this is very theoretical.

In the afternoon, the Delegation had a round-table discussion with some of the regional functionaries in the education sector about a series of questions related to improving education in the region.

Galdé Baldé

Annex 6.5

Case Study 5 - Visit to Tombali

DATE

Friday, 4th June 1982

PARTICIPANTS

Galdé Baldé, Julieta Mendes Pereira, MNE  
Roy Carr-Hill, Lars Thorsell, Gunilla Rosengart,  
SIDA

We left Bissau by air and arrived in Catio around 9 o'clock in the morning. There was a friendly reception at the airport by the Director of Education in Tombali and by a group of Pioneers.

Our first visit was to the Integrated Popular Education Centre (CEPI) of Cufar. This is the oldest of the CEPI-centres. It has 140 pupils, almost all of them young men between 16-20 years of age. It also serves as a training centre for new CEPI-teachers - around 15 teachers are being trained at present. The teaching consists of three equally important parts: (1) studies of the surrounding reality, (2) scientific observations and explanations of this reality, and (3) practical work, based on scientific findings. There is supposed to be a close interrelation between these three parts.

Unfortunately, our visit to the CEPI-centre was far too short to give us an overall impression of how this ambitious programme is carried out. During our visit all four classes had ordinary classroom teaching. It was hard for us to get an idea of how closely these scientific studies were related to the previous studies of reality. Exercises on how to calculate cubic measures and studies of the mosquitoes seemed to be related to reality; we were more hesitant to the thorough study of Portuguese grammar, e.g. the difference between synthetic and analytic adverbs. We were told that CEPI does not use any of the GEOP-produced teaching material, but has a complete set of material produced by the CEPI-staff. We were a bit puzzled, though, over the very small difference in teaching methodology as compared to other Ensino Basico Complementar schools. In all classes the teachers spread knowledge in the form of a monologue and the pupils were taking notes. There were no discussions or questions.

In our concluding discussion with the teachers of the Centre and with the co-operant Pascal, we had the opportunity to get a more complete picture of the teaching of CEPI. We learnt that the most serious problem facing CEPI today is how to activate the graduates. CEPI was founded on the assumption

that there would be a tremendous need for semi-skilled manpower in the villages from which the students were recruited. But it is now clear that the graduates have difficulties in finding useful engagements in their villages. CEPI is now trying to find a solution to this very crucial problem.

We then passed the Elementary Basic Education school Mato Forroba, built by the Construction Animators of Rural Schools. It was then past eleven and the morning teaching had already stopped. But the school seemed to be built in a very appropriate way to provide good teaching conditions. We were pleased to see that a teacher's house and latrines were being built next to the school.

Great hospitality was shown to us by the President of the Region who invited us for lunch. During our discussions he mentioned that the most urgent needs of the region were:

- to enlarge the Lycee in Catio, which today could only provide teaching for classes 7 and 8
- to build two more Complementary Basic Education schools so that there would be one CBE in every sector
- to build six more EBE schools.

When we later found out that the drop-out rate during the first class was quite high in Tombali, for girls more than 75% in 1979-80, we were a bit puzzled over this list of priorities.

After lunch we visited the CBE school in Catio, also a beautiful and functional school recently built. We listened to an enthusiastic lesson in Social Sciences where the international economic order was discussed. During the short period of our stay, there was no connection made to the economic life of Tombali, or Guinea-Bissau. In a lesson on Natural Sciences we saw pupils sitting in groups, working with great concentration together to formulate answers to the questions the teacher had written on the blackboard. During our visits to many different lessons it was only in Natural Science that we saw children work together in groups, probably because of lack of material. We believe that the teaching would be more stimulating for the pupils if they were given the opportunity to work together in groups more often, and also in other subjects than Natural Sciences.

We then visited a couple of EBE schools where afternoon lessons were going on. From our short visits only a few remarks will be made. We found that in the parallel classes the same items were treated in the same way, almost simultaneously. This might be the result of efficient Study Commissions where the teaching for the forthcoming fortnight is prepared. But it could also show that the teaching is carried out in accordance to fixed plans rather than to the need of each particular class. We often saw teachers who themselves gave the answers to the exercises given. By that

way of teaching it might be difficult to know how much the pupils understand and where they encounter problems.

In a first class we saw a couple of children without books, pencils and notebooks. When we tried to talk to them the teacher said that they don't understand Portuguese. Although much effort, 8 lessons a week since November, had been spent on teaching Portuguese, it is evident that Portuguese as the language of instruction causes problems. We noticed that in a number of classes there were no more than ten to twelve pupils. We were given the explanations that at this time of the year the children were needed to help in agriculture, and also, since only two weeks remained till the examinations, only those children were left in school who were permitted to sit for examinations.

We returned to Bissau at six o'clock in the evening.

Gunilla Rosengart

7. COMMENTS ON SOME SUB SECTORS  
THAT RECEIVE SWEDISH SUPPORT

In this chapter we shall make some comments on the sub sectors which receive significant proportions of Swedish aid. We shall see that, on the whole, the aid was used satisfactorily even though there were some difficulties. We would, however, like to highlight two general obstacles to the efficient use of aid: defects on the level of planning; and problems of communication either between the various ministries or between the MNE and the regional or sectoral administration.

7.1 School Buildings

7.1.1 Developments since 1977

At Independence, there was an acute shortage of school buildings. The teaching was usually given in huts ("barracas") previously used by the military or under shelters made of straw. The Ministry of National Education (MNE) gave priority to the school building programme, and a substantial proportion of Swedish aid (35%) was used to buy construction materials from abroad.

In 1977 the MNE decided on the following priorities:

- schools for Elementary Basic Education should be constructed using mainly local materials and with the help of parents, teachers and students
- a restricted number of schools for Complementary Basic Education (CBE) should be constructed but more professionally. The long

term plan is to construct one CBE school in each of the country's 37 administrative counties

-- an increase in the number of Lycees so that there would be one in each of the country's 9 regions.

What, in fact, is the present situation in terms of school construction?

In respect of EBE schools, it is difficult to compare the situation now with that in 1977 as the statistical returns were not then complete. However, in the Bafata region comparable data do exist for both 1977 and 1981.

Table 7.1 Number and Classification of EBE Schools in the Bafata Region, 1977 and 1981

|             | 1977 |    |    |     | 1981 |    |    |     |
|-------------|------|----|----|-----|------|----|----|-----|
|             | A    | B  | C  | T   | A    | B  | C  | T   |
| Bafata      | 9    | 8  | 4  | 21  | 4    | 13 | 5  | 22  |
| Contobuel   | 4    | 8  | 8  | 21  | 1    | 10 | 6  | 17  |
| Bambadinca  | 2    | 14 | 12 | 28  | 1    | 7  | 20 | 28  |
| Galomaro    | 2    | 11 | 6  | 19  | 1    | 9  | 7  | 17  |
| Xitole      | -    | 14 | 8  | 22  | -    | 10 | 10 | 20  |
| Ga-Manudo   | -    | 4  | 8  | 12  | 2    | 8  | 5  | 15  |
| TOTAL - No. | 21   | 63 | 38 | 122 | 9    | 57 | 53 | 119 |
| TOTAL - %   | 17   | 52 | 31 | 100 | 8    | 48 | 44 | 100 |

Approximate classification of the EBE schools in the country's nine regions

|   |    |    |    |     |    |    |    |     |
|---|----|----|----|-----|----|----|----|-----|
| % | 30 | 40 | 30 | 100 | 21 | 43 | 36 | 100 |
|---|----|----|----|-----|----|----|----|-----|

Note:

A Good condition  
B Average condition  
C Bad condition

It is difficult to give a clear interpretation of this table. We do not know if the classification of schools into the qualitative categories A, B and C has remained the same over the five years or even if it is the same in different regions. But the figures do appear to show that the schools have deteriorated rapidly. The climate and especially the violent storms damage the buildings. To avoid rapid destruction, the schools need to be carefully maintained.

Secondly, the efforts put into the construction of CBE schools resulted in there being 21 such establishments in 1981 as against 14 in 1977. Of these 21, 4 were in Bissau.

In the same period, the number of Lycees increased from 4 in 1977 to 6 in 1981. Also, with Dutch aid, a new Lycee for 2000 students was constructed in 1980. Unfortunately, the resources to equip this large Lycee (furniture and laboratory equipment) are still lacking.

As we have already intimated in Chapter 5, Swedish aid was used to construct and repair schools in all regions of the country.

#### 7.1.2 New Schools for 1st to 4th Grades (EBE)

The majority of these new schools have been built within the programme of Decentralising the Construction and Repair of Educational Establishments (RECREE), "Training of

### Construction Animators for Rural Schools".

The programme started in 1978. The following two principles were laid down as the basis for constructing a large number of schools as fast as possible:

(a) Local animators should be trained so as to take responsibility for the social and technical aspects of the works (for example, the mobilisation of the local population to contribute their labour voluntarily so as to assure the continuity of the project after any outside volunteers have left).

(b) The rational utilisation of local materials and techniques should guide the architectural conception and design in order to minimise construction costs. The training of these animators started in 1979 in Oio and Tombali under the supervision of three Canadian architects, volunteers from SUCCO (Canadian Universities' Overseas Service).

At the end of 1981, the animators were capable of functioning autonomously without any direct supervision from these three architects. The following schools have been built or are in the process of being built.

Table 7.2 Schools Built within the Recree Programme 1981/82

|         | 1981 | 1982 |
|---------|------|------|
| Oio     | 5    | 7    |
| Tombali | 4    | 4    |

New animators are being trained this year as well. In the Bafata region, another Canadian architect has started a similar training programme with nine apprentices. Even so, the whole programme is still concentrated in three of the country's nine regions. The reason for that concentration is the difficulty of transporting materials and animators between the regions.

The schools are constructed using local materials according to the traditional architecture of Guinea-Bissau. Each school has two rooms. For best results, however, the schools are not identical in respect of such details as the positioning and design of windows and doors, etc. The responsible architect will make a choice for each school between three typical designs appropriate for the different materials available.

The costs of the schools are low: between 2,000 and 2,700 Guinean pesos per square metre or around 200,000 Guinean pesos for a school.

We could see in our visits that:

- (a) the schools are well built
- (b) their architecture is traditional with local materials well known to the workers
- (c) they are easy to repair
- (d) the animators/foremen are competent.

Transport is the major problem. This is, of course, a general problem affecting all sectors in Guinea-Bissau. There are even problems here for transporting local material like straw. The possibility of using hand-carts for this should be investigated.

The plan is that, once 20 animators have been trained and more are going to be trained, REECREE intends to construct 20 new schools in 1983 and 20-24 in 1984. As well a small number of schools will be constructed by volunteers from Scandinavia and the Netherlands. It is also likely that some schools will be constructed, as a few already have, on the initiative and with the labour of the parents without the permission or aid of REECREE.

We were not able to obtain an overall view of the use of school buildings. We saw schools overflowing with pupils in the morning, afternoon and evening sessions. But, we also saw some schools where there was only one session, and classrooms with less than 10 pupils. That is why the project of elaborating a School Map for Guinea-Bissau which will start in September 1982 is very important. When ready this will considerably facilitate the planning and siting of new schools.

#### 7.1.3 New Schools for 5th and 6th Grades and Special Schools

We visited some schools with three or four rooms in each building, the buildings grouped together around a patio like the Guinea-Bissau/Sweden Friendship School and the Training College for EBE Teachers in Bissau, the CBE School Francisco Mendes in Quinhamel. Each school of this type has about eleven rooms.

##### (a) First Type: e.g. the Guinea-Bissau/Sweden Friendship School

We saw three schools of this type which had been constructed in the last few years. The foundation and floor are in concrete, the walls in cement blocks faced with plaster, the roofs

of aluminium sheets and the doors of wood and cement panels, the structure in Swedish iron, the windows of wood and glass, with plumbing and electricity installed.

It was not possible to use the bathrooms in any of these schools. In the Training College for EBE Teachers in Bissau the installations had not been finished, and the Francisco Mendes School for CBE in Quinhamel was not connected to either the water or the electricity network.

The rooms in Quinhamel have no gutters, so that in the rainy season the patio is full of water. The installation of a draining system is urgent.

The variation in the quality of the construction is very large. The best is the one in Quinhamel and the worst the Guinea-Bissau/Sweden Friendship School. For instance, there are holes in the roofs of the latter school which means that the ceilings are already being destroyed because of the humidity.

Vandalism is also widespread in the Guinea-Bissau/Friendship School. For example, many window panes are broken. In contrast, the school in Quinhamel is as new: only one pane is broken.

The classrooms are thought to be hot in Quinhamel. This is probably because the roof is only slightly inclined and does not shade the windows at all so that the heat from the sun enters directly into the classrooms.

Teachers in the Training College for EBE Teachers report that when it rains it is difficult to continue with the teaching because of the noise from the roof.

(b) Second Type: Bafata, etc.

The foundation and floors are of concrete, the walls of mixed cement and adobe blocks, and the roofs of aluminium sheeting. The roof supports are wooden poles. At the top and in the centre of the walls there are concrete beams. The rooms are about 7m x 7m in area and separated one from the other by about 1.5m with a verandah in front of each room. There are air vents in the walls.

The architecture and construction of these schools is a bit complicated. The added complexity does not appear to have any functional or aesthetic value. The costs of this kind of school are around 4,650 Guinean pesos per square metre.

The schools of the type constructed for 1st to 4th grades within the RECREE programme could with advantage also be built for the 5th and 6th grades.

#### 7.1.4 Adaptation and Maintenance

Until July-August 1981, there were maintenance and repair teams throughout the country. But since then, no repairs have been carried out because of the lack of funds and materials and so the teams have been disbanded.

But, between 1979 to 1981 many old buildings were repaired and adapted to serve as educational establishments. We can cite, for example:

- Unit for Curriculum Development and Teacher Orientation (GEOP) in Bissau
- Schools for Law and for Physical Education and Sport, in Bissau

- Central Warehouse for Construction Materials in Bissau
- Regional Warehouses in the regions of Oio, Tombali, Bafata
- Catio Lycee

The adaptations have generally been successful. Just a few caveats - GEOP has swing windows with frames of around 15cm x 50cm. The majority of the windows have no glass panes but hardboard sheets which should be replaced. In the Law School, part of the roof is damaged and some of the ceilings are sagging badly. They need to be examined to see whether there are animal excrement in the ceiling; otherwise the roof might fall down.

At the same time considerable maintenance work was done involving the repair of roofs, doors, windows, and the installation of plumbing and electricity. We can cite, for example, the repairs to the Kwame N'Krumah National Lycee and to the Missira School in Bissau. These repairs are to a good standard.

#### 7.1.5 General Comments

A major problem in Guinea-Bissau is the lack of construction material such as cement and iron, screws, nails, locks, hinges, window glass, aluminium sheets, etc. All these materials need to be imported. And as the Ministry of National Education lacked foreign currency, some of the Swedish aid was used to purchase these basic materials.

In 1979, the Ministry signed a contract with the Portuguese-Swedish firm FUNDAMENTO in Lisbon,

which undertook to purchase and despatch materials from Portugal. Now, the Ministry itself has taken over the purchase of materials directly.

The Ministry has a general warehouse in Bra, Bissau, where all imported materials are stocked. Individual construction or maintenance sites make requisitions which need to be approved by the head of RECREE. Materials are then transported by Ministry truck to the various Regional Warehouses. Finally, the materials are transported by a truck belonging to the region up to the site.

Materials such as poles and straw are bought locally although that might involve transportation up to 50km.

Whilst, at present, there is some stock in Bra albeit not in sufficient quantity, the Regional Warehouses are almost empty.

Given these conditions, it is understandable that the RECREE programme for 1st to 4th grades schools aims to use as little imported materials as possible.

#### 7.1.6 Summary

Swedish aid in the school building sector has been used very positively.

- RECREE programme of building schools for grades 1 to 4 is a success. It is important that continued support be given to this programme
- The new schools for 5th and 6th grade vary in quality partly because of variations in the quality of construction and partly because of vandalism

- The maintenance and repair teams were disbanded in July-August 1981 through lack of funds and materials. Yet, the majority of the old schools are in very bad condition. Sometimes parts of roofs are missing, or there are no windows or doors, etc. In many cases, it is urgent that maintenance work is undertaken before the schools are totally destroyed. A programme which involves the training of maintenance foremen could be a solution.
- The transport problem is ever-present and lowers the real efficiency of construction and maintenance activities. It is imperative to reinforce the logistical support of RECREE. It is obviously also important that there be sufficient materials for maintenance such as zinc sheets, fibrocement, locks, hinges, glass, etc. More funds are needed urgently to buy these materials.
- Very few of the schools have water or toilets. And some schools need electricity to be installed for the evening sessions.

In general, there is a need to analyse in the long term the relation between investment and current costs. Thus, a large investment program now can have a serious impact on future current costs.

## 7.2 School Books and Other Textbooks

### 7.2.1 A Brief Description of the Situation concerning School Books in 1977

(a) Primary School. Some of the school books produced during the struggle were being used in 1977. Some of these books had been printed in Sweden with Swedish resources. One can cite,

for example, "O nosso livro 1-4" printed in Uppsala, and Geography 1 (4th class); and in Helsingfors, the 1st Class Arithmetic book had been printed. FRELIMO, MPLA and PAIGC had also produced Mathematics for 2nd Class. This book was printed and financed by the GDR. A guide for teachers in natural sciences was produced by MPLA. UNESCO financed the 4th Class Mathematics book which was printed in Paris. These examples show how diverse was the situation concerning school books in 1977. The originals were frequently of foreign origin and of little relevance to the reality in Guinea-Bissau. In spite of this, a considerable quantity of textbooks had been printed for the 1st to 4th class even though there were not always enough available.

For 5th and 6th classes printed texts were lacking. Two cooperants from the GDR worked at the Ministry of Education on the production of textbooks and guides for the teachers. These manuals were probably the first produced on the basis of a curriculum. The curriculum produced in 1977 for Grade 5 was of an experimental character. The curriculum for Grade 6 was developed in the same year with the intention of implementing it in 1978/79

The first editions were stencilled with the intention of printing them in offset after a first revision. The books for the first four grades were revised as well. No stocks of books existed except for the reading book for 3rd grade.

(b) Secondary School and Teacher Training

In 1977, there was only one book of local relevance, "History of Guinea and the Cap Verde Islands". Other school books were, for the most part, produced and printed in Portugal. PAIGC did, however, edit a history book printed in Paris and financed by UNESCO.

It was in these circumstances that GEOP (Unit for Curriculum Development and Teacher Orientation) started functioning in 1977 and was developed mainly by two experts from the GDR.

7.2.2 Brief Description of the Situation  
concerning School Books in May/June 1982:  
Comparisons and Commentaries

(a) GEOP and its Programme. It is obvious that GEOP developed positively after 1977. The present head of GEOP is José Vieira. The activities of the unit are divided between divisions each of whom have the responsibility for developing manuscripts in the various disciplines. There are divisions for languages, natural sciences, social sciences, etc.

GEOP has produced around 50 documents over the whole range from school books, teachers guides as well as supplementary material. Stencils can now be produced at GEOP headquarters or in the main office for school books which is very near GEOP itself. There is an offset printing press available in the GEOP headquarters itself. More sophisticated printing with, for example, various

colours, can be done in the national printing office or abroad, principally in Portugal or Senegal.

The work involved in revision is a big problem. Various methods need to be attempted in order to develop national school books which are adapted to the reality in Guinea-Bissau. But successive revisions of the curricula themselves imply frequent changes in the school textbooks which is a big operation.

The curricula have been extensively revised and this needs to be emphasised. At present there are clear links between, on the one hand, the curricula and the teacher guides - often with very detailed manuals - and school books on the other hand. We have commented briefly on the content of the curricula in Chapter 6. Here we note that the theoretical level of the curricula seem very advanced, higher for example, than those in Europe and in the United States considering the age of the pupils.

The Commission for the elaboration of the curriculum and school books started work in 1977/78 with the help of two cooperants. Their work was interrupted for various reasons in 1978/79 and was started again in 1979/80 with the help of one cooperant. Today, the commission works without any technical aid from outside. The commission visits villages ("tabancas") in order to analyse, bring together and clarify conceptions and ideas, names of fruits, clothes and furniture, and oral traditions. On the basis of this material, proposals are being elaborated for what could appropriately be included in school books, which proposals will be discussed

with teachers in the corresponding region. After a further revision a new set of textbooks and supplementary manuals will be produced. It is difficult to judge whether curricula and manuals are in fact being developed in this way, or whether this is a model which is more an expression of a desirable method of working.

(b) Technical Aid. The centre for the production of school books has been reconstructed since 1977. At that time there were only a few duplicators in bad condition. The existing centre works principally according to the conceptions and designs laid out in the Swedish Report of 1977. Thus there is a special layout section with illuminated tables, space for re-editing and facilities for making electric stencils. There are also offset printing machines and personnel trained in the maintenance and repair of this equipment. The problem today is the supply of materials and spare parts.

The Audio Visual Centre, not financed by SIDA, is also new since 1977.

The targets proposed by the Swedish Commission in 1977 have, in the main, been overtaken. For example, one can now record and make duplicates of recordings on cassettes. There is also some very high quality photographic equipment, producing among other things coloured prints, colour enlargements, and even posters. Indeed, it is possible that the technological capacity, especially in respect of photography, is too high taking into account the potential for using audio visual material in the existing schools. It is only the Lycees who can profit from high quality equipment of this type.

### 7.2.3 Summary

- For grades 1 to 6, there are now texts and manuals elaborated according to the specifically Guinean educational plans
- For grades 7 to 9, there is still a big shortage of books
- For grades 10 and 11, they continue to use Portuguese textbooks
- For teacher training GEOP has produced text-books and manuals
- The activities of GEOP are vitally important and function well
- GEOP is consciously trying to develop school texts independently of other Portuguese-speaking countries

### 7.3 School Furniture and Teaching Materials

School Furniture. The Swedish mission in 1977 suggested that the condition of school furniture in terms of both quality and quantity was critical. Only a small minority of the furniture had been produced in Guinea-Bissau, even though there was plenty of convenient local materials. The furnishings they did have were those left over from the colonial schools and the military occupation, a limited quantity of locally produced furniture imported from Senegal as well as some better quality chairs and tables imported from other foreign countries. In Guinea-Bissau itself only very primitive chairs had been produced. For writing surfaces, pupils used planks or upside down clay pots. Unsurprisingly the surface accessible for writing was limited by the width of the plank and so did not give any support for the forearm.

The situation in June 1982 is much better as regards chairs and tables but there are still

not enough. In many of the "baraccas" and the more "simple" schools, planks and upturned pots are still the predominant kind of furniture.

Local production of chairs and tables has already started in a MNE factory with a capacity of about 1,000 benches per year as well as in a private factory. It is, however, worth remarking that the majority of schools which were visited by the delegation had chairs and tables, made locally with local materials. The furniture is solidly made and whilst providing a reasonable surface for most people, does not allow for ergonomic variation. Nearly all of the chairs and tables which are produced are for two persons, which does not allow flexibility in the way of grouping pupils.

Cupboards and other storage facilities were totally lacking in 1977 - and also today. The possible alternatives are either built-in wall cupboards or to set aside special storage rooms. There are very few bookshelves and the little material that does exist is very often left in a disorganised fashion. There is little understanding of the importance of maintaining equipment. If, in the future, the quantity of school equipment increases, it will be necessary to improve its maintenance and organisation. In particular, it is most important to protect materials during the rainy season.

Teaching Materials for Natural Sciences. From grade 5 onwards, laboratory work is supposed to be included in the studies of natural sciences. Although we saw some equipment for science teaching in the Lycee of Bissau and in some of

the CBE schools we visited, we never assisted at any science lesson during which the rooms for natural science were being used accordingly, or during which any of the laboratory equipment was being utilised. The situation seems to be more or less the same as in 1977.

Up till now there are no plans for local production of laboratory equipment which will thus have to be imported also for the next few years.

Basic Teaching Materials. In 1982, as much as in 1977, Guinea-Bissau has to rely almost entirely on imports for basic didactic materials such as exercise books, pencils, rules, chalk, etc.

General Comments

The impression that our group got from the study visits we made to various schools is that the availability of didactic material has increased. The majority of the pupils that we met had, in fact, got pencils and exercise books. The pupil has to buy these items albeit at a relatively low price. The teachers and administrators say that there have not been any pupils who are obliged to drop out from school because they have none of the basics. If the parents have no money, the school finds some solution. The prices of school books and basic educational necessities are determined by the Ministry and are much lower than the real cost. We had discussions with the Ministry about the possibility of providing the basic materials to the pupils free of charge, but we were not able to reach agreement on any concrete proposal for reform.

The distribution of school materials is a very big problem. It is claimed that this is due to

the lack of transport. For example, in Bolama, the regional inspectors have difficulty in visiting the schools on the islands. Guinea-Bissau has already indicated that it needs cars, motor bikes, boats and even canoes. But storage and distribution can be made more efficient in several ways and not only by getting more transport.

SIDA has contributed, through its aid, to a significant improvement during the years 1978-1982. However, we should realise that Guinea-Bissau will need external aid to import the majority of its requirements in terms of the basic educational necessities. The availability of such basic items such as exercise books and pencils is of paramount importance.

#### 7.4 Working Creatively in the Schools

Guinea-Bissau is still at that stage of national reconstruction where the majority of available resources are being used to respond to immediate necessities. For this reason, research and development work in the formal sense do not exist. However, as part of the ongoing activity in the schools (just as in Swedish schools) there are attempts to introduce innovations but very often without any clear objective and without any evaluation. The risks associated with this kind of development are obvious and are perhaps especially important in a country like Guinea-Bissau which is carrying a very heavy colonialist heritage. But, the fact that a new educational system is being created in Guinea-Bissau does open up a very wide range of possibilities. Thus, in one sense the lack of school buildings, of traditional (and conservative) teaching manuals, of a career structure for teachers,

etc. - that is the situation of starting "from zero" is obviously a handicap. But in another sense, it is an advantage for it means that a complete change is possible, a change to a school system which creates active students, researchers both with analytic skills and a sense of responsibility who will work together with the teachers and the population of an area for their own future and that of the nation.

SIDA has already - in the recommendations of the 1977 delegation - drawn attention to the possibilities and risks mentioned above. The same report also drew attention to the necessity for high-level personnel speaking Portuguese who are qualified pedagogically. That is still an urgent necessity today. But the possibilities for innovation are becoming increasingly restricted, and especially the opportunity to make a complete change.

Whilst taking into consideration the enormous difficulties facing Guinea-Bissau, it is important to comment upon the teaching style and the kind of books and buildings which are one of the consequences of those same difficulties.

The teaching style is almost universally "frontal teaching" - that is to say a method where the teacher takes up a position at the front of the class near his desk and the blackboard, directs the class, and the student is an object who passively receives the teaching. A dialogical pedagogy is very rare.

In order to clarify the above mentioned criticisms and to show its force, we would like to

outline an alternative model in a slightly more analytic fashion.

Diagram 7.1:

Model for Planning Resource Needs

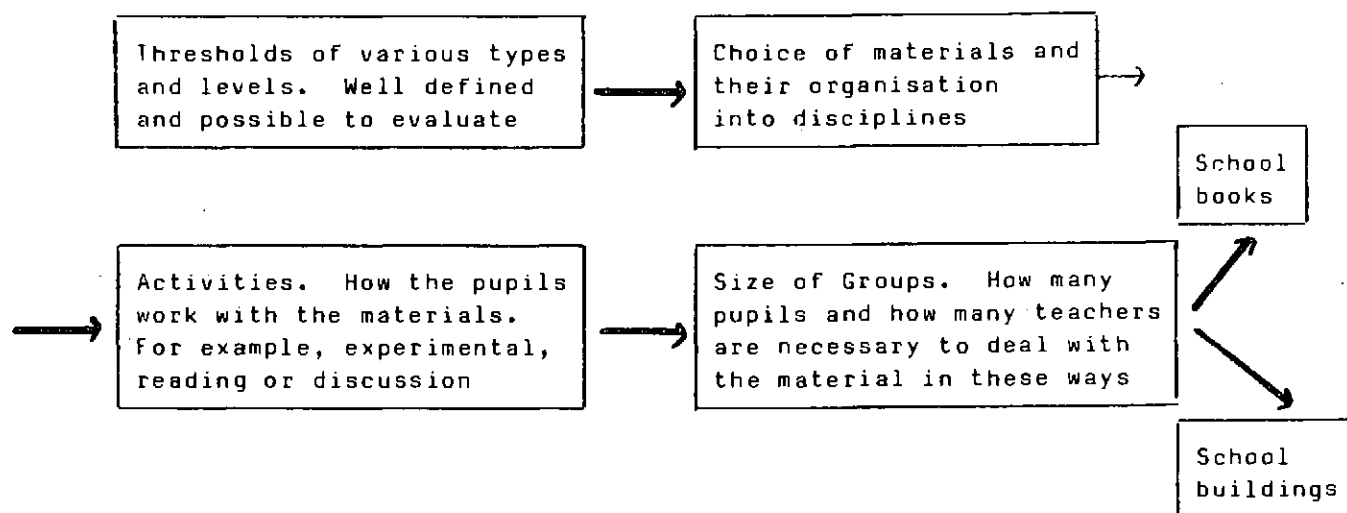


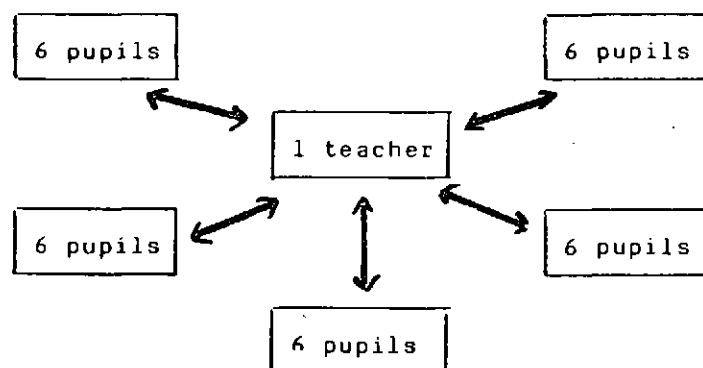
Diagram 7.2:

Some Concrete Consequences of this Model

The Situation Today



Alternatives - I



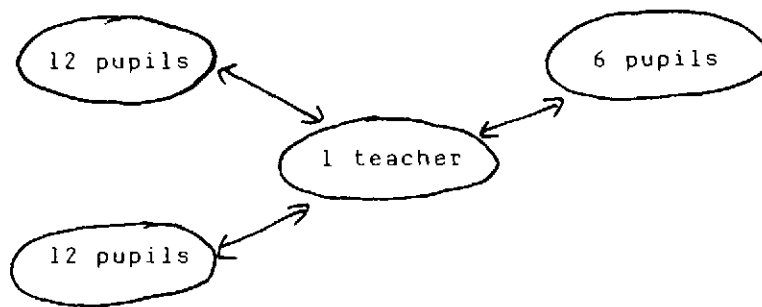
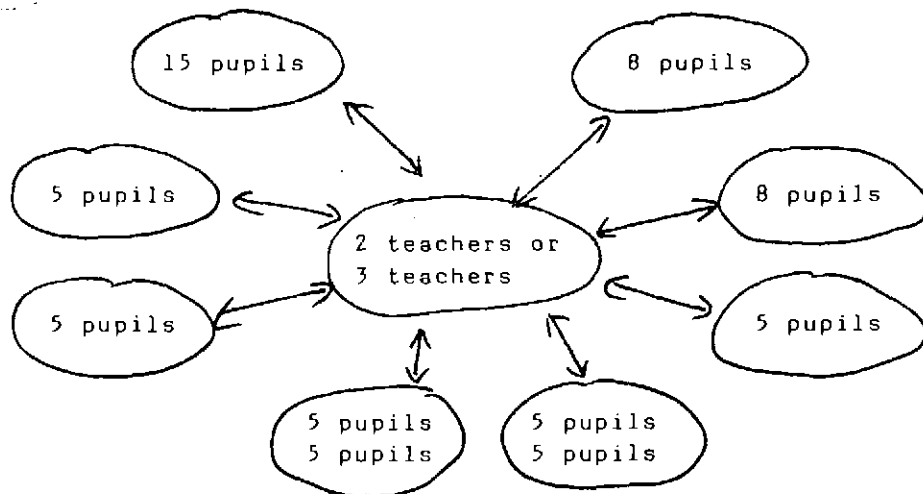
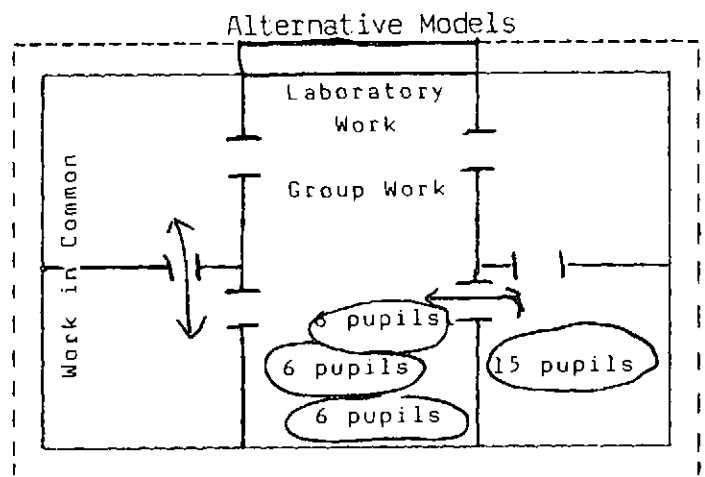
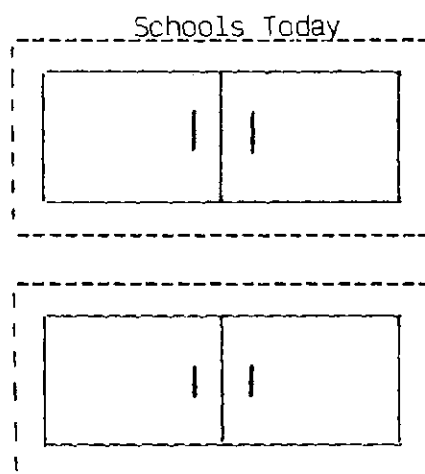
Alternatives - IIAlternatives - III

Diagram 7.3:

Implications for School Buildings



Schools can be built to these alternative models using the same technology and with 80% local materials.

School Furniture. Benches for just two students can be replaced by individual stools and round or square tables for 5 or 6 pupils.

School Books and Other Teaching Materials. There need to be more tasks designed for independent work and for work in larger or smaller groups, the diversity of the groups depending on the activities and kind of subject under consideration; more time for discussion and group work, more laboratory experience, and more tasks linked with both practice and theory.

#### 7.5 Training and Upgrading of Teachers

Swedish aid in this area has been used to organise upgrading seminars during the long summer holidays (more than 1,000 teachers participated each year) and for directed courses and the study commissions (see Chapter 3, section 3.4.7).

We strongly believe that this upgrading of teachers is of utmost importance. First of all, it gives the teaching staff additional theoretical knowledge and methodological insight. But also, especially for teachers working in remote rural areas, these courses where colleagues meet and exchange information and experience, provide a well-needed stimulus for further work.

These efforts by the MNE to upgrade existing teachers, give professional training to non-qualified teachers and to train new teachers have already had a noticeable effect on the whole

school system. For example: the percentage of school monitors among all EBE teachers has decreased from 67% to 53% and the MNE does not now need to recruit teachers in that category. In Complementary Basic Education, there has been a considerable increase in the number of teachers and even though the large majority of teachers have no formal pedagogical training, the academic level of teachers has increased.

The intention of MNE is ambitious: to link productive work to the other subjects taught, and also to provide an education which allows for the self-realisation of each individual. However, the very formal and repetitive teaching we saw in most of the classes does not correspond to these goals. It is only through an alternative approach in the teacher training that some more activating, liberating teaching methods could be introduced in the classrooms.

The level and consciousness of the teacher is the most important factor in improving the quality of teaching. For this reason, it is important that MNE continues its efforts to upgrade and train teachers. Swedish aid should therefore continue to support this subsector with material resources and, if MNE so wishes, with Technical Assistance.

## 7.6 Alphabetisation

At Independence, the index of illiteracy in the adult population was more than 95%. In the liberated zones, there had been some alphabetisation campaigns and immediately after Independence this was given high priority. In 1975, the MNE invited the well known pedagogue,

Paulo Freire, and his method was adopted by the cultural circles. The objective of these circles was not only alphabetisation but also, via a critical appreciation of the surrounding reality, conscientisation and mobilisation of the participants. The language used in these alphabetisation campaigns was Portuguese.

The first alphabetisation programme started first among FARP (the Armed Forces) in Bissau and in the interior. Also, in 1976, 120 members of the JAAC (the youth movement) were given a training of a few weeks, in order to be monitors for alphabetisation. At the same time, 200 Lycee students were trained during the long holidays on a voluntary basis, to become cultural animators. The intention was that they would return to their home regions in order to initiate alphabetisation on a mass scale. The students were meant to work with the peasants during the day, and to animate culture circles including alphabetisation, health education and agricultural education during the evenings.

Of all these projects, only the alphabetisation in the armed forces was a success. Almost all the campaigns in the suburbs and in the countryside gave poor results in that only a minority of the circles managed to complete their intended programme, and only a very small fraction of the participants learnt how to read and write.

Possible explanations of this failure are:

- (1) The Party and the mass organisations were not sufficiently mobilised in support of the campaigns
- (2) The enormous difficulty of carrying out alphabetisation in Portuguese, which was a

foreign language for the majority of the participants, had not been taken into account.

- (3) The typical participant was not sufficiently motivated in that the written word is not part of his/her daily reality
- (4) There was a shortage of qualified monitors and of teaching materials.

On the basis of this analysis activities of alphabetisation since 1978 have been concentrated in workplaces. In Bissau, circles were initiated in the Port, in the People's shops, in the hospitals, in the hotels and in some industrial enterprises. In the countryside, existing circles were integrated into the rural development projects such as Cabonchanque, Bubaque and in the collective vegetable gardens such as Sedengal. As well we note that the CEPI schools conducted alphabetisation circles.

The Department for Adult Education (DEA) is responsible for the activities.

In 1980, the DEA was able to evaluate these new attempts at alphabetisation. Once more, it was noticeable that very few participants had actually learnt how to read and write, even in the workplaces in Bissau, that is in a context where Portuguese is spoken and where the participants need to know how to read and write. A number of instruments of analysis were used in this evaluation including the collection of qualitative and quantitative data on the progress of the participants during the programme.

It was realised that the failure was due, in the first instance, to the language of instruction. It appears that it is almost

impossible to learn how to read and write in a foreign language. On the basis of this analysis, and following on from the Extraordinary Congress of the PAIGC in November 1981 which gave high priority to alphabetisation, the Project for the Alphabetisation of Adults in their Mother Tongue was launched in 1982. The project started with creole as this is the vernacular most used in the country and as this was the language symbolising unity during the liberation struggle.

The new experimental project began with linguistic research into creole. An alphabetisation manual in creole, "Kebur", was elaborated as well as, later, a grammar and a small dictionary.

In the teaching year 1981/82, four circles using creole as the language of instruction were functioning.

Summary. The main obstacles blocking the advance of alphabetisation have been:

- the language of instruction - Portuguese
- hardly any mobilisation for the campaign
- lack of coordination between the different Ministries involved in the programmes
- no appropriate literature available for the recently alphabetised.

The new experiment is very important in that, if its results are positive, it will then be possible to make real advances in the objective of mass alphabetisation and it may also be helpful to the Basic Education sector inasmuch as the language of instruction is also a problem there.

8. SECTOR SUPPORT VIS-A-VIS PROJECT SUPPORT  
TO THE FIELD OF EDUCATION IN GUINEA-BISSAU

In the early days of Swedish Developmental Aid, support was given mainly to clearly specified projects. This so-called Project Support implies that a particular project is chosen, e.g. a teacher training college, that detailed project plans are decided upon by both parties, and that both parties share the responsibility that the project is successfully completed. This has proved to be a viable method in many cases. One of its main characteristics is that it gives the donor the possibility to identify his project and to control it through regular assessments. Some drawbacks have been experienced, though. Some projects tended to have a rather isolated, and thus less useful, function. A teacher training college, e.g. however efficient, proved to be of limited value if the newly trained teachers did not want to work in the rural areas, or if they had to teach a badly adapted curriculum. It was felt that a broader approach to assistance might be worth trying.

In the early 1970s, SIDA introduced the so-called Sector Support. This implies support to a sector, e.g. the education sector, in a country. It can be directed either to the entire sector, or to a few sub sectors, such as vocational training, primary education, adult education, etc. This is decided upon in the Sector Support Agreement. Within these limits, the Sector Support can be utilised to cover broader areas of the sector. During yearly sector reviews, SIDA and the recipient authority agree upon the utilisation of funds for the forthcoming year, and reports from the previous year are examined.

This method provides a more flexible and, hopefully, more integrated utilisation of resources. On the other hand, this form of aid is more difficult to identify and evaluate. It is based on a mutual trust between donor and receiver.

On the basis of SIDA's analyses of the education sector in Guinea-Bissau in 1976, and as a result of discussions between the Ministry of Education and SIDA in 1977, it was decided that the Swedish support to the field of education should be in the form of Sector Support. In line with the goals of Swedish Development Aid, support to particular sub-sectors such as secondary education and higher education was to be excluded. SIDA's most important reasons for this choice of Sector Support were

- a general trust in the educational policy of Guinea-Bissau and in the ambition of the Ministry of Education to implement plans
- the appreciation that resources were lacking in a wide variety of fields within the sector of education
- preference to small flexible programmes rather than to a few big capital-intensive projects

Our evaluation has shown that this form of support probably was the most appropriate. We are, however, a little concerned that the support which is given is not only immediately restricted to the sub-sectors agreed upon, but also that the medium and long term impact of the support is in line with the goals for Swedish Development Aid. We will thus have to be aware that, e.g. the expansion of primary education does not in the long term automatically lead to a higher degree of social and economic equality, but might, due to factors outside the control of SIDA or the Ministry of Education, lead to increased poverty

in the rural areas, if most of the young school-leavers move to the urban centres.

It is however clear that the three main arguments for Sector Support five years ago are valid also today:

- through yearly sector reviews SIDA has been able to notice the encouraging trends of the development of the sector. The financial reports have been satisfactory and the yearly agreements have been kept in a reasonable way
- there is still a lack of resources in a variety of fields, which underlines the need to maintain the flexibility of the support
- some heavy investment projects have recently been carried through with the help of foreign donors (Holland, USA). There are strong reasons to believe that more investment in new institutions will cause serious strains to the Ministry's current budget shortly

We are thus of the conviction that the Swedish support to the field of education of Guinea-Bissau should continue in the form of Sector Support.

## 9. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Any kind of discussion of education in a developing country must start out from the realities of that country. In Guinea-Bissau the most important resource available is land: around 85% of the population are living from subsistence agricultural production.

The continuous expansion of the modern sector, above all in the urban centres, whilst the rural zones remain in stagnation, can only create an artificial and contradictory situation. The consequences of this kind of "development" are well known: hunger, unemployment in the cities, and a large measure of economic and political dependence on the international market.

In order to contribute to a balanced socio-economic development of Guinea-Bissau, SIDA is mainly concerned with the improvement and development of the rural areas. It is for this reason that we insist on the importance of the fact that the support which Sweden gives to the education sector in Guinea-Bissau should be directed towards the development of the rural areas.

This evaluation of the educational sector during the last four years has shown that the activities and programmes of the Ministry of Education have succeeded in:

- constructing schools for basic education in the rural areas;
- sending, although with difficulty, teachers to the regions, at least in the EBE schools;
- modifying the teaching materials so as to adapt them to local conditions;

- creating the conditions so that, increasingly, children between the ages of 6 and 8 are enrolling.

But, despite those considerable efforts, we also note the following tendencies:

- many children, especially in the Eastern parts of the country, do not go to school;
- the proportion who fail to move up a grade at the end of each year in the basic education cycle is more than 50%, and the drop-out is especially noticeable during the first school year, even before the exams. This rate is highest in the regions of Oio and Biombo;
- the proportion of girls in elementary basic education is only a third of all children. This proportion is even lower in the rural areas;
- the transition from EBE to CBE happens in such a way that many of the young, and especially the boys, move to Bissau;
- the difficulty for pupils leaving at the end of 4th or 6th grades of finding a useful job in the countryside;
- the difficulty for students leaving the Lycee to involve themselves in useful activities, both in the countryside and, increasingly, in the towns;
- only a few adults have managed to learn to read and write despite repeated campaigns of alphabetisation;
- planning of heavy investments which imply very high future current costs .

In our view, the most important factors which are at the bottom of this situation are:

- introduction of a "modern" type of school into traditional Guinean society which is

strongly structured by age; some of the village elders may view the school as constituting a threat to their traditional authority which would explain the evident resistance;

- in practice, the school does not benefit the rural areas, given that the pupils who do complete the first four classes want to leave the countryside for the urban centres and especially Bissau. The majority who do not manage to complete the first four classes and have experienced failure are also unwilling to be involved in productive life in the countryside. We believe that this is partly because the knowledge which is acquired in that limited period of schooling does not provide a secure basis as it is very formal and without any application to the rural world;
- the importance given to the Lycee. Although this has been the subject of numerous discussions the content of school curricula is oriented towards that minority who manage to arrive as far as the eleventh class, neglecting the large majority who do not attain this level and who are thus not prepared for working life;
- the language of instruction is Portuguese, a language which is spoken by only 11% of the population. This factor is more important in rural zones where children have less contact with Portuguese than the children in the urban centres;
- the teachers, especially in the rural areas, have no pedagogical training. The consequence of this - and we had the opportunity to observe it ourselves - is that the

teaching is frequently a monologue with a minimum participation - and very little creative activity - on the part of the pupils;

- the teachers usually come from the urban centres and they nearly all want to go back there. In those circumstances, the teacher is unlikely to have either the understanding or the enthusiasm for the rural areas and obviously will have difficulty to infuse in the students the value of productive activities in the countryside;

Given our preoccupation that the aid which Sweden gives to Guinea-Bissau should contribute to a balanced development in this country which presupposes the development of its rural areas, given also that the factors indicated above constitute an effective block to the development of an appropriate education in Guinea-Bissau, the SIDA delegation recommends that for the next period of cooperation the aid to be given to the education sector in Guinea-Bissau should be concentrated in the following sub-sectors:

- Basic Education (both Elementary and Complementary);
- Alphabetisation;
- Skill training for, and developing capabilities of, adults.

Specifically, Swedish aid should be designed so as:

In respect of improving the quality of teaching

- (1) to adapt the curricula to the local conditions and requirements (through GEOP, the manuals and teaching materials);
- (2) to train and upgrade teachers and animators, emphasising the agricultural sector, the

- introduction of a more dynamic and practical pedagogy which awakens the capacity and imagination of the students;
- (3) to stimulate the more qualified teachers to go to the countryside.

In respect of construction and maintenance

- (1) to support the programme of repair and maintenance of those schools, some of which are in a deplorable state;
- (2) to continue supporting the RECREE programme of Building Animators for rural schools and, specifically the training of more Animators and the construction of a limited number (say, 10) schools each year;
- (3) to support the construction of residences for teachers;
- (4) to support the extension of the logistic infrastructure of RECREE by helping with the maintenance and repair of the existing transport fleet.

Basic Education Materials

To continue supporting the acquisition of these materials.

Technical Assistance

- (1) to continue with technical assistance to the Department of Adult Education;
- (2) to provide short term technical assistance and training in educational planning.

Table 9.1  
POSSIBLE AREAS OF COOPERATION

| BASIC EDUCATION                         | ALPHABETISATION                  | SKILL TRAINING                    |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Curriculum development                  | Curriculum development           | Curriculum development            |
| Teaching materials                      | Teaching materials               | Teaching materials                |
| Teacher training                        | Training of animators            | Training of instructors           |
| Maintenance and construction of schools | Research into national languages | Infrastructure for mobile courses |
| Stimuli for teachers in rural areas     | Pilot projects                   | Links with zone 1-programme       |
|                                         | Technical assistance             |                                   |

Basic Educational Materials

Technical Assistance (in planning)

LIST OF MATERIAL CONSULTED

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The Education Division at SIDA initiates and implements a large number of studies regarding education and training, especially in SIDA's programme countries.

In order to make these studies more readily available, they will be published in a series called "Education Division documents". This series will also include earlier studies considered to be of current and general interest.

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