United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

International Institute
for Capacity Building
in Africa

Fundamentals of Teacher Education Development

2

Improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools across African countries

Segun Olugbenga Adedeji and Olanrewaju Olaniyan

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Addis Ababa, 2011

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About IICBA

Established in 1999, the UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa is one of six UNESCO institutes and centres under the administrative direction of the UNESCO Secretariat. As the only UNESCO Institute in Africa, it is mandated to strengthen the capacities of teacher education institutions of its 53 member States. This is carried out through a range of initiatives, including introducing information and communication technology for education; establishing networks of partner institutions to foster the sharing of experiences; undertaking research and development on teacher education institutions in Africa; utilising distance education for improving the capacities of teacher education institutions; linking educational development to economic development through collaboration with the African Union and sub-regional and regional educational institutions; and promoting international cooperation for the development of education through the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

Published in 2011 by UNESCO-IICBA
P.O.Box 2305, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
Layout and Graphic Design: Daniel Ergetachew,

Foreword

Progress in achieving the goals of Education for All programmes and the Millennium Development Goals is being slow because of lack of adequate supply of teachers, their effective deployment, a failed training system to equip them with the required skills and lack of efficient management and career structure that would result in well performing teachers. It is now well recognised that without good teachers we cannot have a good education system, and without a good education system no country can provide its citizens a quality life. Nowhere is this truer than in Africa where a majority of the people live in poverty and few have access to quality education. As a result, governments are increasingly becoming concerned with teacher development issues.

This booklet has emerged as a result of the efforts of UNESCO-IICBA to monitor the evolution and changes in government policies in Africa and their effect upon teacher education development requirements and to highlight current issues in teacher education development and management.

The booklets in the series are written for two types of clientele: those engaged in or preparing for teacher education planning and management in the region and elsewhere, and others less specialised, such as senior government officials and civic leaders who seek a more general understanding of teacher education development and how it can help in the over-all development of education. The publications are meant for either private study or in formal training programmes. Since readers may vary widely in their backgrounds, the authors are given the difficult task of introducing their subjects from the beginning, explaining technical terms that may be known to some but unknown to others. Yet, they are required to adhere to scholarly standards and never write down to their readers, who, except in some cases, are in no sense unsophisticated. This is necessary to make the booklets intelligible to the general reader.

In an academic exercise like this, IICBA does not attempt to avoid differences of opinion or even contradiction in the views expressed by the authors, and the authors are selected for their professional excellence and experience. Thus, while the views are the responsibility of the authors and may not always be

shared by UNESCO or IICBA, they warrant attention in the international and/or regional forum of ideas. Indeed, one of the purposes of this series is to reflect a diversity of experience and opinion by giving different authors from a wide range of backgrounds and disciplines the opportunity of expressing their views on different approaches to teacher education planning and management. The present booklet takes an important area of teacher education development by focusing on rural Africa where the problems are acute and deserve critical diagnosis and affordable strategies for their solution. The authors have made an effort in that direction.

In addition to the guidance and comments provided by members of the IICBA Governing Board for the series, very special thanks go to Bikas C Sanyal, the Lead Adviser and Chief Editor of the series, and second vice chair of IICBA's Board, for reviewing the manuscript and for providing editorial guidance.

IICBA also wants to place on record the efforts of Professor Joel Babalola of the Department of Educational Management and the current Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, for his invaluable contribution towards the reading and editing of the final output of the book, and to Patience Awopegba for editing and coordinating the entire work done and for providing logistic support towards the completion of the booklet.

Finally, I would like to thank the excellent contribution of the entire IICBA team of professionals and the support team towards the production of this booklet.

Arnaldo Nhavoto
Director, UNESCO-IICBA,
Addis Ababa

Preface

On 5 October 2010, the World Teachers' Day, the heads of UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, ILO and Education International noted that the world needed recovery from the crisis it was going through, and paid homage to the teachers of the world declaring that "Recovery begins with Teachers". Indeed, without teachers, no economic well being can take place. Teachers are the change agents providing the impetus for the emergence of educated communities, they noted. They also posited that nowhere in the world do teachers work in more challenging circumstances, serving communities with higher rates of poverty, confronting more demoralizing impact of HIV and AIDS on colleagues, students and families than in African rural areas.

IICBA therefore chose the topic of improving conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools across African countries within the framework of its programme of sharing experts' knowledge and experience in the subject through its series of "Fundamentals of Teacher Education Development" in Africa. The Institute was fortunate to have two distinguished educationists of the continent to work on the topic. The purpose was to diagnose in depth but in a popular way, the conditions of teaching in rural Africa, challenges facing education in rural Africa, and most importantly the authors propose a number of strategies for use of stake-holders in teacher education development in Africa in general and rural Africa in particular. The stake-holders, according to IICBA, are policy-makers, senior government officials of the Ministries of Education and those engaged in teacher education planning and management, in training and research. The authors were requested to put their thoughts and ideas in a non-specialised way.

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) will have increased its rural population from approximately 470 million in 2005 to 552 million in 2015, according to UNDP statistics cited by the authors. The sub-continent cannot ignore this large population the fruits of economic well-being, and that will not be possible without good education. Good teachers are essential for good education. However, the authors note that rural parents are not convinced of the quality and value of education, resulting in low student enrolment and high drop out.

There are over 100 million children in the world, working as child labourers in agriculture in rural areas where school facilities do not exist. Sub-Saharan Africa bears a significant share of them. The authors are rightly worried that countries in SSA face a serious challenge in not only enrolling rural children in schools. They have a more serious challenge in expanding the teaching force so as to be able to meet the EFA goals to achieve universal primary education by the target date originally fixed for 2015, and now varied between 2015 and 2020 depending upon the countries' capacity. They have identified nine factors contributing to this challenge among the countries. These are: lack of opportunities for teacher development and preparation; difficulties in recruiting qualified teachers and their deployment; lack of teachers' motivation; lack of skills in multi grade teaching, a common requirement in a rural African school; problem of classroom management and discipline among teachers; difficulties in curriculum structuring and planning; lack of skills in designing effective teaching strategies and teaching delivery, lack of skill among teachers to impart the innovative self-directed learning (SDL) skills among students and finally absence of initiatives among teachers to adopt different types of "peer tutoring" among students. Some of these factors, especially SDL and peer tutoring, if applied by the teachers, could be used as important strategies to improve education in the African rural context.

In addition to the challenge facing the African countries to meet the EFA goals, the authors identified several additional challenges in improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools. These are: problem of attracting and keeping qualified teachers in rural schools; poor funding in rural schools; poor quality of education in rural schools; poor teachers' status; lack of career opportunities; poor infrastructural facilities; poor monitoring of teachers' attitude, behaviour and performance in rural schools; administrative bottlenecks which make the teachers in rural schools feel neglected and treated unfairly by the authorities; inconsistent and incessant disruption of academic programmes caused by staff strikes and political disturbances, and finally the threat of HIV/AIDS among teachers and lack of adequate medical facilities for it in rural areas.

The authors do not stop identifying the challenges; they go forward to provide some strategies to face the challenges. These are: improving teachers' conditions of service through career and professional development opportunities, including skills for imparting SDL and peer tutoring techniques mentioned above; improving their subject knowledge through adequate training; linking teacher training to rural schools; providing incentive packages both monetary and non-monetary; encouraging community participation in rural schools; adapting curriculum to real life rural situations e.g., farming, fishing, animal husbandry etc.; special programmes in ICT for rural teachers; balancing

teacher demand with supply; offering cost-effective distance learning courses to keep rural teachers up to date through universities; introducing monitoring and evaluation of teachers in rural schools; arranging legislative provision for adequate financing for development of teachers and teaching in rural areas; establishing a data bank on status of rural teacher education with all relevant parameters and finally, encouraging partnership with relevant stake holders in education for rural areas e.g., institutions of teacher training, ministries of education and finance, non-governmental organisations, donor agencies, etc. emphasising that without qualified teachers and quality education in rural Africa, the majority of Africans will be deprived of quality life.

Improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools across African countries has become an imperative step. I hope the present booklet of IICBA will make a modest contribution in that direction. I would like to thank the authors for their contribution.

Bikas C Sanyal
General Editor of the series,
Assisted by Patience Awopegba,
Programme Specialist in Education Planning.

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List of acronyms

ADME	Adult and Mass Education
CoE	College of Education
CSACEFA	Civil Society Action Coalition for Education for All
EDB	Education Data Bank
EFA	Education for All
ESA	Education Sector Analysis
FCE	Federal College of Education
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
FOS	Federal Office of Statistics
IICBA	International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa
JAMB	Joint Admission and Matriculation Board
JCCE	Joint Consultative Committee on Education
JSS	Junior Secondary School
LGA	Local Government Area
LGEA	Local Government Education Authorities
NABTEB	National Business and Technical Examination Board
NCE	National Certificate of Education
NCCE	National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCNE	National Commission for Nomadic Education
NECO	National Examination Council
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
NERDC	Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council
NFE	Non Formal Education
NLN	National Library of Nigeria
NCME	National Commission for Mass Education
NPC	National Planning Commission
NTI	National Teachers Institute
NUT	Nigeria Union of Teachers
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
MoE	Ministry of Education
PRS	Planning, Research and Statistics

PTA	Parents Teachers Association
PTR	Pupil-Teacher ratio;
PQTR	Pupil–Qualified Teacher Ratio;
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SMoE	State Ministry of Education
SMoF	State Ministry of Finance
SPEB	State Primary Education Board
SUBEB	State Universal Basic Education Board
SSA	Sub Sahara Africa
TRCN	Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria
TLMs	Teaching and Learning Materials
TSS	Teachers Salary Structure
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisations
UNICEF	United Nations Children Education Fund
WAEC	West African Examinations Council

Chapter One

Educational situation in Africa

1.0 Introduction

Africa is arguably the least developed continent in the world. Although, many countries in the region have made progress in the last twenty years, majority of the countries in the region are still faced with considerable developmental challenges. There is increasing awareness that Africa will not be able to develop without adequate investment in people. Since majority of the people are extremely poor, one of the escape routes that have been advanced in the literature is adequate investment in human capital. While resources for human capital investment are inadequate in the region, inequality in the distribution of these resources poses an additional challenge. More often, there are inequalities along gender lines and between urban and rural divides with many governments focusing more on urban areas and less on rural areas. The development option requires that human capital development through schooling must be vigorously pursued so that the Education for All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on education could be achieved. Thus, this chapter discusses the general overview of educational situation in Africa with a view to showing the disparity between urban and rural schools.

1.1 Quality of education in Africa

Poor schooling has proved to be the greatest barrier to political, social and economic transformation in many African countries. According to current estimates, by the end of four to six years of primary education, 30 to 50 percent of primary school leavers cannot read or write confidently and lack basic numeracy skills. In Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries in particular, 18 percent of children, on the average, repeat a year of schooling as a result of poor quality of teaching. Poor quality of schooling is evident in many ways in the public school system, especially in the rural areas (Mulkeen, 2005); and is exhibited in the rate of absenteeism and the inability of children (primary school outputs) to read and write effectively (Adedeji and Bamidele, 2003).

Even if countries achieve full enrolment, the most important issue is for them to be able to complete a school cycle and acquire the skills necessary for development. This requires high quality teachers in all schools.

A high quality teacher is one who understands and demonstrates ability to address the content, character, challenges and complications of being a teacher. Every child deserves a caring, competent and qualified teacher. Research evidence has shown that the quality of teaching in our classrooms is the most important school-related factor in ensuring students' achievement (Greenwalls, 1996). This is why policy makers at all levels are focusing on teacher quality with emphasis on the issues of teacher recruitment, preparation, licensing and certification standards, as well as professional development.

However, in the last two decades, across the continent of Africa, there has been growing anxiety about the quality of teachers and teaching, particularly in the rural areas where approximately 70 percent of the African population reside. The shortage of qualified teachers and poor condition of teaching are the major factors affecting the quality of education offered in many public schools. Most Africans live in the rural areas; hence, achieving the internationally accepted goals of EFA and providing qualitative education to children who live in rural areas, must be paramount in the policy agenda of African governments.

Looking closely on the condition of teachers and teaching in African countries, it is apparent that teachers' fundamental role is not always valued or prized. The worth of teachers is very low, due to poor recognition given to the teaching profession as explained by various de-motivating factors. Teachers in many African countries are working in challenging conditions that are aggravated by poor remuneration; delay in payment of salaries, allowances and promotions; scarce teaching and learning resources; and disrespect from government, parents and the community at large. Teachers assert that poor teaching condition and decreasing level of motivation affect their performance in the classroom and reduce the ability of students to achieve satisfactory learning outcomes, thus reducing their capability to deliver quality education. Teachers feel ignored in the decision-making process and powerless in their efforts to improve the learning experience of their students, despite their desire and enthusiasm. Policy makers are also increasingly making more demands and expectations on teachers to carry out new initiatives in which they had neither been consulted nor are conversant with. This not only creates a feeling of ignorance from policy implementers but also presents many obstacles in the implementation of new plans. This apparently undermines the role of teachers in education reform process and underscores the need for an improved working condition of teachers across the continent of Africa.

Furthermore, at least one-third of the teachers in some African countries are either unqualified or without formal teaching qualification to cope with the demands of the growing school age population (Brown, 2003). This also raises questions about the capabilities of these teachers towards the realization of the basic education goals or the extent to which they can assist in reaching the EFA targets in Africa by 2015. Moreover, teachers in some rural schools, particularly in developing countries, spend a large proportion of their working hours in other income-generating activities such as farming, hunting, petty-trading and so on. Apart from the discipline problems created by these unwholesome practices in schools, where children remain unsupervised and disorderly, it also undermines the value of the learning process. To this end, this booklet explores ways of improving the condition of teachers and teaching in rural areas. It also analyses existing indicators and suggests which statistics could be used to assess the situation and improve the condition of teachers and teaching in schools in rural areas across the African continent. Teachers are the bedrock of the education system. They teach the children who in turn go on to fill all other professions; therefore they shape, to a very large extent, the future of a nation. However, teachers have not been able to play this important role, particularly those in the rural areas, due to factors affecting them and their condition of teaching. Thus, we present, in this booklet, the problems teachers are facing in rural areas and specify how these problems affect their performance professionally. We then suggest some strategies for improving the condition of teachers and teaching in rural schools. The booklet concludes with recommendations and future policy directions.

1.2 Objectives

The objective of this booklet is to identify the modality for improving the condition of teachers and teaching in rural areas across African countries with primary motive of enhancing rural schools' outcome. Specifically, the booklet aims to:

- Provide a working definition of a rural area in order to generate greater consensus among state and non-state agencies on how to promote more effective teaching and learning in rural areas;
- Show the major trends, gaps and challenges to quality of teachers and teaching in rural schools as compared with urban schools;
- Identify the challenges to teacher retention and utilization in rural schools;

- Initiate and support *critical discussion* on school effectiveness issues for rural areas through the provision of relevant statistics and indicators, which can be used to assess the teaching learning conditions in which teachers in rural schools have to work in comparison with their urban counterparts;
- Suggest strategies which can be adopted for improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools; and
- Contribute to the understanding of rural education in general by drawing on experiences from studies in Africa.

1.3 Concept of rural area

Although there may be a common understanding of what a rural area is, a universally accepted definition does not exist. Different countries have different perceptions of what rural means, thus making comparisons problematic. The most common approach is not to explicitly define the term rural at all. Nevertheless, rural areas, according to the UN Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), cited in Atchoarena and Sedel (2003), must meet two criteria: one relates to place of residence and land settlement patterns, and the other to the type of work that residents engage in. First, rural areas are generally open areas, with low settled population densities; and a high proportion of the unsettled land area used for primary production (agriculture, livestock, forestry, fisheries). Secondly, the residents of rural areas are largely dependent (directly or indirectly) on these primary production activities as their principal, if not their only source of livelihood. This merely defines rural in occupational terms, applying it to less technologically developed communities where the economy is simple, non-industrial and labour intensive. Another approach is to consider rural area in terms of the demographic composition, economic situation, the social structure and cultural background. In this context, rural area is simply defined on the basis of its characteristics (see Box 1)

Box 1: Characteristics of rural areas

Characteristics	Dimensions
Demographic	• Defining rural in demographic terms depicts it as an objective, numerical, physical attribute of a place or a population, referring only to where people live - not who they are or what they do, • It means sparse populations, either in the small total number of people who live there or in their low density (i.e., ratio of people to available space), • Geographically isolated, physically removed from other population areas and from major urban centres, • Located outside the political boundaries of an urban area. The issue is not population size or density, but location relative to official urban boundary designations. An area may have few people yet not be considered rural, because it is within urban or metropolitan boundaries.
Economic	• The economic meaning implies how the people in the area make a living, • There is a single common industry within the community in which most residents are engaged, resulting in a simple division of labour and a low degree of economic specialization, • Rural as an economic classification also may be defined by the functional simplicity of an area. It implies a lack of variety in the ways people make a living and a low degree of functional differentiation in the community's social structure, • It does not really mean a place where people tend to "live off the land" (i.e., are close to nature) and depend directly on the exploitation of natural resources.
Social structure	• Another common meaning of rural is derived from its social structure. This consideration reflects the distinctive character of social life and social order in rural communities, • It looks at the attributes of rural life in term of intimacy, informality, and homogeneity, • By virtue of the smaller numbers of people in rural settings, social connections are more immediate (face-to-face), more intense or primary (often based on kinship ties), and more complete (based on knowledge of personal biographies rather than formal role positions), • Because of the greater familiarity, rural social order is maintained through informal mechanisms of social control (based on kinship and personal acquaintance) rather than through formal mechanisms and legal institutions.
Cultural	• This component of the common meaning of rural refers to distinctive sets of attitudes, beliefs, values, knowledge systems, and behaviours that characterize the lives of people in rural areas. • This also pictures rural as traditional, slow to change, provincial, and fatalistic, • Rural culture has also been characterized as relatively intolerant of diversity and unaccepting of outsiders, • In short, rural is a worldview, a way of thinking that is different from that common among urban dwellers, • Viewing rural as a cultural phenomenon that goes beyond geographic or demographic conditions has much intuitive appeal. This is expressed in the common wisdom that "You can take the boy out of the country but you can't take the country out of the boy."

Source: Weisheit et al, (1995) and Morgan, et al. (2006)

While it may be conveniently consistent to operationally define rural in demographic, economic and social-structural terms, the cultural typology can complicate any systematic research. In short, rural from this standpoint, simply refers to ways of thinking that may differ reflecting localized context. It is then argued that each country necessarily will define rural according to its own set of criteria. This means that international comparisons, whilst not impossible, are not without difficulty. However, looking at African social and economic contexts, the common characteristics of rural populace are hunger and malnutrition, undernourished people, out-of-school children, illiterate youth and adults, extreme poverty, squalid surroundings, high infant mortality and low life expectancy. All these will continue to complicate development in Africa unless they are tackled.

To this end, a number of strategies for quality education in many Africa countries and the development of approaches and initiatives, which appear to be most promising in improving rural schooling and reducing poverty, were some of the major concerns of the participants of a World Bank organized workshop[1]. Their submissions, enriched by critical discussions, served to provide relevant information on the state of teaching in rural schools. This report draws on some of their themes as outlined below:

- Characteristics of rural schools: In many developing countries, one or more of the following factors often characterize rural schools: dispersed populations, displaced populations (following conflict), situations of ongoing conflict, nomadic populations, limited basic infrastructure, endemic malnutrition among children, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, and high levels of child labour in agriculture. The consequences of these factors for student learning are that schooling is an interrupted process. The demand for labour from school age children, their poor health, difficulties associated with getting to school and the limited benefits accrued from being at school all work against the demand for, and increase the obstacles to, schooling. The result is that children often attend school irregularly.

- Students' enrolment in rural schools: The conditions of schooling and the nature of students' lives in rural areas, in many developing countries, act to reduce students' readiness to learn. Long journeys on foot to school, students' poor nutrition, poor or non-existent sanitation at schools, opportunity cost

[1] This is a multi-agency working group meeting to test and expand the knowledge base, which informed the programme; and develop partnerships on Effective Schooling in Rural Africa. It was convened at the Copthorne Hotel, Surrey UK (29th May-2nd June 2000).

of sending children to school, uncomfortable and even harmful conditions within classrooms, all act to reduce students' enrolment and willingness to go to school.

- Quality of teaching in rural schools: Teaching is often of poor quality and is poorly supported. Isolated conditions in rural areas fail to attract high quality teachers. This situation is made worse by the fact that poor infrastructure obstructs support from advisory agencies. Not only are teachers served less by support services, they often have fewer print and other teaching resources.

- Formal schooling often fails to connect with the needs of rural communities: The curriculum often has little relevance to rural life, community involvement is mixed, and low levels of literacy in the community, combined with traditional attitudes and practices, provide little support for the learning that students receive in school. Furthermore, formal schooling is sometimes at odds with prevailing religious or cultural practices in many rural areas.

In many developing countries of the world, rural areas are the most populous (see Table 1.1) and are the most neglected region in the provision of basic amenities such as good roads, primary and affordable health care, electricity supply, potable water, well-equipped schools and other essential infrastructural facilities. According to FAO/UNESCO (2002), more than half of the world's population and more than 70% of the world's poor are in rural areas where hunger, illiteracy and low school achievement are commonplace. Education for a large number of people in rural areas is crucial to achieve sustainable development. Poverty reduction strategies are now placing emphasis on rural development that encompasses all those who live in rural areas. Such strategies need to address the provision of education for many target groups: children, youth and adults while giving priority to gender imbalances. This complex and urgent challenge should be addressed systematically, through an intricate set of policy measures, at all levels of the education system, with emphasis on rural communities, where, as indicated in Table 1.1, a large percent of people in SSA reside.

Table 1.1: Rural population trends by region and development

	(millions)			Rural Population (%)			Poulation	
	1975	2005	2015	1975	2005	2015	2005	2015
Sub Saharan Africa	314.1	722.7	913.2	78.8	65.1	60.4	43.6	41.7
Arab States	144.4	313.9	380.4	58.2	44.9	41.2	35.2	32.1
South Asia	835.4	1587.4	1842.2	78.8	49.8	66.2	33.6	29.5
Latin America and Caribbean	323.9	556.6	626.5	38.9	22.7	19.4	29.8	26.3
East Asia and Pacific	1312.3	1960.6	2111.2	79.5	57.2	48.9	23.8	20.6
Developing Countries	2972	5215	5956	73.5	57.3	52.1	30.9	28
Developed Countries	928	1172	1237.3	33.1	24.4	21.8	19.4	17.8

Source: UNDP, 2008[2]

According to Atchoarena and Sedel (2003), it is estimated that for the next two decades, the majority of the population living in developing countries will continue to be rural. This is particularly the case for the least developed countries where the people living in rural areas will still represent over 55 per cent of the total population in 2030. In other words, during this period, the development challenge will continue to be related to trends and conditions in rural areas. Consequently, achieving EFA targets by the year 2015 will require particular emphasis on rural areas.

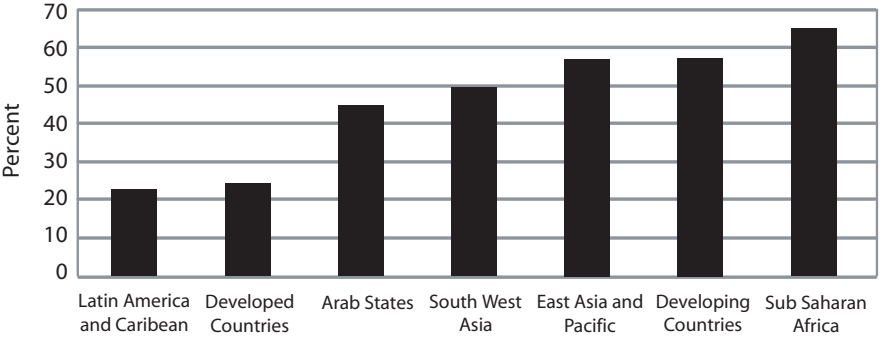
Rapidly changing technologies and increasing globalization also suggest that better education and training have become essential for sustainable livelihoods and competitiveness of rural economies. In 1995, the former South African President - Nelson Mandela - said that the rural people bear the largest burden of poverty in Africa[3]. According to him, "if we can change the inequalities and inefficiencies of the past; rural areas can become productive and sustainable". By making rural areas attractive, we can lay to rest, once

[2] Compiled from Table 5, Demographic trends, page 243 – 246; Human Development Report 2007/2008. Fighting climate change: Human solidarity in divided world. Retrieved 25 October, 2009 http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_EN_Complete.pdf

[3] Forward presented by President Nelson Mandela in Pretoria, 12 October 1995 for Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity.

and for all, the problems posed by uncontrolled urban growth caused by an ill-advised rural urban migration and all its attendant social and economic challenges linked with family dislocations, which is plaguing African countries. The overall population increase experienced during 1960 to 2000 led to a considerable growth in the size of the rural population from 2 billion in 1960 to 3.2 billion in 2000. This expansion was mainly due to rural demographic expansion in the less developed regions. Of all the regions, the proportion of rural population is highest in Sub Saharan Africa and it will be about thrice the proportion of that in developed countries by 2015 (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Proportion of rural population by region and development (2005)



Calculated from Table 5 in appendix of UNDP (2008) data

1.4 Justification for rural education

Education is a key investment in any country with enormous social and economic benefits accruing from it. The development of any country in the 21st century will be determined by the level and growth of its human capital which investment in education forms a major component. It is therefore important that every child, whether in rural or urban community, equally benefits from quality basic education in order to promote accelerated development in African countries. Most of the international development agenda has reiterated this in their plans and goals. For example, Education for All (EFA) was agreed on by representatives of the international community (155 countries, as well as representatives from 150 organizations) to "universalize primary education and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the 1990s". In 2000, ten years later, the international community took stock of many countries and the result

was that many were far from reaching the six key measurable education goals which intend to meet the learning needs of all children, youth and adults by 2015[4].

Education and training should be at the forefront of the rural development agenda in order to fight the prevalence of extreme poverty and hunger in rural areas, break the poverty-induced cycle of rural life, ensure sustainable agriculture and build the human capacity needed for rural development.

Presently, the quality of education offered to children in many rural schools is poor. Thus, many parents are unwilling to invest in their children's education because they are not convinced of its quality and value. Consequently, in many rural schools across the continent of Africa, low student enrolment and high dropout are widespread.

FAO and UNESCO are building a new partnership to support education for rural people so as to ensure the realization of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG)s; *inter alia,* eradication of poverty and hunger; and realization of universal basic education by 2015. The partnership, launched at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg on September 3, 2002, is a new flagship for a worldwide initiative on Education for All (EFA). This is an attempt to forge a collaborative effort to increase coordination among partner organizations in targeting the educational needs of rural people. These activities will result in an increased commitment in favour of better education for rural people within the overall effort towards poverty reduction and EFA strategies.

A 2007 UNESCO and UNICEF report addressed the issue of education from a rights-based approach. Three interrelated rights were specified and must be addressed in an unfolding manner in order to provide education for all:

- The right of access to education - Education must be available for, accessible to and inclusive of all children.
- The right to quality education - Education needs to be child-centred, relevant and embrace a broad curriculum, and be appropriately resourced and monitored.
- The right to respect within the learning environment - Education must be provided in a way that is consistent with human rights, equal respect for culture, religion and language and free from all forms of violence.

[4] The six goals aspire to: expand early childhood care and education; provide free and compulsory primary education for all; promote learning and life skills for young people and adults; increase adult literacy by 50 per cent; achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015; and finally improve the quality of education.

Beyond the basic need for education to support oneself and family in later years, many social ills occur in the absence of free and accessible education. A UNESCO report underscores the link between education and child labour in their 2008 EFA Global Monitoring Report[5]. According to the report, drawing from ILO (2006) report[6], there were around 218 million child labourers in 2004, of whom 166 million were aged between 5 and 14. In this younger age group, around 74 million were engaged in hazardous work and over 100 million children work in agriculture in rural areas where access to schools, availability of trained teachers and educational supplies are severely limited[7]. Though the education gap runs much deeper than a rural-urban divide, even in urban areas, poor and marginalized children are unable to benefit from greater access to school facilities because of cost, taste and culture.

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[5] UNESCO, 2008 Global Monitoring Report. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0017/001776/177683e.pdf Retrieved 25 October, 2009.

[6] ILO. 2006. Report of the Director-General. The End of Child Labour: Within Reach, Global Report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. Report (B), International Labour Conference, 95th Session 2006, Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Organization.

[7] Child labour refers to work that is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous, that harms children and that interferes with their schooling by depriving them of the opportunity to attend school, obliging them to leave school prematurely or requiring them to try to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work hours.

Chapter Two

Economic condition of some selected African countries

2.0 Introduction

Despite the strenuous efforts by many African governments to achieve a nine-year compulsory education programme, drop-out rate among rural students remains very high. For instance, most of the dropouts in primary schools in the continent of Africa are from rural areas. Governments, which have the responsibility for the administration of compulsory education in rural areas, tend to default on educational spending due to their financial predicament. To this end, this chapter presents the economic condition of some African countries and investigates its implications on educational development within the continent.

2.1 Economic situation in Africa

As revealed by EFA (2009), enrolment in Sub-Saharan Africa increased significantly at all education levels between 1999 and 2006. Yet, a good many of the countries in the region remain far from achieving EFA goals due to poor budgetary allocation to education. Therefore, improving the quality of education and what children are learning in school remain an enormous challenge. In fact, results from SACMEQ II indicate that fewer than 25% of grade six children reached the 'desirable' level of reading literacy in Botswana, Kenya, South Africa and Swaziland, and fewer than 10% in Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Uganda and Zambia. In addition, EFA (2009) reveals that more than 2.5 million teachers worked in primary education institutions in SSA in 2006, representing an increase of 29% since 1999. This increase is lower than what obtained in the secondary schools where the number of teachers increased by 42%. Despite these increases, there is still a shortage

of 1.6 million primary teachers which can increase to 3.8 million by 2015 if teacher retirements are taken into consideration. All these call for an increased budgetary allocation to education. However, following a string of political and economic shocks in many African countries, the resources allocated to the education sector started declining and as a result, urban-rural disparities in terms of funding, students' enrolment and educational outcomes started to increase.

The economic condition of Africa reveals that it is below the average world performance. The average per capita income of all the countries in the region in 2005 was $845 which is less than half of the average per capita income of developing countries which stood at $1,939 (Table 2.1). This is a reflection of the low total output of the region which was put at US$ 589.9 billion in 2005, an amount that is less than a fifth of developing countries' average. In fact, the total SSA GDP is less than a quarter of GDP of some European countries such as Germany or France. The SSA GDP is also less than GDP of individual developing countries such as Mexico and Brazil with US$768.4 billion and US$ 796.1 billion respectively (UNDP, 2008). It is therefore not surprising that most of the SSA countries are rated as low human development countries by UNDP in 2008. The low level is an offshoot of the low level human capital status in the region as many countries lack capabilities in terms of health and education and access to basic infrastructure. Most of the countries are thus locked in poverty. The UNDP ranking of Human Poverty Index (HPI) reveals that out of 138 developing countries, no SSA country is in the top 44 countries and only one country out of the last 22 countries is not from SSA.

Despite this, population continues to grow rapidly and estimates indicate that the population for the region will grow by 2.3 percent between 2005 and 2015 which is the highest for any region. This has implications for education of the children as well as for the availability and training of human resources for education. The high population can either be a blessing or curse depending on the investment that is made on the people. The people represent a hidden potential but they must be educated and they cannot be educated in the absence of adequate funding and good quality teachers.

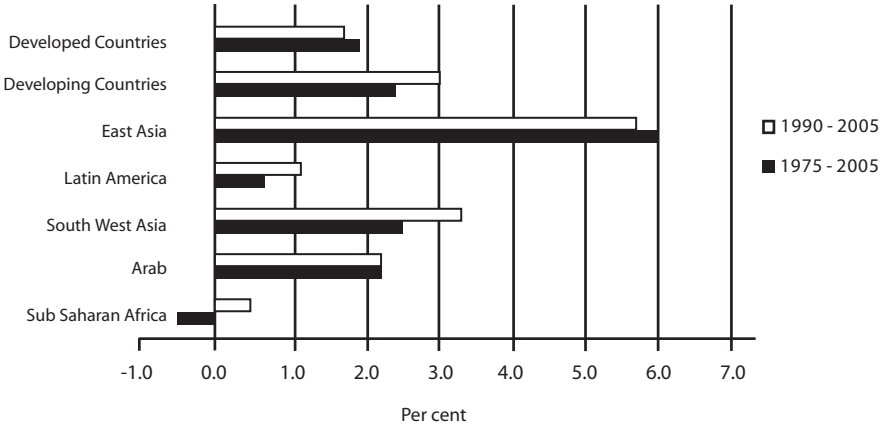
Table 2.1: GDP and Per Capita GDP in selected African countries

	GDP (Billion US Dollars)	GDP (Billion PPP US Dollars)	GDP Per capita US$	GDP Per capita 2005 PPP US$	Annual growth rate 1975-2005	Annual growth rate 1990-2005
	2005	2005	2005			
Kenya	18.7	42.5	547.0	1240.0	0.1	-0.1
Uganda	8.7	41.9	303.0	1454.0	2.4	3.2
Tanzania	12.1	28.5	316.0	744.0	1.4	1.7
Cameroun	16.9	37.5	1034.0	2299.0	-0.4	0.6
Nigeria	99.0	148.3	752.0	1128.0	-0.1	0.8
Cote d'Ivoire	16.3	29.9	900.0	1648.0	-2.1	-0.5
Senegal	8.2	20.9	707.0	1792.0		1.2
South Africa	239.5	520.9	5109.0	11110.0	-0.3	0.6
Mozambique	6.6	24.6	335.0	1242.0	2.3	4.3
Malawi	2.1	8.6	161.0	667.0	-0.2	1.0
Lesotho	1.5	6.0	808.0	3335.0	2.7	2.3
Developing countries	9812.5	26732.3	1939.0	5282.0	2.5	3.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	589.9	1395.6	845.0	1998.0	-0.5	0.5

Source: UNDP (2008)[8]

[8] Compiled from Table 14, Economic performance, page 278; Human Development Report 2007/2008. Fighting climate change: Human solidarity in divided world, Retrieved 25 October, 2009 http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_EN_Complete.pdf

Figure 2.1: Growth rates of Per Capita GDP



Source: UNDP (2008)[9]

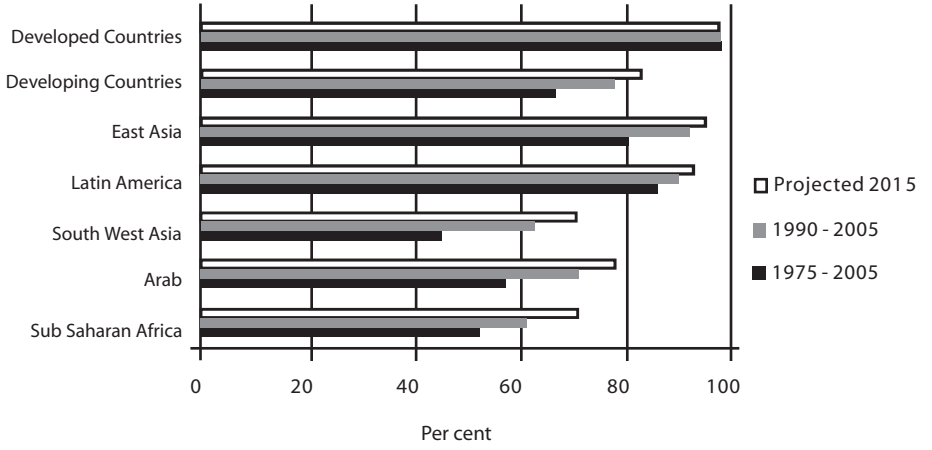
2.2: Education and literacy rates in Africa

Education in Africa lags behind education status in other regions of the world. Despite the low status in individual regions, wide disparities also exist between urban and rural areas in the countries of Africa.

There are indications that literacy rate has increased over the years all over the world including in African countries. Adult literacy in SSA, which was 54 percent from 1985 to 1994 increased to 62 percent between 2000 and 2006. It is projected to increase even further to 72 percent by year 2015. Despite this increase, African literacy rate still ranked low when compared with the other regions of the world (Figures 2.2 and 2.3). Although both African and South West Asian regions are at about the same level of youth literacy, projections have indicated that by 2015 Africa will be lagging behind the South West Asia region. In addition to this broad indicator, literacy rates vary widely among the countries in the region. While South Africa has been able to attain 82 percent adult literacy, Mozambique and Senegal still have literacy rates that are less than 40 percent (Table 2.2).

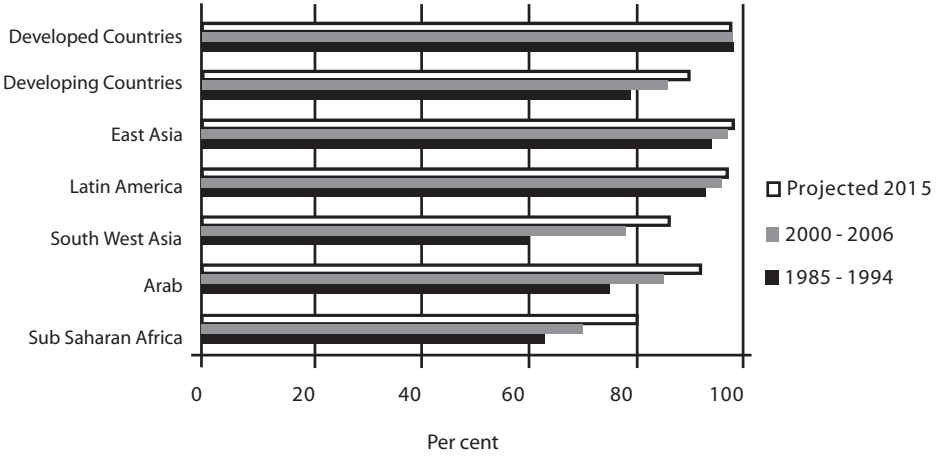
[9] The economic condition of Sub Saharan Africa, according to this report, reveals that it is below the average world performance. The annual growth rate in the region, between 1975 and 2005, is - 0.5 as indicated by the double line in Figure 2.1

Figure 2.2: Adult literacy rate (15 years and older)



Source: Statistical annex of UNESCO (2009)

Figure 2.3: Youth literacy rates



Source: Statistical annex of UNESCO (2009)

Table 2.2: Adult and youth literacy rates in Africa

	Adult literacy rate (% aged 15 and older)		Youth literacy rate (% aged 15-24)	
	1985-1994	1995-2005	1985-1994	1995-2005
Kenya	..	73.6	..	80.3
Uganda	56.1	69.8	69.8	76.6
Tanzania	59.1	69.4	81.8	78.4
Cameroun	..	67.9	..	..
Nigeria	55.4	69.1	71.2	84.2
Cote d'Ivoire	34.1	48.7	48.5	60.7
Senegal	26.9	39.3	37.9	49.1
South Africa	..	82.4	..	93.9
Mozambique	..	38.7	..	47
Malawi	48.5	64.1	59	76
Lesotho	..	82.2	..	..
Developing Countries	68.2	77.1	80.2	85.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	54.2	59.3	64.4	71.2

Source: Table 12 in appendix of UNDP (2008) data[10]

2.3 Gross enrolment rates

Many African governments have over the years pursued vigorously the policy of enrolment increase in order to promote industrial development and increase the skills and health of their people. By 1982, according to World Bank data, the gross enrolment ratio for primary education across SSA had risen steadily. In SSA, 23 million children attended school in 2006, whilst this figure was 16 million in 1999. In the region, primary enrolment rates increased from 43.2 percent in 1960 to 94 percent in 2006 (Table 2.3). However, with increasing enrolment rates, government resources alone may not suffice to pay both for the expansion of education systems and for improvement in educational quality.

[10] Compiled from Table 12, Literacy and Enrolment, page 269; Human Development Report 2007/2008. Fighting climate change: Human solidarity in divided world. Retrieved 25 October, 2009 http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_EN_Complete.pdf

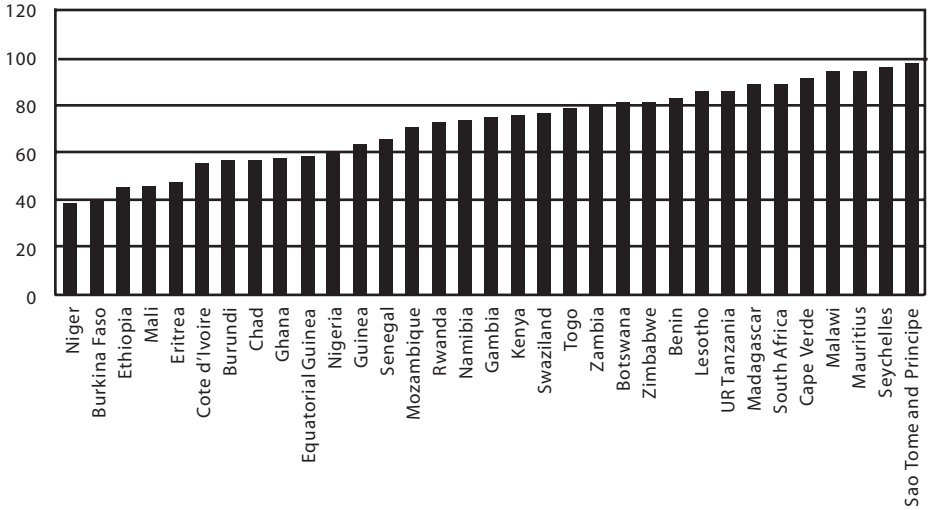
Table 2.3: Enrolment rates in sub saharan Africa, 1960-2006

		1960	1970	1980	1990	1997	2006
Primary	Total	43.2	53	79.5	74.8	76.8	94.0
	Female	32	43	70.2	67.6	69.4	
	Male	54.4	62.3	88.7	81.9	84.1	
	female as share of total	37	41	44	45	45	
Secondary	Total	3.1	7.1	17.5	22.4	26.2	32.0
	Male	2	4.6	12.8	19.2	23.3	
	Female	4.2	9.6	22.2	25.5	29.1	28.0
	female as share of total	32	33	36	43	44	
Tertiary	Total	0.2	0.8	1.7	3	3.9	5.0
	Male	0.1	0.3	0.7	1.9	2.8	
	Female	0.4	1.3	2.7	4.1	5.1	4.0
	female as share of total	20	20	22	32	35	

Source: World Bank (2000) and Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

There are however variations in enrolment rates across the region. Some countries, such as Niger and Mali, are still struggling with primary school net enrolment of less than 50 percent despite the fact that countries such as Malawi, Mauritius and Seychelles are already having close to 100 percent net enrolment rates at the primary level (Fig. 2.4).

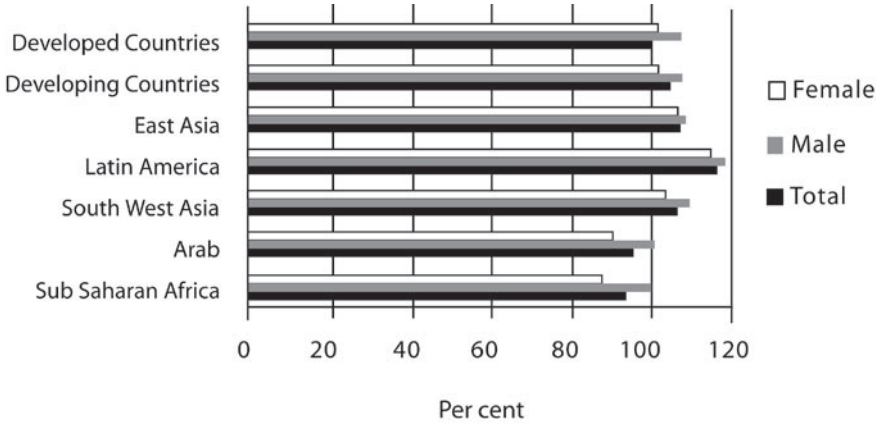
Figure 2.4: Primary school net enrolment rates, 2004



Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009). In spite of the improvements experienced by the SSA region, the region still has least performance in enrolment rates at the primary and secondary levels of education as at 2006 (Figures 2.4 and 2.5).

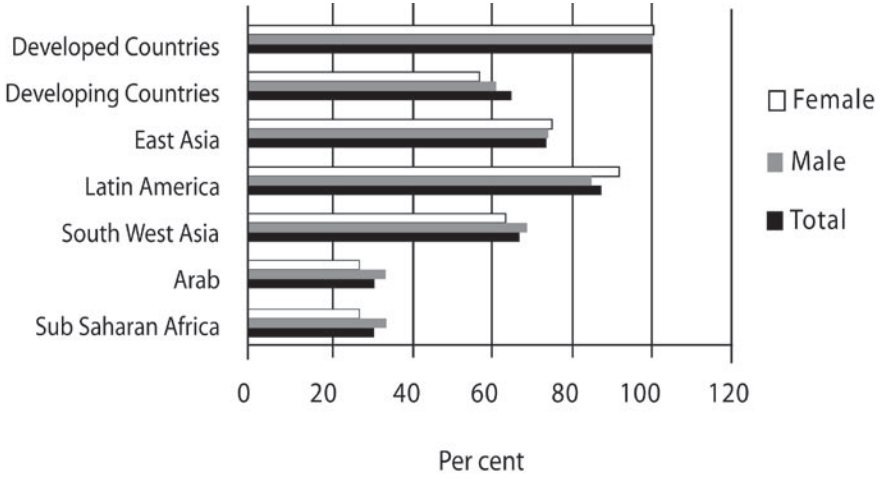
Considering the gross enrolment ratio among different regions of the world, SSA only compares with Arab countries with less than 100% gross enrolment ratio in primary school (Fig. 2.5a). In the same vein, SSA countries also lag behind in secondary school gross enrolment ratio across different regions of the world (Fig. 2.5b).

Figure 2.5a: Primary schools gross enrolment rates across region



Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

Figure 2.5b: Secondary schools grross enrolment rates across regions



Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

2.4 Government expenditure on education

The commitment of funds into education in SSA region has increased over the years. Table 2.4 shows an increase in the proportion of education expenditure in relation to total government expenditure. For example, the percentage of education expenditure out of total government expenditure for Kenya and Malawi increased from 17 percent and 11.1 percent in 1991 to 29.2 and 24.6 percent in 2002-2005 respectively. Most other African countries have also witnessed increase in the proportion of government spending on education.

Table 2.4: Public expenditure on education

	Public expenditure on education as % of GDP		Public expenditure on education as a % of total government expenditure	
	1991	2002-05	1991	2002-05
Kenya	6.7	6.7	17	29.2
Uganda	1.5	5.2	11.5	18.3
Tanzania	2.8	2.2	11.4	..
Cameroun	3.2	1.8	19.6	8.6
Nigeria	0.9	..	..	..
Cote d'Ivoire	..	4.6	..	21.5
Senegal	3.9	5.4	26.9	18.9
South Africa	5.9	5.4	..	17.9
Mozambique	..	3.7	..	19.5
Malawi	3.2	5.8	11.1	24.6
Lesotho	6.2	13.4	12.2	29.8

Source: Table 11 in appendix of UNDP (2008)[11]

Although there were increases in the expenditure profiles, in some cases across the region, it is observed that there are gross under funding when one compares government allocation to education with UNESCO recommendation. In the case of Nigeria, the proportion of funds devoted to education was far lower than the 26 percent of government expenditure recommended by UNESCO, which illustrates the government's poor commitment to the development of education

[11] Compiled from Table 11 in the Human Development Report 2007/2008. Fighting Climate Change: Human Solidarity in Divided World. Retrieved 25 October, 2009, http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_EN_Complete.pdf

and explains, in part, the very slow progress that has been made in this sector since 1990 (Adenuga, 2003). It was only in 1995 that the Nigerian government spent up to 10 percent of the total Federal Government expenditure on education (Table 2.5). The total government expenditure was slightly above 121 billion Naira[12] that year and the education share as percentage of government spending was higher than other periods. Indeed, when focusing on rural education alone, the situation is very bad because of poor funding and dilapidated infrastructure, which have undermined the quality of schooling in this area. To improve the standard of education provided in rural areas, therefore, adequate funds must be provided in order to increase the efficiency of rural schools and improve the working condition of teachers and raise the quality of teaching in this area.

Table 2.5: Expe``` +0nditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure (₦ Million) in Nigeria

Years	Total Govt. Expenditure	Expenditure on Education	Exp. as % of Govt. Exp.
1991	66,584.4	1,553.3	2.3
1992	39,763.3	2,414.2	6.1
1993	97,079.4	7,029.7	7.2
1994	120,462.9	5,654.3	4.7
1995	121,138.3	12,172.8	10.0
1996	337,217.6	14,882.7	4.4
1997	428,215.2	16,791.3	3.9
1998	487,113.4	24,614.1	5.1
1999	947,690.0	31,563.8	3.3
2000	701,059.4	49,563.2	7.1
2002	1,188,734.60	109,455.20	9.2
2003	1,225,956.70	79,436.10	6.5
2004	1,384,001.30	85,580.80	6.2
2005	1,743,240.00	114,737.90	6.6
2006	1,842,587.70	151,723.50	8.2

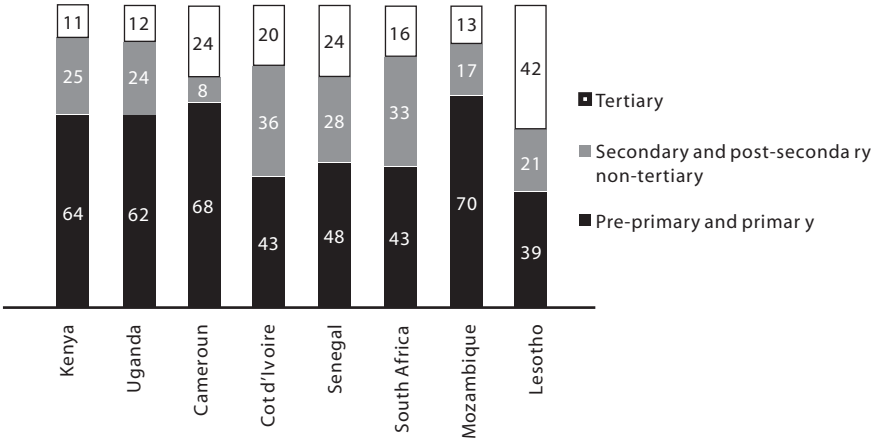
Sources: Data for years 1990-2000 is from Adenuga (2003) and years 2002-2006 is from NBS, (2007) Abstract of Statistics, Abuja: NBS

[12] Nigerian currency

There are also differences in the allocation of the expenditure to different levels of education.

Some studies express the notion that the commitment of government should be more focused on universal and basic education if the commitment of Sub-Saharan countries to EFA goals and MDGs are to be attained. Notably, apart from countries such as Mozambique, Kenya, Cameroun and Uganda that spent more than 60 percent of their expenditure on pre- primary and primary education, other countries such as Cote d'Ivoire, South Africa and Lesotho allocated less than half of their education spending to this level of education.

Figure 2.6: Proportion of current education spending by level

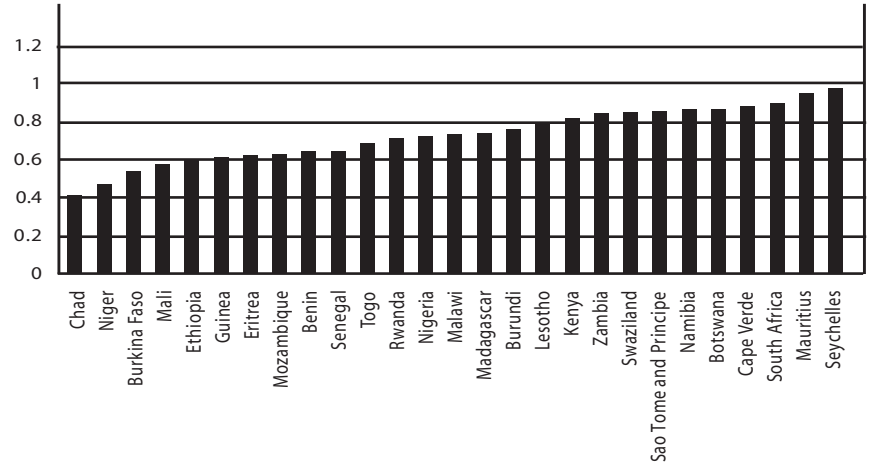


Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

2.5 Educational performance and condition of teachers in SSA

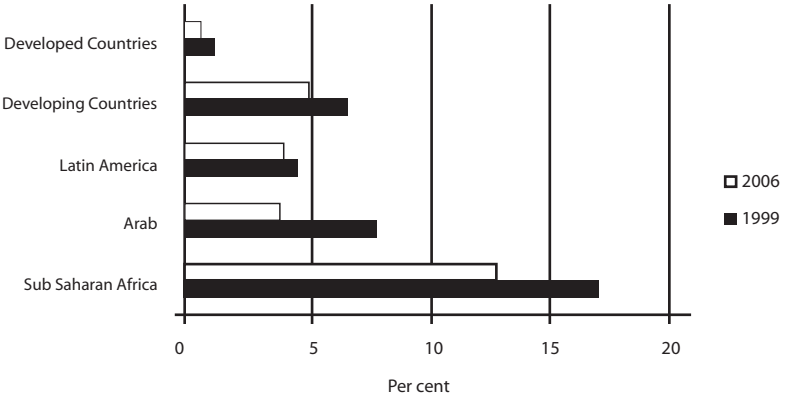
One of the ways to measure the performance of education is the achievement of EFA goals. The EFA index reveals that only one country was close to achieving EFA goals in 2006. The country is Seychelles, with an index of 0.97 while at least 17 countries for which data was available were far from achieving the goals. They had EFA index of below 0.8 (see Figure 2.6). This performance reflects internal inefficiency in the education system of most of the countries. Poor quality is often a reflection of the system of education or teaching inadequacy. Although the proportion of repeaters in primary schools declined from 17 percent in 1999 to 13 per cent in 2006, it is still very high when compared with other regions of the world as well as the average of 5.3 percent for the developing countries, and 0.7 percent in the developed countries (Figure 2.7).

Figure 2.7: EFA Development Index, 2006



Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

Figure 2.8: Proportion of primary school repeaters by regions



Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

In addition to the high repetition rates, increasing the completion rate in primary education poses a real challenge to the region. The performances registered in enrolment rates have not been accompanied by a sufficient increase in primary completion rates. Table 2.6 reveals that in Sub-Saharan Africa, about

36 percent of children enrolled in schools do not complete the primary cycle (versus average of 19 and 2 percent for developing and developed countries respectively). This indicates that countries in SSA face the greatest challenges on the path to reaching the MDGs of universal primary education and gender parity. There are, however, disparities in the performance of this indicator among African countries as reflected by Table 2.7.

Table 2.6: Survival to last grade in primary schools by 2005

	Total	Male	Female
Sub Saharan Africa	67	71	62
Arab	92	71	62
South West Asia	73	73	73
Latin America	85	84	86
East Asia	-	-	-
Developing Countries	81	79	83
Developed Countries	98	98	98

Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

Table 2.7: Children reaching grade 5 (% of Grade 1 Students)

	1991	2004
Kenya	77	83
Uganda	36	49
Tanzania	81	84
Cameroun	..	64
Nigeria	89	73
Cote d'Ivoire	73	88
Senegal	85	73
South Africa	..	82
Mozambique	34	62
Malawi	64	42
Lesotho	66	73

Source: Table 12 in appendix of UNDP (2008)[13]

[13] Compiled from Table 12 in the Human Development Report 2007/2008. Fighting climate change: Human solidarity in divided world. Nigerian currency Retrieved 25 October, 2009: http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_20072008_EN_Complete.pdf

Despite the fact that primary school pupil completion rate is less than 36 percent, there is still a low transition rate from primary to secondary schools. Table 2.8 reveals that in SSA, only 23 percent of those who complete primary schools proceed to secondary school and it is the lowest of all the regions, compared to 62 percent and 93 percent for Arab and Latin American regions respectively.

Table 2.8: Transition rates from primary to secondary, 2005

	Total	Male	Female
Sub Saharan Africa	23	23	22
Arab	62	66	57
South West Asia	92	90	93
Latin America	93		
Developing Countries	88	93	83
Developed Countries	99		

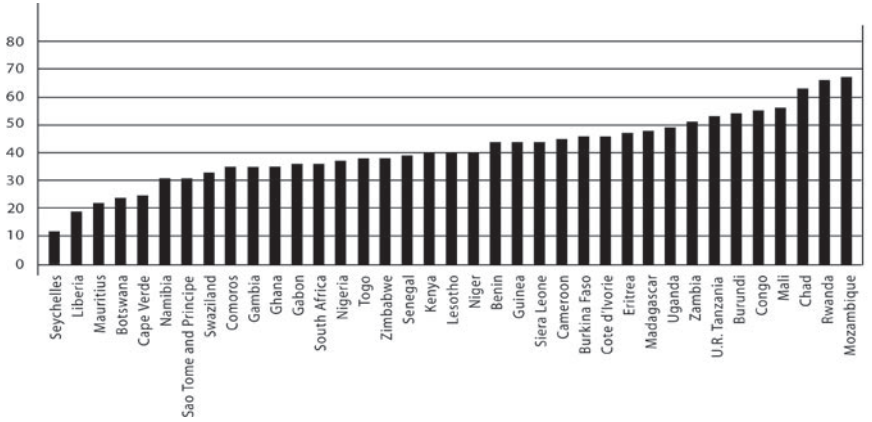
Source: Statistical Annex of UNESCO (2009)

2.6 Pupil/teacher ratio across African countries

The number of teachers relative to students in Africa is generally very low. More than 60 percent of SSA countries have more than 40 pupils per teacher. In fact, Figure 2.8 shows that some countries such as Chad, Rwanda and Mozambique have ratios exceeding 60:1. In situations where some countries have ratios less than 40:1 it has been found that there is a wide disparity within such countries. For example, in Nigeria, the ratio is much higher in the northern region than the southern region of the country, although this is in favour of male students as against their female counterparts (KSEA[14], 2006). This is also revealed in the average African ratio which is higher than 40:1.

[14] Kano State Education Accounts, 2005/2006

Figure 2.9: Pupil teacher ratio in primary schools, 2006



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2006).

The condition in Figure 2.8 portrays a hampering effort to providing adequate education to citizens. Teacher shortages are more severe in African countries, and collectively, they will need to raise their stock of teachers from 2.4 million in 2006 to 4 million, so that every child will have to be covered by adequate numbers of teachers.

Table 2.9 shows the differences between teacher stocks and flows[15]. Burkina Faso will need more than three times the number of teachers they have in 2004 by the year 2015, from 23,000 to 77,000. This means that the country will need to increase the number of teachers by at least 13 percent for it is to be able to meet the required number of teachers (UNESCO, 2006). Also, as revealed by Table 2.9, countries such as Congo, Chad and Niger are in severe teacher shortages. In absolute values, countries like Ethiopia, Nigeria and Uganda will need to create the highest number of teaching places in their respective countries. UNESCO (2006) data reveals that 153,000, 127,000 and 92,000 teaching posts should be filled by Ethiopia, Nigeria and Uganda respectively in order to successfully implement the universal primary education (UPE) programmes. In contrast, countries such as Gabon, Lesotho, Botswana and Mauritius may not need to expand their teacher stock.

[15] The projected stock refers to the total number of teachers needed in the classrooms by 2015 for universal primary education.

Table 2.9: Primary teacher stocks, flows and additional teachers needed to reach UPE by 2015 (in Thousands)

Country or territory	Primary teacher stocks			Primary teacher flows 2004-2015	
	2004	2015	Difference	Teachers to fill vacancies due to attrition (6.5%)	Total number of teachers needed for UPE and attrition
Benin	26	49	23.7	25.1	48.8
Botswana	13	11	-2	6.4	6.4
Burkina Faso	23	77	53.1	30.4	83.5
Burundi	19	46	27	20.9	47.9
Cameroon	55	78	22.7	46.4	69.1
Cape Verde	3	3	0.3	2.4	2.7
Chad	16	61	45	22.8	67.8
Comoros	3	5	2	2.7	4.8
Congo	7	26	19.3	9.9	29.2
Eritrea	8	22	13.7	9.4	23.1
Ethiopia	111	263	152.5	116.4	268.9
Gabon	8	7	-0.5	4.9	4.9
Gambia	5	8	3.1	4.3	7.4
Ghana	89	115	25.4	70.8	96.2
Guinea	25	48	22.8	24.7	47.5
Kenya	150	191	41.6	120.1	161.7
Lesotho	10	8	-1.8	4.6	4.6
Madagascar	64	90	25.3	53.7	79
Malawi	41	75	34.1	38.9	73
Mali	27	82	55.4	33.5	89
Mauritius	5	5	-0.2	3.5	3.5
Mozambique	55	121	66.2	57.6	123.8
Niger	22	83	60.3	31.1	91.4
Nigeria	580	706	126.5	454.2	580.7
Rwanda	28	46	18.1	25.6	43.7
Sao Tome and Principe	1	1	0	0.7	0.7
Senegal	32	57	25.1	30.2	55.2
Togo	22	34	11.9	19.4	31.3
Uganda	147	239	92.1	132.6	224.7
United Republic of Tanzania	135	204	68.9	114.8	183.7
Zambia	46	68	21.5	39.7	61.2

Notes: The projected teacher stock for 2015 is based upon the estimated primary school-age population in 2015.

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (Teachers supply and demand in Sub-Saharan Africa: Retrieved 25 October 2009. www.uis.unesco.org/publications/teachers 2006

2.7 Teachers' classroom management in rural schools

While literature has sufficiently emphasised the importance of teachers' motivation and pedagogic practices, their classroom management remains a relevant and common indicator of student achievement, especially in developing countries. Although research evidence has successfully proved that the quantity and quality of teachers provide the opportunity to reach international goals on education, it is, however, found that only effectiveness in actual management of teaching and learning process can deliver the EFA goals by 2015. Quality education produces good learning outcomes – and the initial training and preparation of teachers contribute to this. It is also important to assess the distribution of quality from an equity perspective to ensure that well-trained teachers are found across diverse schools and regions. As shown in Table 2.9, some countries will face a serious challenge in expanding the teaching force to meet the goal of UPE. Many factors could be attributed to this, which the following section will attempt to assess.

2.7.1 Teacher development and preparation

Teacher quality encompasses a range of skills, competencies and motivation. Specific training is required in order to expect quality services from a teacher or any other skilled professional. Data on training levels are one of the few indicators, systematically collected about teachers. For instance, Grade II, National Certificate of Education (NCE) and Bachelor degree in education are required in Nigeria before anybody can be qualified to teach at the primary, junior and senior secondary schools, respectively. This highlights the need for better measures of teacher quality that can be used to compare countries. In short, many countries face choices in order to expand educational opportunity and improve the quality of educational provision. Thus, the pursuit of quality education in the rural areas places enormous stress on already burdened education systems in Africa. Therefore, preparing, recruiting and supporting enough teachers who will provide quality learning in rural as well as urban schools can be particularly challenging. To meet this challenge, there is a need to develop, promote and expand innovative methods for training teachers and administrators to improve the quality of teaching and learning for millions of African children, particularly in the rural communities. Consequently, there must be opportunities for teachers in rural schools to upgrade their skills through pre-service and in-service training programmes.

The purpose of teacher development and preparation should be to build student teachers' general education and personal culture; their ability to educate others; an awareness of the principles which underlie good human relations, within and across national boundaries; and a sense of responsibility to contribute, both by teaching and by example, to social, cultural and economic progress

2.7.2 Teacher recruitment and deployment

School administrators have difficulties finding qualified teachers who are appropriate for rural school and community and who will stay on the job. In recruiting teachers for rural schools, two things must be considered. First is the education needs in rural schools, and second is teachers who are trained to meet these specific needs. While a number of African countries require that junior and senior secondary school teachers should hold educational qualifications at various levels in their chosen subjects of instruction, these requirements are, at times, ignored in order to meet the demand at the school level (Ingersoll, 2001).

Moreover, in recruiting teachers for rural schools, it has been suggested that candidates should be recruited from within each region, in the hope that personal history and family connections will entice them to return to teach in their home area after certification. The presumption is that those individuals will have family roots in these rural areas and be willing to return and remain in these rural settings (Craig, Kraft and Plessis, 1998). One of the attractions of this approach is that if teachers become established within their own community, they may gain extra benefits from the proximity of relatives, which may help to ensure long term stability. Working close to one's extended family may provide some level of financial support and subsidy (Black et al, 1993). However, some countries, such as Malawi, report that teachers do not want to work in their village, because there may be too many demands on them from their family. Some people from rural areas would prefer to be in their home district, but not actually in their home village.

It should be noted that the assumption that teachers recruited from a rural area would want to return to their communities has been challenged by a number of researchers (Rust and Dalin, 1990; Azam, 2001). Educated members of a disadvantaged minority group may view their education as a means of social mobility, and may have no desire to remain in the community once they have completed their educational programmes (Azam, 2001). In Lesotho, for example, it was reported by Azam, 2001 that *"it is hard to attract people to rural areas, as the conditions are difficult… Young people, even those from rural areas, want to come down from the highlands as soon as they can. Even those who come on study leave, try hard to stay in Maseru"* (quoted in Mulkeen, Page 16, 2005).

The recruitment strategy reported by Mulkeen (ibid) is the most frequently used method to recruit teachers from specific geographical regions or ethnic-linguistic groups. However, this strategy often involves a trade-off between entry qualifications for rural roots (Lewin, 2002). If it is necessary to adjust the teacher recruitment system to favour teachers from a particular area, and if the system was a merit based system, then the adjustment entails recruiting teacher of lower quality.

The deployment of teachers across African countries is neither efficient nor equitable. Qualified and more experienced teachers are concentrated in urban schools, which tend to be overstaffed. By contrast, schools in rural areas face major problems in attracting and retaining adequately qualified and experienced teachers. There are fairly widespread concerns about excessive political interference in the recruitment of primary and secondary schools teachers in many African countries. It is also contended that patron-client and other political considerations tend to influence, unduly, decision-making by local educational authority in the recruitment process.

2.7.3 Teacher motivation

The extent to which teachers are motivated is a significant factor in influencing the delivery of quality education. Herzberg in his famous two-factor theory suggested that the factors, which contributed to job satisfaction (motivators) and those which contribute to job dissatisfaction (hygiene)[16] must be applied separately on workers to enhance increased productivity (Hinton, 1968)[17]. The significant effect of the application of this theory on boosting teachers' performance and increasing learning outcomes of students cannot be overstated. A good working environment, according to this theory, will determine the quantity and quality of knowledge children receive; the level of skills to enhance the development of young minds; and the sense of security children feel. The subjects of motivation and working condition of teachers in many rural schools across the African continent have continued to gain widespread criticisms because of the obvious difficulties rural schools face in attracting and retaining qualified teachers. The persistent high poverty, poor environment, low salaries, limited opportunities for professional improvement, social and geographic isolation, inter alia, have made rural schools unattractive for highly qualified and experienced teachers. Markel (2004), looking at the condition of teachers in North America, presented a report from 39 surveys[18], which showed that working conditions have continually played a large role in teacher decisions to migrate or leave the profession. Reasons for remaining in teaching or leaving are strongly associated with how teachers view administrative support, available education resources, teacher input regarding decision-making and school climate.

[16] Hygiene factors are: organization policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security and personal life

[17] Hinton, B.L. (1968). An empirical investigation of the Herzberg methodology and two-factor theory. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance. Vol. 3, No. 3

[18] see http://www.asu.edu/educ/epsl/AEPI/EPSL-0405-109-AEPI.pdf

2.7.4 Situation of teaching

Good teaching refers to instructions that lead to effective learning, which in turn leads to thorough and lasting acquisition of knowledge and skills. The characteristics of effective teaching in schools, according to Jordan (2006), usually revolve around six key indicators, which are:

i. Configuration of learning spaces and classroom organisation,
ii. Classroom management and discipline,
iii. Curriculum structuring and planning,
iv. Teaching strategies,
v. Self-directed strategies, and
vi. Peer tutoring.

2.7.5 Configuration of learning spaces and classroom organisation

The situation of many rural areas in Africa is such that there are inadequate teachers to handle available classes. As a result, "multi-grade teaching" is widespread. Multi-grade teaching normally involves one teacher teaching two or more grades at the same time. In some very remote areas, the viable model for provision of schooling may be the one-teacher school (the most extreme form of multi-grade). In Uganda, as observed by Mulkeen (2005), school attendance is very low in the Karamoja region, despite the construction of schools. In response, the government introduced a programme named Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja (ABEK) where children study under trees wherever they take animals to graze, supervised by a single teacher in each school. The nomadic education practiced in the northern part of Nigeria is similar to the ABEK education in Uganda.

Many countries now see multi-grade teaching approaches as a key pedagogic tool that can assist teachers to cope with teaching in a very difficult situation. Multi-grade teaching has the potential to improve the quality of teaching, thus contributing to the global effort of achieving EFA goals and other educational priorities including MDGs. However, the successful operation of multi-grade methods is dependent on teachers who are skilled in handling multi-grade classes; availability of teaching materials, and the flexibility of the educational structure to allow for necessary adjustments by the operators of the schools.

The use of multi-grade teaching without additional training and teaching materials is likely to put additional strain on teachers, and reduce the quality of learning. According to Benveniste and McEwan (2000, p42):

> *Multigrade teaching may require more work than single-grade instruction. Demands on teacher resources, both cognitive and emotional, are greater. Curriculum design and organization requires attentive preparation and greater coordination. This is particularly the case if teachers do not have access to specialized materials, such as self-instructional textbooks, to support their preparation. Motivating students and maintaining their concentration is harder. Teachers are responsible for more subjects and cannot repeat lessons from year to year.*[19]

2.7.6 Classroom management and discipline

In examining school effectiveness research, it has been argued that most of the variation between schools is due to classroom management rather than other school factors[20]. Research findings into the correlates of effectiveness relates largely to the classroom. Of the eleven factors identified by Sammons et al. (1995), six emanate directly from the classroom (a learning environment, concentration on teaching and learning, purposeful teaching, high expectations, positive reinforcement, and monitoring progress). The remaining five (professional leadership, shared vision and goals, pupils' rights and responsibilities, home-school partnership and a learning organisation) shape the cultural milieu of the school and create the climate in which an effective classroom is more likely to thrive. Brown (1994) includes teacher discipline to this list and argues that therein lies the route to improvement.

Classroom management and discipline in remote areas present additional difficulties for school administrators and managers. One concern is that teacher absenteeism, which may be very high in rural areas, could perhaps create serious constraints on effective classroom management and discipline. Mulkeen (2005) also reports that some teachers in small rural schools in Uganda commit fewer hours to classroom teaching in favour of their private work, possibly as a means of complementing their inadequate salaries.

The physical remoteness of many rural schools may encourage absenteeism and moonlighting activities of some teachers and school managers. In some countries, the need to travel to collect pay is a major cause of teacher absence. This can lead to an absence of up to three days, where the school is deserted, with one teacher left behind to keep control. Similarly, in Uganda, it is expected that teachers should be paid through their bank accounts, but where there are no banks, teachers are paid in cash, and many have to travel long distances to collect their pay. All these may impose severe constraints on classroom management and discipline.

[19] Benveniste and McEwan, (2000).

[20] cited in Morgan et al. (2006)

Medical problems of teachers in isolated areas may also weaken the control and discipline of teachers. A visit to a doctor that might take a day in an urban area, can involve an absence of three or four days for a rural teacher. Many rural teachers are in locations away from their families or family doctors. Travelling from remote rural areas to see their doctors may be time consuming. If the school is in a remote location, trips often involve absence on Fridays or Mondays.

It would be unfair to see classroom management difficulties entirely in terms of policing teacher misbehaviour. There are also system failures, which undermine teacher morale and damage the system. These include failure to pay teachers on time and delay in promotion and transfer. Teachers in rural schools often feel neglected by the authorities, and perceive that they are unfairly treated in terms of promotion, transfers and other benefits. Such perceptions may lower morale among rural teachers and deepen management and discipline problems.

2.7.7 Curriculum structuring and planning

Curriculum structuring and planning, according to Mulkeen (2005), may also experience some difficulties in rural areas for a number of reasons:

- In the first place, school principals often travel to district offices to make administrative arrangements. In Uganda, for instance, the head teacher, in public schools, is responsible for arranging salary increments and adjustments for each teacher. The more remote the school is, the longer the head teacher is away from the school for these purposes, and the less the time spent by the principal on supervising curriculum structuring and planning.

- Second, remote schools are less likely to be visited by external inspectors. In Malawi, it is noted that absenteeism is more frequent in remote schools where the atmosphere is more relaxed and visits by inspectors are less frequent.

- Third, the monitoring of teachers by the local community is often weaker in remote rural areas. The local community may place a lower value on education, simply because they are less educated themselves, and so feel less able to challenge the authority of teachers.

In Tanzania, a district school is required to be inspected at least once in two years. In districts where the number of schools is small, all schools are inspected yearly. In districts where there are more than 80 schools, 50% of schools have to be inspected. Schools in rural areas are less likely to be inspected because of lack of transport, geographical factors (isolation, floods and bad infrastructure) and financial constraints. Most inspection visits do not include an evaluation of the quality of education, and provide little information on quality to the school or the ministry. In view of these weaknesses, and in particular the transport difficulty, it seems likely that remote public rural schools are unlikely to receive inspection visits with any regularity. The adverse implications of this on curriculum structuring and planning cannot be overemphasised.

2.7.8 Planning school curriculum

Curriculum may be defined as the full range of learning experiences encountered by students. The fundamental purpose of school curriculum is to ensure that all students experience good quality education appropriate to their needs in a changing world. The curriculum that will impact positively on rural communities must incorporate elements of local content. The centrality of this is seeing it in terms of the development it brings to the school environment. The basic approach to curriculum planning is outlined below:

i. Provision
ii. Planning and coordination
iii. Implementation: Teaching and learning processes
iv. Outcomes: Student progress and attainment

Provision: Areas that will be covered in the curriculum are issues that must be considered during curriculum planning and these include:

i. Subjects, programmes, courses, levels
ii. Time allocations, options, structures
iii. Provision for students with special needs
iv. Breadth and balance; relevance and differentiation
v. Co-curricular activities

Planning and Coordination: In order for curriculum planning to be effective, the school curriculum must address the school's needs both at the local level and also as articulated in the educational policy. School curriculum planning works on developing an awareness of these needs, not only in terms of managing the local environment of the school, but also in terms of the wider needs of the students as members of society. It is important for the school to look at its arrangements for planning and coordinating the curriculum. A review of this aspect of curriculum would explore:

i. Structures for planning
ii. Procedures for collaboration
iii. Programme coordination
iv. Cross-curricular issues

Schools may need to ask such questions as "What structures would help?" or "How can teachers work together?" A review of arrangements for curriculum planning and coordination may enable the school to identify creative approaches within the new programmes that could fruitfully be applied in other areas.

Implementation –teaching and learning processes: The basic purpose of curriculum implementation is to ensure effective learning that is relevant to the full range of students' educational and local needs, for those in rural communities. In pursuing this purpose, the school may find it helpful to:

i. Review its current situation with regards to:
   - the grouping of students for learning; (streaming/banding/mixed ability grouping)
   - teaching methodologies;
   - classroom environment;
   - classroom practice;
ii. Explore the impact of these aspects of school life on student learning; and
iii. Consider whether classroom processes are serving the aims and objectives of the curriculum and promoting the development of students as effective and responsible learners.

Outcomes: student progress and achievement: In reviewing curriculum that will improve the outcome of students in rural schools, curriculum planners may usefully examine:

i. Its current methods of assessing student progress and achievement;
ii. How students' levels of achievement compare with their standards of achievement on entry to the school, and with national standards of achievement;
iii. What students have actually learnt, in terms of both holistic development and academic achievement, on completing any given programme or course in the school.

To draw these strands together, we offer the following suggestions to help schools in rural areas to adopt the subject department as a focus for curriculum review. This will enable the school to:

i. Promote collaboration with urban schools,
ii. Establish common purpose,
iii. Develop communication network between rural and urban schools,
iv. Foster the sharing of good practice among rural schools,
v. Provide support for rural teachers and rural teaching, and
vi. Encourage interdependence and mutual responsibility among rural teachers.

It would be important for the school to provide a structured programme of staff development to support collaborative curriculum planning at whole-school level.

Such a programme might address whole–school curriculum issues such as the following:

i. Homework Policy
ii. Thinking and Learning
iii. Multiple Intelligences
iv. Effective Methodologies
v. Special Needs and Learning Support
vi. Assessment and Reporting
vii. Team Development

2.7.9 Teaching strategies and delivery

One of the primary roles that teachers are expected to perform is that of designer and implementer of instruction. Teachers at every level prepare plans that aid in the organization and delivery of their daily lessons. These plans vary widely in the style and degree of specificity. Some instructors prefer to construct elaborate and impeccably typed outlines; others rely on the briefest of notes handwritten on scratch pads or on the backs of discarded envelopes. Regardless of the format, all teachers need to make wise decisions about the strategies and methods they will employ to help students move systematically toward learner goals. It should also be noted that the more organized a teacher is, the more effective the teaching/learning that would take place. Writing daily lesson plans is a large part of being organized.

Teachers need more than a vague or even a precise notion of educational goals and objectives to be able to sequence the educational objectives or to be proficient in the skills and knowledge of a particular discipline. The effective teacher also needs to develop a plan to provide *direction* towards the attainment of the stated objectives.

The lesson plan is a tedious part of instruction that most teachers dislike. It nevertheless provides a guide for managing the learning environment and it is essential if a substitute teacher is to be effective and efficient. Teachers, especially in rural schools, must be prepared to face the challenges of providing quality education to pupils, which a good lesson plan enhances. Three stages of lesson planning and strategy are discussed as follows:

Stage 1: Pre-lesson preparation

i. Setting goals
ii. Developing contents
iii. Determining student entry level

Stage 2: Lesson planning and implementation

i. Write unit title
ii. Provide instructional goals
iii. State course objectives
iv. Explain the rationale
v. Discuss the content
vi. Organize instructional procedures
vii. Evaluate procedures
viii. Provide reference materials

Stage 3: Post-lesson activities

i. Lesson evaluation and revision

Teaching strategies involve much more than making arbitrary decisions about "what a teacher is going to teach in a day." Many activities precede the process of designing and implementing a teaching/lesson plan. Similarly, the job of teachers in systematic lesson planning is not complete until the learners' attainment of the anticipated outcomes and effectiveness of the lesson in leading learners to these outcomes have been assessed.

2.7.10 Self-Directed Learning (SDL),

Self-directed learning is the most forward-thinking and independent of teaching choices available under Student-Directed Teaching, a progressive teaching technology. This is a teaching style which can be adopted by teachers in rural schools on students who demonstrate a high level of independence, enjoy working on their own, and have the ability to initiate plans for their own learning. This teaching style promotes creative problem-solving and a deeper engagement with the content to be learned.

Through the application of this method, the teacher can:

- Provide a unit plan consisting of objectives for several days, written in a language the student can understand,
- Visit each student at least once each period,
- Determine the appropriateness of the style,
- Use good questioning techniques and negotiation to help steer the student to becoming more independent,
- Provide perception checks and final tests as indicated in the unit plan, and
- Provide a second evaluative activity if required by an individual student.

The student will:

- Study each objective and decide how learning will take place,
- Listen to the instruction the teacher is providing,
- Consider what he or she knows and what he or she does not know when selecting the amount and type of practice,
- Declare the mark expected on each perception check, and
- Prepare a plan which outlines how the student will use their time.

SDL allows individuals to take the initiative and the responsibility for what occurs in the learning process. Individuals select, manage, and assess their own learning activities, which can be pursued at any time, in any place, through any means, at any age. In schools, teachers can work toward SDL a stage at a time. Teaching emphasizes SDL skills, processes, and systems rather than content coverage and tests. For the individual, SDL involves initiating personal challenging activities and developing the personal qualities to accomplish them successfully.

2.7.11 Peer tutoring

A peer tutor is anyone who is of a similar status as the person being tutored. In an undergraduate institution this would usually be other undergraduates, as distinct from the graduate students who may be teaching the lower grade. Peer tutoring is an instructional strategy that consists of pairing students together to learn or practice an academic task. The pairs of students can be of the same or differing ability and/or age range. Peer tutoring encompasses a variety of instructional approaches including Cross-Age Tutoring, Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS), and Reciprocal Peer Tutoring (RPT). These methods can be used to improve learning experiences of pupils in rural schools. The underlying theory is consistent, whether in the rural or urban areas. Peer interaction can have a powerful influence on academic motivation[21] and consequently on achievement[22]. The research evidence also suggests that socialization experiences that occur during peer tutoring can benefit both the tutor and tutee by motivating students to learn and increase their social standing among peers[23]. When students understand the benefits of peer tutoring and have the tools to become effective tutors and tutees, they make greater progress than those who are not given any instruction on how to work together[24].

Additionally, peer tutoring allows teachers to accommodate a classroom of diverse learners, including students with learning disabilities. This instructional strategy increases response opportunities for students, provides additional time for positive feedback, and increases the amount of time a student is on-task[25]. Regardless of achievement level, content area, or classroom arrangement, peer tutoring demonstrates effectiveness in facilitating progress in the general education curriculum[26].

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Chapter Three

Challenges facing rural education in Africa

3.0 Introduction

In many African countries, the knowledge gap between the urban and rural schools is widening and rural children are falling behind their urban counterparts because the schools are in bad shape physically, there is not enough space to accommodate the children, and there are not enough qualified teachers or enough teachers in general to attend to all subjects and students. Rural students attend schools in which courses such as English, Art, and Physical Education are required but are not taught for lack of qualified and experienced teachers. While some urban schools are also not exempted from this unpleasant phenomenon, the situation is, however, more acute in rural areas than in the urban district. In some schools (both rural and urban), these courses are taught but at a very low level because the teachers are not qualified to teach these courses well enough. Evidence continues to mount indicating that teachers in rural schools face greater challenges that are not compatible with their urban counterparts. This chapter therefore discusses the effects of the apparent neglect of rural schools by identifying some of the challenges commonly associated with teachers and teaching in rural communities.

3.1 Challenges facing teachers in rural areas

3.1.1 Poor teachers' status

Teaching, in many African countries, is one of the most undervalued professions. Governments' attention and reaction to teachers demand are very rigid. Teachers are not particularly well paid, and it has become a job that you only do if you could not get another job. The poor salary of teachers, when compared with their counterparts who are engaged in other professions with comparable level of education and experience, is one of the challenges teachers have to cope with across African countries. For instance, low teacher

remuneration, and the way in which it is paid, had been found to be the most contentious issue among teachers in many African schools for years. In Nigeria, it has led to local, state and national strikes in the past and at present because teachers' salaries are simply not sufficient for a good standard of living. The common axiom among teachers is that "teachers take home pay cannot take them home". Salaries of teachers are seriously inadequate and are not always paid when due. The average monthly gross salary of a primary school teacher, in Nigeria as well as in many countries across the continent of Africa, is about $100 per month. The top gross salary of many head teachers with around 30 years of experience is about $300 per month. In a survey of teachers' salary in one of the northern states of Nigeria (VSO, 2002), respondents estimated that the minimum survival income for teacher with a spouse and two children in the state is about $400 to $600 per month in contrast to the $100 and $300 monthly salaries of teachers and head teachers respectively.

Consequently, many teachers are forced to find additional income to augment their poor earnings, which invariably will have a serious negative impact on their overall performance. Opportunities for teachers to earn additional income from private coaching of students, which is common in many urban areas, appear to be quite limited, mainly because of widespread poverty in rural areas.

3.1.2 Poor career advancement

Career advancement and opportunities for further studies are often unavailable or very difficult to come by in the rural areas. Beside this, opportunities for promotion are very slim among the various categories of teachers. Regardless of low teacher motivation, annual attrition is reported to be minimal largely because alternative employment opportunities are limited. The delays suffered in the administration of payment of teachers' salaries can sometimes extend up to three months. These are some of the reasons for the tardiness and decrease in motivational levels among teachers and have amplified levels of desperation and discontentment, resulting in incredibly poor quality of education. Sometimes, state agencies do have the money to pay, but sit on it endlessly and the teachers have to wait for their salaries, and often their pensions are not paid when they retire. As a result, teachers are always looking for possibilities to earn a little money elsewhere, and if they can find another job, they quit teaching.

3.1.3 Outright neglect of teachers in rural schools

The problem facing teachers in rural schools has been persistent neglect. Politicians and professional educators have focused their attention on urban education, leaving many to assume that all is well in the schools in rural districts. The seeming urgency in addressing problems facing urban schools, such as low achievement test scores, school violence and vandalism, and high teacher turnover have repeatedly captured politicians' and administrators' attention leaving rural schools all but forgotten. Parks and Sher (1979) attribute this apparent

neglect to the perceived lack of political will to develop the rural constituency. Some politicians argue that the votes that brought them to power were mostly not from rural people and so are not accountable to the plight of people living in these areas. At times, school administrators use teacher deployment and posting into rural schools as a means of punishing erring teachers. Guenther and Weible (1983), quoting from the personal communication with Dr. Frank Fratoe (USDA)[27], state that there is enough information to indicate that rural schools seem less favoured in material and financial resources than urban schools generally; that there is a rural achievement/attainment problem; and that the rural poor are among the poorest in the nation

3.1.4 Lack of qualified teachers in rural schools

The definition of qualified teachers varies from country to country, depending on the certification procedure in the respective African countries. In Nigeria, for example, the minimum teaching qualification used to be a Grade II teaching certificate for primary schools and National Certificate of Education (NCE) for junior secondary schools. The 2004 National Policy on Education (NPE), however, fixed the minimum certificate for teachers to be NCE.

There is no doubt that many countries face challenges of teachers' qualification and supply. At the same time, however, there are equally serious challenges of their deployment. In many countries, urban areas have qualified teachers who are unemployed or underemployed while rural areas have unfilled posts. This pattern of simultaneous surplus and shortage, as reported by Mulkeen, (2005) is strong evidence that the problem of teachers in rural schools will not be solved simply by producing more teachers. Generally, the lack of qualified teachers in many rural schools is simply because many teachers do not want to stay in rural areas due to social, professional and cultural isolation. Castle (1995), reflecting on teachers' reluctance to work or stay in rural areas, argues that low salaries, lack of access to professional opportunities, and the responsibility to take on multiple duties are the major challenges confronting teachers and affect their decisions to work or stay in rural areas. Owing to the small size of rural schools and communities, there is a smaller pool of applicants and teachers in rural areas, and rural schools have a high teacher turnover rate (DeYoung, 1991). Most teachers and administrators in rural schools across African countries are typically younger; less educated, and get lower pay and benefits than nonrural employees.

Comparing schooling characteristics in six African countries, the summary of rural-urban indicators, as shown in Table 3.1, reveals that there are significant differences in teachers' qualification, pupil-teacher ratio and pupil–qualified teacher ratio, and students' achievement and gender disparity among these countries. Therefore, country-specific policies are needed to ensure that teachers who will stay and teach in rural schools are given special training and are adequately prepared for

[27] Fratoe, F. Personal communication to P. Helfee, (1979) United State Department of Agriculture

the challenges of rural setting before they are posted to these communities. Table 3.1 presents the summary of rural-urban schooling characteristics in six countries in order to elucidate the challenges facing teachers in African countries.

Table 3.1: Summary of rural-urban schooling characteristics in six african countries

Indicator	Lesotho	Malawi	Mozambique	Nigeria	Tanzania	Uganda
Teacher qualification	In the lowlands, 24 percent are unqualified; in the mountains, 51 percent are unqualified.	Data show no rural-urban differences. (However, more detailed categorization might change these)	Significant differences between and within provinces. In Maputo City, 8 percent of teachers are untrained; in Manica Province, 58 percent are untrained.	Dearth of qualified teaching staff. Significant differences between rural and urban schools. Low societal estimation of teachers.	Better qualified teachers are in urban areas: 68 percent of grade A teachers are in Dar es Salaam, and 39 percent are in Lindi.	Some, mainly rural and insecure areas have many vacancies and use untrained teachers.
Pupil-teacher ratio and pupil– qualified teacher ratio(PQTR)	There is little variation in PTR, but great variation in teacher qualifications: 24 percent of teachers are not qualified in the lowlands; 51 percent are not qualified in the mountains.	Average PTR is 44 in urban areas and 77 in rural areas. Differences are even greater in some remote zones, such as Kalulu (139).	PTR is 54 in Maputo and 67 in Manica. PQTR is 59 in Maputo and 162 in Manica.	The mean PTR in 2005 was 38:1, in reality the pupil–class ratio was 109:1	Average PTR is 58. PTR is 53 in Dar es Salaam and 74 in Kigoma.	Average PTR is 56.
Teacher Gender	Almost 80 percent of teachers are female. Even in the mountain areas, 70 percent of teachers are female.	SACMEQ[28] results for reading and math are lower in rural schools.	School test results do not show differences, but SACMEQ reading and math results are lower in rural schools.	Generally poor performance in the area of literacy where the mean score was 18.2 percent.	SACMEQ results for reading and math are lower in rural schools.	SACMEQ results for reading and math are lower in rural schools.
Student achievement	Repetition rates are higher and SACMEQ test results are lower in rural schools.	82 percent of urban teachers are female, compared with 31 percent of rural teachers.	About 80 percent of teachers are female. Female teachers are reluctant to accept postings to rural schools.	More female NCE teachers at the primary and more male graduate teachers at secondary.	Female teachers are concentrated in urban schools and scarce in rural schools.	It is difficult to attract and retain females at remote rural schools.

Source: Adapted from Mulkeen, (2005)

[28] Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). The 15 Ministries of Education that constitute the SACMEQ network are Botswana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tanzania (Zanzibar), Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Reports on the characteristics of teachers in the six countries as indicated in Table 3.1 reveal that teachers have greater challenges to overcome in rural areas than their urban counterparts. One of the major problems facing rural schools is attracting and keeping highly qualified teachers. The problem in rural schools may be compounded by a number of reasons:

- First, rural schools are more likely to have problems in filling teaching positions, and so tend to have a higher overall pupil teacher ratio, and more unqualified teachers.
- Second, experienced teachers may use their influence to seek deployment to the smallest classes, leaving the largest classes to the least experienced and least qualified teachers. To counter this, in Lesotho, ministry guidelines suggest that the most experienced teachers be assigned to the lager classes, but this is not always followed in practice.
- Third, the rate of dropout in rural schools especially at the lower grade is often higher than their counterparts in the urban areas.
- Fourth, the internal deployment of teachers within schools is complicated by teachers' specialisation. In many countries, primary school teachers are trained either for specific grades (as in Malawi), or for specific subjects (as in Mozambique).

Table 3.1 above also illustrates the difficulties of efficient teacher deployment and management, which often result into low student achievement. There is, therefore, a need to put in place a strategy that will ensure the recruitment of teachers who demonstrate the characteristics of successful rural teachers. For instance, the US Department of Education (1998) suggests that the recruitment procedure should begin with aggressively exposing students in middle and high schools to peer tutoring, camp counselling, role modelling, and classes in education theory. Few colleges of education and universities in Africa have pre-service programmes for rural teachers. However, successful programmes in some developed countries, such as Australia and Canada, offer a rural focus in course work and provide ample opportunity for rural experiences (Stone, 1990; Boylan & Bandy, 1994).

3.1.5 Problems of recruiting and retaining teachers

The problems with rural teachers can be broken down to recruiting and retaining teachers. Brown (2003) opines that the "ideal" rural teacher at basic level must be prepared to teach multiple grades or subjects, organize extracurricular activities and adjust well to the environment and the community. Notably, it is extremely difficult to find teachers who fit into the rural community setting, and do not stay for a long period of time because of this. Usually the teachers who end up staying are either from a rural background or have previous experience with rural communities.

In many countries, teachers express a strong preference for urban postings and this may be attributed to a number of reasons, some of which had already been highlighted. The major factor could be that the quality of life in the rural areas may not be as good as in urban areas. Teachers have expressed concerns about the quality of accommodation (Akyeampong and Stephens 2002), classroom facilities, school resources, and access to leisure activities (Towse et al. 2002). A second major concern is related to health. Teachers may perceive that living in a rural area involves a greater risk of disease (Akyeampong and Stephens 2002) and less access to health care (Towse et al. 2002). Teachers may also see rural areas as offering fewer opportunities for professional advancement. Urban areas offer easier access to further education (Hedges 2000). In addition, teachers in rural areas are less likely to have opportunities to engage in other professional development activities. Teachers in rural areas may even find it more difficult to secure their entitlements from regional educational administrations, sometimes to the extent of having to put up with obstacles or corruption by officials. The problem is further exacerbated in countries where the majority of new teachers come from a different background than the students. In Ghana, teachers tend to come from a peculiar socioeconomic background higher than the national average (Akyeampong and Stephens 2002) and disproportionately come from an urban area. Hedges (2002) describes the reluctance of such teachers to accept a rural position thus:

> *There is a profound fear among newly trained teachers with a modern individualistic outlook that if you spend too much time in an isolated village without access to further education, you become "a village man," a term which strongly conveys the perceived ignorance of rural dwellers in the eyes of some urban educated Ghanaians.* (P, 364)

This type of fear is not only peculiar to teachers in Ghana but also similar to that expressed by young teachers in many other African countries where little concern are given to their condition by the authorities. There is a need for school administrators to have adequate knowledge of rural background before posting teachers who can fit into the school and community, and who will stay on the job. The "ideal" rural teacher, according to Brown (2003) quoting from Lemke (1994) and Stone (1990) is certified to teach more than one subject or grade level, can teach students with a wide range of abilities in the same classroom, is prepared to supervise extracurricular activities, and can adjust to the community. Moreover, teachers can also decide to stay because of their relationship with their principal, spouse employment in the community and satisfaction with the rural lifestyle. On the other hand, given the obvious importance of teachers, problems in supporting newly qualified teachers and a lack of career development opportunities in rural settings often combine to make the teachers' effectiveness difficult in comparison with their urban counterparts.

To meet these challenges, innovative methods for training teachers and administrators to improve the quality of teaching and learning in African schools must be well-accentuated. This must focus on constant upgrade of skills through in-service training and provision of incentive packages for teachers in rural areas.

In addition, teachers' participation in community activities can influence their decision to stay in rural schools. The degree to which a rural teacher becomes involved in community educational and cultural programmes influence his or her decision to stay on the job. Therefore, retention requires a coordinated school-community effort. A school-community orientation can help new rural teachers overcome feelings of isolation, acquire a sense of community security, and develop professional competence. Principals should select a new teacher's initial assignments carefully, set clear goals, welcome feedback, establish an encouraging and non-threatening environment, and provide opportunities to interact with experienced colleagues and parents. Collegial mentoring, which is not a part of teachers' evaluation, can be crucial. The school can also make things easy for new teachers by streamlining paperwork, providing a well-planned in-service programme and arranging release time for visiting other teachers' classrooms. The community should recognize new teachers' accomplishments and invite them to participate in various activities. Colleges of education and universities can play an important role by offering cost-effective distance-learning courses to keep rural teachers up-to-date.

A second major incentive for teachers to stay and work in rural areas is the provision of a house. Where teachers cannot live near the school, they are likely to spend a lot of time travelling, often to the detriment of their school work. Housing is particularly important for female teachers. In Malawi, the EMIS data reveals a strong association between the availability of housing in an area and the presence of female teachers in the school. In a study conducted on primary school teachers' attrition in Uganda, provision of housing is considered to be a key factor in ensuring teacher retention, especially in rural areas (Mulkeen, 2005). Currently 15% of the School Facilities Grants (SFG) is allocated to the building of teachers' houses.

In Mozambique, the Ministry of Education does not normally provide housing, although the practice has been to put the directors' house at some schools. In addition, some NGOs and even local communities have built houses for teachers in an attempt to make rural locations more attractive. In Lesotho, too, teacher housing is not normally provided, but some NGOs and community groups have provided accommodation.

Moreover, it is important to consider the foreseeable flow of teachers leaving the system when determining the needs for teachers' deployment. From time to time, adequate number of teachers has to be recruited not only for new teaching posts but also for the replacement of teachers who have given up teaching, either due to retirement, sickness, death, nomination to non-teaching administrative posts or resignation from teaching. It is very difficult to precisely measure this phenomenon, traditionally referred to as attrition in countries where even teacher counts are unreliable, as demonstrated by the varying attrition estimations for a single country gathered from different sources. For example, a preparatory study for the Regional Workshop on Teacher Matters - "The Challenges of Ensuring Quality Teaching in Every Classroom in Africa" held in 2007 estimated, in a pessimistic scenario, that the attrition rate in Zambia had registered at 9 percent in 2005, whereas an Education International study reported an attrition rate of 5 percent for the same country in 2006. It therefore seems difficult to have precise attrition rates for the teaching profession for each country. Nevertheless, comparing different sources would seem to indicate that attrition rates are well lesser than 5 percent in countries with a low prevalence of HIV/AIDS and rarely exceed 6 percent. Although, the issue concerning teachers' attrition goes beyond that of rural – urban phenomenon, in many cases, the non - payment of teachers' salary and poor working condition, *inter alia, are* largely responsible for the high rate of attrition in the teaching profession.

3.2 Challenges of teaching in rural areas

There is plenty of evidence that good quality teaching makes a difference in students' learning outcome. Rural children may experience quality of teaching that may be poorer than that provided for children in urban areas for a number of reasons:

- First, parents and teachers may have lower expectations of what rural children can achieve.
- Second, more of the teachers in rural areas are untrained, and so may be unfamiliar with the desired teaching methods. A study of teacher confidence in Botswana found that unqualified teachers were significantly less confident than qualified teachers, although, the report affirmed that years of experience were not associated with increased confidence (Nleya,1999)
- Third, rural teachers may be less likely to receive in-service training, or have the support of inspection or an education support service.

One of the recurring patterns in a case study of countries is that the rural-urban disparities are not adequately monitored and analyzed. Very substantial disparities also appear between teachers' gender and district schools. As noted, some countries use provinces or districts as the unit of analysis, thus merging very isolated schools with small town schools. The essence of this is to allow for better categorization of schools and a more systematic monitoring of the relative situation of rural schools. While the rural-urban disparity is not a new phenomenon, rural school districts may face special challenges in ensuring a highly qualified teacher who can teach effectively for the reasons discussed below.

3.2.1 Poor funding in rural schools

The poverty of many African countries basically is entrenched in poor education and prevalence of high illiteracy rate in the continent, and if not corrected, the poor educational system, especially in the rural areas, may impede the goal of Education for All (EFA) by 2015. Therefore, concerted efforts should be made to promote better education as the key to solving all lingering social, economic and political problems facing African countries, and to lift millions of rural populations out of poverty. Rural education serves as the foundation, the driving force and an important factor that influences the overall building of an affluent society. Only through well-developed education and an efficient labour force can the nations of Africa help more than 800 million farmers modernize the agriculture sector.

One of the greatest challenges being faced by rural education in Africa is the low proportion of funds that are allocated to the education sector. In fact, the state of funds allocation to the rural education system is worrisome as it has been suffering from a bigger financial shortfall over the past few years. Shrinking spending on rural schooling has caused widespread problems in both students' enrolment and teacher commitment to teaching. Besides, quality of outcome, maintenance of facilities, as well as the payment of salaries for rural teachers have also suffered considerably because of poor allocation of funds and other educational resources to rural schools (Morgan et al, 2006).

3.2.2 Poor quality of education in rural schools

The education that will contribute and make significant impact on rural economy must be of high quality. According to EFA's declaration, "the focus of basic education must be on actual learning acquisition and outcome". The National Policy on Education (NPE, 1977) in Nigeria also placed emphasis on providing unhindered access to qualitative basic education to all Nigerians irrespective of their gender, social class, ethnicity, occupation and religion but this, as shown by a report of the Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA)

project in Nigeria (Ayara 2003), is yet to bring any appreciable improvement in the quality of education provided in the country. The MLA provides a good insight into the quality and effectiveness of basic education in Nigeria (Table 3.2). The MLA has a special and deliberate focus on minimum basic learning competences in the domains of literacy, numeracy and life skills. The national mean scores on the literacy, numeracy and life skills tests were 25.1 percent, 32.2 percent and 32.6 percent, respectively. The performance was poor in virtually all states. While there was no difference in the performance on the basis of gender, pupils in private schools performed better than those in public schools, and those in urban areas did better than their rural counterparts. The report further reveals that performance was generally poor in the area of writing skills (under literacy) where the mean score was 18.2 percent. In the domains of numeracy and life skills, the poorest performance was in geometry/ shapes (28 percent) and health and hygiene (31.8 percent), respectively (CBN 2000 cited in Ayara 2003).

Table 3.2: Performance of nigeria primary school pupils in literacy, numeracy and life skills

MLA domain	Mean score (%)						
		Sex		Type of Residence		Ownership Structure	
	National	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Private	Public
Literacy (Total)	25.1	24.8	25.8	28.9	22.6	40.8	22.2
Numeracy (Total)	32.2	32.4	31.9	35	32.3	43.1	30.1
Life Skills (Total)	32.6	32.6	32.8	35	31	43.1	30.6

Source: Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) in Ayara (2003)

The Table further reveals that there were insignificance differences between the performance of male and female students in the MLA test in numeracy, literacy and life skills. Moreover, when the performances of urban and rural students were compared, the differences were not too significant.

Considering the effect of ownership structure of schools on students' performance, the difference as indicated in Table 3.2 was very significant. The problem of poor quality of education in many African countries has very little to do with the curriculum, which is widely believed to be of high quality. But the delivery system (quality of teachers and condition of teaching) is the cause for the deplorable state of education, for example, in Nigeria.

3.2.3 Inadequate preparation and training of teachers

Almost every country in Africa has a guiding principle for training and preparing teachers for the educational system. In Nigeria, for example, the colleges of education (CoEs) are given the responsibility of providing a three-year programme to prepare students who eventually qualify for the National Certificate in Education (NCE), the minimum teaching qualification required to teach at the primary school level. However, due to the high entrance requirement and the unattractive working conditions for teachers, CoEs found it hard to entice academically sound candidates to enroll in their programmes. Therefore, the National Council of Colleges of Education (NCCE) introduced the Pre-NCE course in 2002 (VSO, 2002). This one-year programme prepares students with two credits for the actual NCE programme, and brings those who have successfully completed the Pre-NCE programme at par with other candidates who will be admitted on the basis of five-credit into the NCE programme. Consequently, lecture halls in most CoEs in Nigeria are often filled to the brim, with thousands of students attending classes in halls that are designed to accommodate less than the actual number of students in class. Usually there are more students outside than inside as the lecture halls cannot contain more than 300 students at full capacity. This situation has become unacceptable because of the negative effect that large class size has on the quality of output. Apart from this, the faculties of education in almost every university run the Bachelor degree programmes in education (B.Ed) for teachers of junior and senior secondary school levels. In most cases, students admitted into the faculties of education are those who have failed to gain admission to their preferred courses. These types of candidates merely see teaching as a stopgap and so lack the necessary zeal for the teaching profession and will do anything to escape from it altogether anytime there is the opportunity to get a preferred job. The poor remuneration of teachers is also not helping matters because teachers of comparable qualification earn less than their counterparts in the civil service. Therefore, teachers do very little teaching and have to do too many odd jobs to augment their meagre income, which consequently reduce teachers' capacity.

Apart from this, there has been a growing concern about the quality of graduates from the teacher training colleges and universities who are joining the teaching profession. Complaints about the competence of newly appointed teachers are also commonplace. Many public schools are now seriously under-resourced. The patterns of teachers' composition also have implications for gender equity. Across Sub-Saharan Africa, enrolment and retention in schools are lower for girls than for boys. The under representation of girls tends to be greatest in rural areas and among the most disadvantaged communities. While a number of measures have been shown to impact positively on the retention of girls in schools, one of the important factors is the presence of female teachers in schools to serve as role model to female students (Bernard 2002).

Female teachers, because of the peculiar motherly role they play in schools, can help to make the school environment safer for girls. Many girls in Africa are forced to drop out of school because administrators of schools are insensitive to gender issues, including sexual abuse and intimidation (PANA 2003). In addition, the presence of females in positions of responsibility and leadership in schools is an important factor in creating positive gender role models. However, female teachers may be even less willing to accept a rural posting than their male counterparts, and rural areas may have fewer female teachers than urban areas (Göttelmann-Duret and Hogan 1998). In some cases, posting single women to unfamiliar areas may cause cultural difficulties and insecurity (Rust and Dalin 1990; VSO 2002). For an unmarried woman, posting to an isolated rural area may also be seen to limit her marriage prospects (Hedges 2000). In some countries, such as Ghana, single women are not posted to rural areas as a matter of policy (Hedges 2002). For a married woman, a rural posting may mean separation from her family, as the husband may not move for cultural or economic reasons (Gaynor 1998). Where women have been posted to rural areas, they "may come to see themselves as having been treated unfairly by the system and thus seek early transfers" (Hedges 2002).

3.2.4 Poor infrastructural facilities in rural schools

An objective assessment of facilities in rural schools reveals a gross and unacceptable state of infrastructural decay. This is especially true of primary schools. Many of the buildings were erected in the late 1950s and early 1960s with mud blocks. Today, they are not only a health hazard but also potential death traps. In fact, in many areas, classes are being held in the open during the dry season and when the rainy season comes, children are crowded into the few available ramshackle buildings. Many schools lack the essential infrastructure to enable them function as safe, efficient and effective schools. The vast majority, whether urban or rural, have no water, sanitation and electricity and these services need to be addressed as a matter of urgency. The physical state of classrooms is very poor, with floors full of holes, roofs and ceilings broken and pertinent facilities in a poor state of repair. Windows may have shutters, but these and doors are often not lockable; so schools lack security. Few schools have a perimeter fence or enclosure, making them open to intruders and vandalism. In some circumstances, furniture is stolen and classrooms are used as toilets. At times, it may be difficult to imagine that classes could still be taking place in some of the classrooms in rural schools across African countries. This is one of the major reasons for the prevailing crisis in the education system in many Africa countries.

3.2.5 Problems of access in rural schools

In general, access to basic schools has expanded more rapidly in urban than in rural areas, and as countries approach universal enrolment, the children who never attended school are often those in the least developed rural areas of African countries. Many factors contribute to lower educational participation in rural than in urban areas. Some of these factors are on the demand side of education while others are on the supply side. On the demand side, rural children may be less interested in attending school. First, the opportunity costs of attending school are often higher in rural areas (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991). Many rural households depend on their children for help at busy times of the agricultural year such as during harvest. Schools are usually designed to follow a rigid schedule in terms of both time of the day and term dates and often expect children to be in school during busy periods in the agricultural calendar (Taylor and Mulhall 2001). Second, parents in rural areas often have a lower level of education attainment and may attach a lower value to schooling. Third, even when parents place a value on schooling, they may be less able to help their children to learn. Parents in rural areas are less likely to be educated themselves and thus have less ability to provide educational support for their children. Some parents are embarrassed to discuss school topics with their children because of their lack of knowledge. Further, homes in rural areas are often ill-equipped to meet the educational needs of children and often lack facilities like electricity (Taylor and Mulhall 2001). In fact, children in rural areas may be more difficult to educate. They are likely to have less parental encouragement to go to school and more opportunity cost for their time spent in the school. When they attend school, they may find the curriculum less relevant and attractive to their lives, and they may receive less support for their learning from the home environment.

3.2.6 Poor monitoring of teachers in rural schools

Monitoring of teachers in remote areas presents additional difficulties to educational managers. Monitoring is crucial in order to address teacher absenteeism. It has been found that getting teachers to come to work is a major barrier to improving education outcomes in many developing countries. Many governments in Africa often spend 70 to 90 percent of their recurrent education budgets on teachers' salaries, without tangible returns to show for this huge investment. In addition, inspection and support services provided by the system in order to ensure and develop the quality of teaching are often weak in rural areas. In effect, the weakest teachers receive the least support. Besides, many rural teachers are posted to locations far away from their family or their homes.

3.2.7 System failures and administrative bottlenecks

System failures also undermine teachers' morale and damage the teaching and learning process. Teachers in rural schools often feel neglected by the authorities and perceive that they are treated unfairly regarding access to promotion, transfers and other benefits.

One of the particularly unwelcome consequences of poor monitoring and disciplinary procedure is that rural schools may be more open to child abuse than urban schools. The literature suggests that child abuse is associated with power and authority (Nhundu and Shumba 2001). In rural areas, students' poverty and respect for teachers place teachers in a particularly strong position of power over children. In rural areas, many cases of child abuse may not reach the official record, especially when rural teachers are influential members of the local community and are well known by the local police. Nhundu and Shumba, (2001) speaking on sexual abuse by teachers, opine that incidences of sexual abuse are highest among teachers with the least teaching experience. Teachers' discipline is often limited by cumbersome systems for dealing with difficulties. In Uganda, teachers who misbehave are given a warning by the head teacher. If they offend again, they first receive a formal warning from the inspector of schools; if the behaviour persists, the case is referred to the district service commission. Poor communication with rural schools can slow down these processes, diminishing their impact.

Relatively, few teachers are actually dismissed for disciplinary offenses. In the context of relatively weak disciplinary structure, the practice of transferring undisciplined teachers to remote rural areas may have the effect of placing them in locations where they are prone to further misbehaviour (owing to less frequent supervision and monitoring) but with consequences less obvious to management.

3.2.8 Instability in academic calendars

Apart from the problem posed by lack of systematic monitoring and supervision of rural schools, the industrial crisis of teachers and other actors in the education sector in many African countries has become an issue of very grave concern. Many schools have remained closed due to the unrelenting teachers' strike for several months because of government insensitivity to teachers' demand for improved condition of service, especially in the rural and remote places. Government often accuses teachers for not showing enough understanding, and is of the opinion that most of the teachers' demands are unrealistic given the fact that other fiscal responsibilities often complicate any attempt to accede to their demands. At times, teachers refuse to go to work unless their salaries are increased because of the ever-increasing inflation rates, which may erode the

value of their income. Strikes, to state the least, have become the bane in the realization of many education goals and objectives in Africa. It is becoming less and less likely that many African countries will be able to meet the MDG of achieving universal access to primary education by 2015. For instance, in Nigeria, the academic calendar is irregular. It is most charitable to say that the most consistent feature of the education system in the country is the inconsistent and incessant disruption of academic programmes caused by teaching and non-teaching staff strike actions.

3.2.9 Threat of HIV/AIDs in rural schools

Although HIV/AIDS is a threat in all areas, it is becoming a greater threat in rural areas than in cities. "More than two-thirds of the population of the 25 most-affected African countries lives in rural areas. Rural people are less likely to know how to protect themselves from HIV and, if they fall ill, they are less likely to get care" (FAO 2005). The prevalence of HIV in rural areas and the lack of medical facilities have made rural postings even less attractive to teachers (Smith and McDonagh 2003). The scourge of the HIV pandemic for teachers should not be underestimated. Across Africa, an estimated 260,000 teachers, 9.4 percent of the total employed in 1999, could die of AIDS-related illnesses over the next decade (Bennell, Hyde, and Swainson 2002). In South Africa,[29] HIV testing of more than 17,000 teachers revealed that 12.7 percent were HIV positive, and the prevalence rate was higher among rural teachers and among younger but less experienced teachers. This was simply because HIV information and health services are less available in rural areas than in cities. In some cases, teachers who are ill are posted to urban centres, where they can obtain access to medical services. Although, these teachers do little to enhance their teaching in urban areas, their absence from rural areas exacerbates the rural-urban divide (Kelly 2000). In Ghana, poor health is the most common reason given for early transfer of teachers (Hedges 2002). In Uganda, the policy is that teachers with health problems should be posted to schools near medical facilities. In response to these challenges, this study provides some suggestions on how to improve the working condition of rural teachers and teaching in the next chapter.

[29] CSA (2005). Retrieved March 4, 2003 from http://www.csa.za.org/article/view/346/1/1

Chapter Four

Strategies for improving the conditions of teachers and teaching in rural schools

4.0 Introduction

Teachers and teaching are important to the development of any educational system. Any socio-economic strategy, aimed at improving schools and human development must, of necessity, emphasise the advancement and working conditions of teachers. Many studies in the past 20 years on the working conditions of teachers and teaching have concentrated on identifying the main characteristics of effective teaching with respect to pupils' learning outcomes. However, the status of teachers as well as the environment in which they operate have been deteriorating over the years. Many countries are facing crisis in the teaching profession. It is thus important that if our schools must work well, there is the need to provide workable strategies that will improve the conditions of teachers and teaching in the schools. This chapter discusses the main strategies that can be implemented to improve the working conditions of teachers as well as teaching in rural areas of developing countries.

4.1 Improving the working conditions of teachers in rural areas

Research has shown that the quality of teachers in our classrooms is the most important school-related factor in boosting students' achievement (Adedeji, 1998; Lewin, 2004). Therefore, policymakers are focusing on teachers' quality at all levels – specifically on the issues of teachers' recruitment, preparation, licensing and certification standards and professional development. However, it has been observed that the working condition of teachers in many rural schools across the SSA place them at a disadvantage in providing adequate teaching activities. It is necessary to put in place some mechanisms supported

by government that will help promote the retention of qualified and competent teachers in rural schools with a view to improving the quality and working condition of teachers in rural schools. There are, however, various strategies that can be pursued in improving the working conditions of teachers. The strategy to recruit and retain high-calibre teachers in rural areas must focus on the issue of teachers' salaries and other financial incentives. First, all teachers should receive salaries that reflect the value of being part of the teaching profession and their contributions to the society. Second, to attract and retain teachers in isolated communities, they should be compensated with additional financial incentives, in the form of hardship allowance, travel allowance for teachers to go to the rural area, etc. Evidently, some measures must be put in place to help mitigate the problems teachers in rural communities are facing in SSA.

4.1.1 Provision of financial incentives

The main source of improving the working conditions of teachers lies in enhanced salaries and wages. Many governments are quick to point at the size of teachers' salaries in their total expenditure. Yet, they remain underpaid when compared to other professions even within the same environment. As a result, many teachers indulge in moonlighting, which affects their commitment and quality of teaching.

The strategy to pursue is not only to increase teachers' salaries, but to examine the way salaries are organised, how the teachers are being paid, and their promotion structure that will determine the increase in salaries over time. The idea is to review the general salary system, remuneration patterns and appreciation of teachers' role. This should necessarily include the design of a special salary scale for teachers which will take into consideration their qualification and experience. Presently, teachers' salaries in most countries are linked to the uniform scale implemented by the civil service; hence, all teachers are treated equally as regards salary payments. This system favours urban teachers to the detriment of rural teachers who work in difficult and hard-to-reach areas in many cases. As a result, many rural teachers feel undervalued, and sometimes persecuted by government authorities. Adequate salary is what will ensure retention of most of the teachers in the rural areas. One strategy will be to have a specialised salary scale for teachers that will take into consideration not just their qualifications but also experience. This is at the broad level. Since rural teachers work in difficult conditions, it will be imperative to design special allowances for them. The provision of financial incentives is not uncommon in many countries. For example, in Mozambique, financial bonuses according to Mulkeen, (2005) are awarded to teachers who are willing to teach in rural areas (Table 4.1).

Lessons from the experiences of those that have implemented policy of incentives indicate that for the strategy to succeed, the incentives need to be substantial to outweigh the social and economic costs of living in an isolated area. Second, incentives require a fair system of classifying schools. General classifications may provide bonuses to teachers working in small towns, while doing relatively little to increase the supply of teachers in the most isolated schools.

Targeting is important for financial incentives to rural teachers if it is to be successful. This is because rural areas are not homogenous; there are those that can be regarded as semi urban as well as those that are rural. Given the topography of many African countries, there are areas that are not just rural, but also remote. This means that the incentive structure must take into consideration the geography of the rural location. Mulkeen (2005) identifies that in some countries, schools are classified into different categories of location, ranging from urban to the most isolated schools. The success of the incentives strategy will depend not just on adequate targeting, but also on the relative amount of the incentives and the opportunity costs of remaining in the rural area. In targeting, four classifications can be used. These may be teachers in urban, semi-urban, rural and remote areas. This will be used to determine the type and amount of inconvenience/hardship allowances. It might also be wise to explore salary differentials (urban-rural pay differential) for these groups of teachers.

Table 4.1: Incentives to encourage teachers to move to rural areas, 2005

Lesotho	Malawi	Mozambique	Nigeria	Tanzania	Uganda
Flat bonus of 275 maloti per month is given to be located in a mountainous area.	No incentives are given for locating in a rural area but they are being considered. Education data show a strong correlation between housing and the presence of female teachers.	Bonuses can be up to 100 percent of salary, but they are paid only to highly qualified teachers. Most primary school teachers get no additional pay to move to rural areas.	Bonuses are not paid. Incentives signified government concern for their teachers and the withdrawal of these grants has indicated a diminished interest in the needs of the Teachers in Nigeria	None. Incentives available in the 1980s were abolished in the 1990s. In the Primary Education Development Plan, priority is given to housing for rural teachers, but this is not implemented in practice.	Hardship allowance of 20 percent of salary for "hard-to reach" areas was introduced in 2001 for qualified teachers only. Difficulties arise in determining which schools are hard to reach?

Source: Adapted from Mulkeen, (2005) with modifications.

4.1.2 Provision of non-financial incentives

In other areas, the incentives may be non-monetary, including special study leave or better training opportunities (Craig, Kraft, and du Plessis 1998; Gaynor 1998).

A major incentive for teachers to be located in rural areas is the provision of housing for the teachers. Where teachers cannot live near the school, they are likely to spend a lot of time travelling, often to the detriment of their school work. Housing is particularly important for female teachers. In Malawi, official education data reveal a strong association between the availability of housing in an area and the presence of female teachers in the school. Similarly in Uganda, a recent study on teacher attrition considers the provision of housing to be a key factor in ensuring teacher retention, especially in rural areas. In 2005, 15 percent of the school facilities grant was allocated to the construction of housing for teachers in Uganda (Mulkeen, 2005).

Since many rural areas are remote and not easily accessible, special transportation allowance to the remote areas should be given to rural teachers.

4.1.3 Career development of rural teachers

Given the obvious importance of the problems in supporting newly qualified teachers and the lack of career development opportunities in rural settings, which often combine to make teachers' effectiveness difficult in rural areas when compared to their urban counterparts, there is need for career development incentives package for rural teachers

These should include scholarships for certified teachers seeking advanced training while working in a rural area. Apart from the advanced training, rural teachers should also have access to distance learning, seminars and workshops. In addition, special training opportunity, especially on multi-grade and rural specific teaching methods and techniques, must be organised from time to time for rural teachers. Teachers working in rural areas should be specially singled out for on-the-job training, pertinent seminars and workshops.

4.1.4 Teacher professionalism

There is the need to encourage teacher professionalism in order to improve the working conditions of teachers. Although virtually all countries have teachers' union, they have failed to organise teaching as a profession. Hence, outside factors and others who are not necessarily teachers have taken over control and regulate the profession. Unlike other professions such as medicine, finance, banking, accountancy, engineering and law that have professional bodies that

control and regulate the actions of their members, the teaching profession does not appear to have such a cohesive professional body to control and regulate the conduct of teachers in most countries in Africa.

It is thus proposed that teachers should take responsibility for their own professional development, through a professional body, to regulate and control their profession. The body should also clearly define the unique professional services that teachers offer and get more involved in the decision making processes of the profession. The Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) provides an excellent example of a body designed to provide such regulatory framework for teaching profession.

It should be noted that there should be a distinction between the teachers' union and the body in charge of professionalism of the teaching profession. The body should draw more attention to the professional works and activities of teachers and ensure that not just anybody is made to perform the functions of a teacher, especially if the person is not professionally qualified.

4.2 Improving the conditions of teaching in rural areas

The teaching environment is a major factor that determines not only the learning process but also the performance of the students. The effectiveness of rural schools in producing quality graduates therefore lies in a good teaching environment. Hence, any country that hopes to develop its education must provide a conducive teaching and learning environment. This is a missing gap that African governments must fill to enable their schools face the challenges of this present ICT era.

4.2.1 Political commitment to rural education

Beyond rhetoric and statements on the education of their countries, governments must be seen to be actively involved in the development of schools. Although there are statements by governments in Sub-Sahara African (SSA) countries that they recognise the importance of teachers in the development of their educational systems, the reality on the ground is that teachers are continuously treated as second class workers and their status have continued to be at risk despite the fact that no school can rise above the quality of its teachers. In addition, there has been overconcentration of development activities in the urban areas of these countries. This is occasioned by the fact that urban people are more visible. The commitment to education can be revealed through adequate provision of human and financial resources to rural schools. It is thus proposed that governments should show more commitment in providing a minimum of 26 percent of a country's budget to education. This should be within

the broad framework of rural development as the motivation of teachers to work in rural areas will be determined in part by the level and adequacy of infrastructure in rural areas.

Since many countries have not put rural teachers at the centre of their education policies, there should be explicit policies that make them more inclusive in the teaching, supervision and examination of pupils, as this will make the education system more effective. In addition, conditions such as bad maintenance or lack of physical facilities, arbitrary transfers of the teachers, non-provision of textbooks and teaching materials, delay in salary payments are issues that a responsive government must address if adequate teaching must take place in the schools in general and rural schools in particular. In some countries, the conditions are so bad that it might warrant the setting up of a taskforce to initiate the maintenance and repairs of existing school facilities while designing adequate ones for the future

4.2.2 Support, inspection and supervision services

Monitoring and evaluation are important activities that can ensure getting results in any institution. Over the years, the roles of school inspectors and supervisors have not been taken seriously. This is one of the best ways of improving the educational system of the country. The supervision and inspectorate divisions of many countries' are short-staffed and have enormous capacity gaps. They also do not have vehicles and other resources that will facilitate inspections. This becomes more difficult for rural areas where many villages are remote and difficult to reach. The inspectorate division of the education system must be revamped through the provision of adequate resources that will make them work effectively and efficiently. They should also be empowered to be able to focus specially on the rural areas. These activities should not be limited to inspection and supervision of the teachers, but should cover the facilities and resources in the rural schools. It should be noted that many governments actually slow down on these aspects, because most schools are owned by government and rather than seeing the results of school supervision as self-assessment, they fail to recognise it as government indictment in the education sector.

4.2.3 Community participation in rural schools and recognition of the role of teachers

The rural society in many developing countries is knitted together in such a way that any policy or programme can only be successful through the collaboration and involvement of the community. In this regard, government should involve the community in the necessary aspects of teaching and school improvement where they can be involved. The starting point may be appointment of

community members as school board members. As members of the school's board, they will be able to monitor and supervise the school and teachers. In addition, they can also serve as "early warning system" if the facilities of the school are deteriorating. By being members of the school's board, they can give adequate recognition to teachers' accomplishments and invite them to participate in various activities.

This is really important for rural schools as the degree to which a rural teacher becomes involved in community educational and cultural programmes will influence his or her decision to stay in a rural area. Therefore, retention requires a coordinated school-community effort. A school-community orientation can help new rural teachers overcome feelings of isolation, acquire a sense of community security and develop professional competence for rural service. Community support for rural schools, in term of provision of school buildings and other infrastructural facilities, can also help to create an environment that will assist in promoting good teaching in rural schools.

However, there should be an enabling environment to encourage the community to participate effectively in schools activities, such as supervision, monitoring and evaluation. This might require including community people in various schools management boards so that they can be effective in doing this.

Raising quality of education could be achieved by considering a set of appropriate characteristics and indicators for good teaching with emphasis on rural background. Specific quantitative and qualitative data that should be used as "indicators" for quality assessment should be clear. Common understanding of the role of indicators should answer the question - whether the indicators will describe the present situation or quantify the objectives which have been set. The education that will promote quality in rural schools will be influenced by different measurable and non-measurable factors.

4.2.4 Teacher recruitment, preparation and licensing process

The procedure of recruiting, preparing and managing teachers in rural schools is also an important factor in improving the teaching conditions of the schools. Teacher preparation should take into consideration "the three Is"- Initial training, Induction and In-service. Teaching condition in rural areas is linked to the availability of teachers in the schools. Since many teachers are reluctant to teach in rural areas, rural teachers should be recruited from areas close to where they are to teach. Various "grow-your-own" strategies offer incentives to local residents with potential to become teachers, such as assisting them in obtaining the needed education and training.

One strategy that can be pursued is targeted recruitment of teachers specifically for rural schools. The attempt to retain teachers who will be willing to teach in rural areas must start from the time students are being admitted into training programmes. Colleges of education must critically consider admitting students who demonstrate the characteristics of successful rural teaching. All teachers should receive professional training and be able to demonstrate their ability to teach students from diverse backgrounds. Institutions of higher learning should play an important role by offering cost-effective distance-learning courses to keep rural teachers up-to-date. Government should ensure retention of teachers by awarding scholarship or grants to attend distance learning programmes.

In order to recruit teachers that will teach in rural schools, efforts should be made to target candidates with rural backgrounds or with personal characteristics or educational experiences that make them better suitable to cope with the challenges of living in rural areas. This of course means that such teachers should have adequate knowledge and disposition for rural work. The challenges new teachers face when they enter the profession and find themselves in the most difficult terrain suggest that they need better exposure to the reality in the world of teaching while they are still studying to be teachers. Examples can be drawn from other professions like medicine, in which time is dedicated to rural training. This provides potential teachers with opportunities to develop interest in teaching under different conditions and cultures. The emphasis on background and adequate early exposure for prospective teachers to the environments in which they will teach is crucial for teaching in rural schools.

Teachers in rural areas should also receive specific training designed to teach pupils/students who live in those areas more effectively. For instance, they need to understand the place of culture in community service, including the language or dialect spoken and appropriate behaviours to be exhibited in rural communities. Notably, many countries, including Nigeria, are already exploiting the aforementioned situation where a teacher is only employed if he can work in his local area of origin. In countries with high unemployment, it is not difficult to agree to this arrangement, but adequate inspection and supervision must be put in place so that the recruited teachers perform the function for which they have been employed.

4.2.5 Use of ICT in teaching – learning process

Further, teachers should be able to utilize information-communications technology (ICT) as teaching and learning tools. ICT and open and distance education programmes can be used to expand and enhance learning opportunities for learners by allowing them access courses not available in their schools and

interact with students attending schools in other communities. However, this is still not feasible in many of the rural communities in Africa where basic amenities such as electricity supply are still inaccessible. Alternative sources of generating electricity such as solar and petrol powered generators can be explored. Therefore, to achieve the EFA goal, governments must urgently address the issues relating to the provision of adequate infrastructural facilities and teacher capacity building. It is imperative that appreciable number of new teaching positions - many of which will be in rural areas - need to be filled and equipped with modern facilities that will make rural teachers teach with ease.

4.2.6 Rewarding teachers' performance

Another strategy of improving teaching in rural schools is through performance based pay, usually called merit pay. Experiences from many countries have, however, shown that if students' performance bonus is paid to different teachers, it reduces overall performance in the schools. It is therefore proposed that such performance bonus be given to schools that significantly improve the performance of their graduating students. In this wise, it should be an across-the-board payment to all the teachers in that school. This will serve as an impetus for different schools to find better ways of improving the teaching and learning activities in their schools.

4.2.7 Class size and teaching techniques

The size of a class determines the workload of the teachers. This varies across rural areas in many developing countries. In some rural areas, class size is very low and in order to make the school cost efficient, government has encouraged teachers to undertake multi-grade teaching method. However, not many teachers are trained in this type of teaching technique thereby affecting the performance of the pupils. There is thus the need to organise short courses for teachers to be able to apply adequate teaching methods as the case applies. In some other rural areas, the class size is seasonal. The classes are full in some periods, but during the planting and harvesting seasons as well as market days, many children go to farms instead of to school. Government must thus put in place policies that will encourage flexibility in rural schools' time tabling, such that school programmes will be aligned with the labour requirement of the rural parents; to allow their children attend school and also render assistance for them during the planting and harvesting seasons. In addition, conditional subsidy that emphasises school attendance especially for the rural poor can be implemented in the rural areas. This will assist the teachers in teaching and also improve the performance of the students whose attendance rate will increase tremendously.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

Rural education is very central to achieving national priorities for economic growth and development. If provided with quality, it will build people for a strong rural economy. The vision of rural education, as presented in the preceding chapters of this booklet, should be to promote the creation of strong communities through improved working conditions of teachers and teaching. However, as a result of the poor environment under which teachers work, especially in the rural areas, quality of education has been adversely affected.

Rural people need quality education, in the form of literacy and numeracy skills, to become informed participants in the social life of their community and engage in its development. When people have the skills and knowledge they need to be part of the economic and social life of their community, it results in a more cohesive and inclusive society. A stronger and healthier civic society is part of the vision for rural education. However, rural schools face many challenges that do not exist in urban or suburban areas, such as geographic isolation, poor working conditions of teachers, poor remuneration of teachers, lack of adequate resources, and poor community involvement. Moreover, many rural schools are confronted with the problems of dilapidated buildings, lack of up to date textbooks and resources, and inability to retain competent and qualified teachers. Consequently, students' achievement in rural schools has become incredibly poor and most often varies, depending on what type of rural school they attend. Therefore, governments and policy makers need to put in place strategies that will serve to improve the working conditions of teachers and teaching in order to improve student achievement across rural schools in SSA countries.

This study reveals that it is important for policymakers and governments in SSA countries to implement a policy that will accord priority to adequate funding for the failing rural schools in order to keep them on the same level as the urban schools.

Further, a comprehensive and consistent comparative data on status of rural teachers' education in Africa should be generated so as to promote informed dialogue on pertinent education reform strategies in this respect. This suggestion is premised on the fact that data collection and monitoring are not ends in themselves but means to an end, such as for evidence-based policymaking. To achieve this, adequate time, human and material resources need to be mobilised to collect and analyse quantitative data. This will allow reliable conclusions to be drawn by policymakers and comparisons made for improving teachers' education and training.

It is important to ensure an organised collaboration between all the stakeholders in the provision of teachers for the education sector. This should be between the colleges of education and the relevant education authorities in ministries of education to develop a comprehensive database to track employment level and pattern of graduates from teachers' education programmes with a view to attract the most qualified hands to meet teachers demand in rural schools. The use of database will considerably redress the problem inherent in teachers' recruitment exercise, whereby urban areas have surplus of qualified teachers who are unemployed or underemployed while rural areas have unfilled positions.

The working conditions of teachers in many African countries still leave a lot to be desired. Efforts should be made at improving the salaries and wages of an average teacher to be at par with those in other professions. This will improve the status of teachers and their performance in school. Beyond the general improvement in teachers' welfare, those working in rural areas deserve additional incentives such as housing loans and salary bonuses to attract qualified and reputable teachers who have left the teaching profession to return, particularly if they are willing to work in rural schools and subject areas where there is shortage of staff. It is important that every government retains rural teachers by increasing the non-salary component of their emolument in the budget.

There should be a well - organised professional body for the teaching profession. This body should be established, owned and run by professional teachers. The long term objective of the body shall be to establish, maintain and entrench professionalism in the teaching profession. Expectedly, teachers should take responsibility for their actions by regulating who becomes a teacher, what curriculum should be taught, how the profession is practised and the sanction pattern for misconduct[30].

[30] These can be handled through teachers' professional association, such as the Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN)

There is need for a spirit and philosophy of realism and optimism for all stakeholders interested in rural education development to provide rural people with good quality education based on informed dialogue on education reform strategies. This can be accomplished by creating an awareness of the critical need to promote rural education among various constituencies. It is also important to recognise the important connection between rural education and economic development which should inform the provision of pertinent skills for teaching in rural areas.

Governments should also give strong support for rural education by providing adequate materials, finance and resources consistently over a long time for the development and improvement of rural schools across African countries. Even then, the success of rural education will depend largely on the monitoring and evaluation process of the educational system. Hence, governments should employ utilisation-focused evaluation of rural education programmes through collaborative teams involving both professionals in education and interested rural stakeholders.

We hope that policymakers in education will find this report useful and will pay due attention to the peculiar needs of rural education in their respective countries. Those who do so will find their country's situation improve considerably. Apparently, there is no single agenda for rural education that is applicable to all countries. Therefore, policymakers should give priority to indicators contributing most to teachers' attraction and retention in their country so as to improve the working conditions of teachers in rural areas for better teaching and learning outcomes across African countries.

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The booklet

Teaching in many developing and developed countries of the world is a stimulating, satisfying and rewarding career that provides the opportunity to influence and shape many lives. However, in many African countries, especially in the remote rural communities, the reverse is the case. This is largely due to the challenges facing teachers and teaching in rural schools, which do not exist in urban or sub-urban areas. Apart from the inconvenience arising from the geographic isolation experienced by teachers in many rural schools, there are also problems of poor conditions of service, poor remuneration of teachers, delay in payment of salaries, lack of adequate resources, and poor community involvement. Furthermore, many rural schools are confronted with the problem of dilapidated infrastructure, lack of up to date textbooks and resources. Consequently, efforts to attract and retain competent and qualified teachers in rural schools, to a very large extent, have become a problem to policy makers and educational managers. The effects of this on the general performance of students cannot be overemphasized. Students' test scores in many rural schools across the continent of Africa show a poor performance than that of their urban counterparts. This situation calls for urgent attention; otherwise, achieving the Education for All (EFA) goals and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) will continue to elude the continent and the endemic backwardness prevalent in many African countries and indeed in the rural areas will continue unabated. This study has critically examined the challenges facing teachers and teaching across African countries and recommends strategies for improving the situation.

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ISBN 978-99944-835-2-5