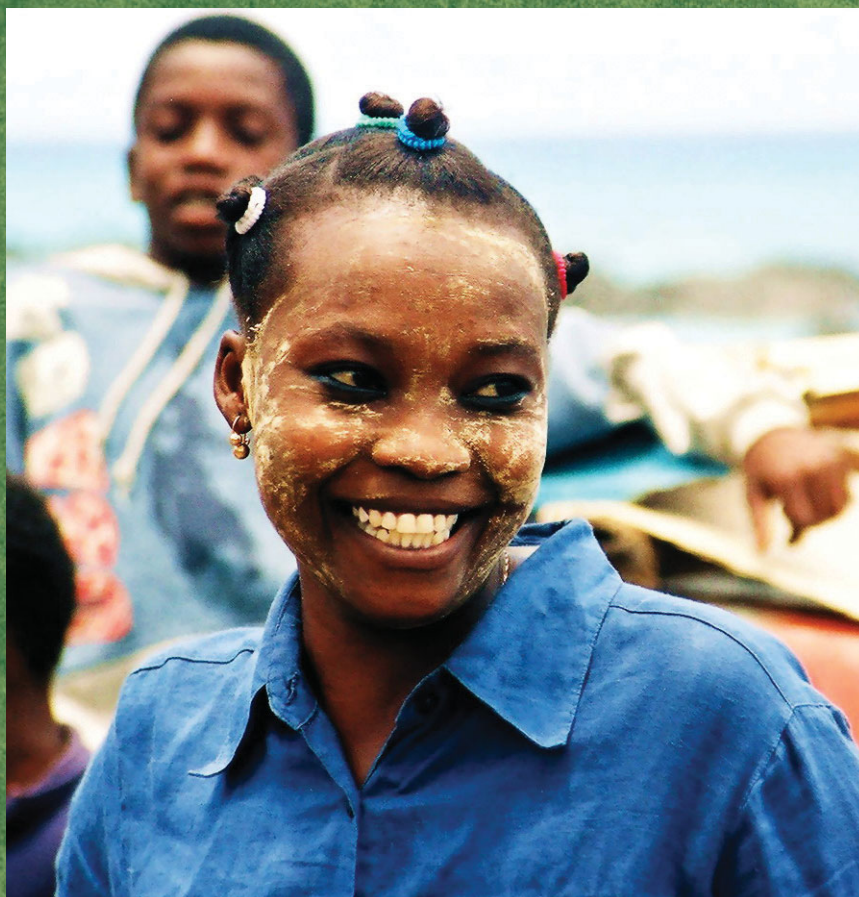


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The Link Between Health, Social Issues, and Secondary Education

Life Skills, Health, and Civic Education



THE WORLD BANK

The Link Between Health, Social Issues, and Secondary Education

Life Skills, Health, and Civic Education

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Foreword

Many African countries are undertaking important economic reforms, improving macroeconomic management, liberalizing markets and trade, and widening the space for private sector activity. Where these reforms have been sustained they have raised growth and incomes and reduced poverty. However, Africa still faces serious development challenges. More than 314 million Africans live on less than \$1 a day—nearly twice as many as in 1981. The continent has 34 of the world’s 48 poorest countries. The HIV/AIDS pandemic costs Africa 1 percentage point of per capita growth a year, while malaria kills about 2,800 Africans a day.

UN and World Bank progress reports on achieving the MDGs attest to a renewed commitment in Africa to defeat poverty and disease. The Education for All- Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) involves more than 30 bilateral and international agencies and has gradually made important strides. In the coming years, the key challenges are to continue the efforts towards achieving universal primary education, to expand secondary school access in response to demands from growing African economies, and to improve quality, relevance and equity of learning across the board.

Secondary education and training (SEIA) will be one of the key factors for increased economic growth and social development. Recent developments in Asia and Latin America have shown these trends convincingly. SEIA graduates enter labor markets that increasingly demand *modern knowledge and skills, readiness to take initiatives, and ability to solve problems and to innovate products and processes*. SEIA is also indispensable for young people to become productive citizens and to lead healthy lives.

Our Human Development strategy is anchored in the Africa Action Plan. Through the AAP we work in partnership with other development partners to assist African countries. The SEIA study initiative of our Africa Human Development Department (AFTHD) is led by Jacob Bregman (lead education specialist). The study aims to assist countries in developing sustainable strategies for expansion and quality improvement in SEIA.

SEIA’s eight thematic studies have been conducted with an emphasis on stakeholder participation. The draft reports have been discussed at the two regional SEIA conferences (Kampala 2003 and Dakar 2004). A SEIA donor workshop was held in 2005 in Amsterdam. All SEIA products are available on the website: www.worldbank.org/afr/seia.

This thematic study is about the link between health, social issues and secondary education. The study is based on country studies in six SSA countries (Eritrea, Mali, Namibia, Senegal, South Africa, and Tanzania) and a literature review. It looks at the role of secondary education and training in promoting health, civics and life skills among the African youth. Specifically, this study focuses on examining which schooling programs are effective in equipping young people with life skills, which programs reduce dropout and increase participation and how schools can become agents in tackling health and social issues. Peer education and youth involvement are also key areas for consideration; peer education is an outstanding feature of the study’s findings. Where resources are limited, community engagement becomes even more important in addressing health and civic education issues. The study also reiterates that secondary teachers are critical change agents

in Health and Civic Education spheres. The findings have major implications for secondary teacher education and support.

Hopefully, this thematic study will make a timely and useful contribution to the debate on SEIA issues.

Yaw Ansu

Director Human Development Department

Africa Region

The World Bank

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This thematic study report on the link between health, social issues and secondary education was prepared on a contract-basis for the SEIA study initiative of the Africa Region Human Development Department (AFTHD) in the World Bank. The production of this SEIA thematic report was coordinated by the Centre for International Education (LINS) at the Oslo University College.

Preliminary findings from the study were presented and discussed at the two SEIA regional conferences (Uganda 2003 and Senegal 2004). The final draft report was reviewed by education specialists and the SEIA core team. Jacob Bregman (SEIA Task Team Leader and Lead Education Specialist, AFTHD) and Adriaan Verspoor (SEIA Senior Education Consultant) provided extensive comments and inputs on the drafts.

This study has benefited from an extensive in-country and synthesis work carried out by TIP at the Faculty of Education, University of Western Cape, South Africa. Additional inputs were provided by the Norwegian consortium consisting of Akershus University College, the Norwegian National Institute of Technology, the Norwegian Institute for Studies in Research and Higher Education, and the Norwegian Board of Education. The authors would like to thank Per Dalin for lending his skills and experience; all of the local researchers who undertook the case studies; and Angela Arnott from SADC for providing a focused critique of the report.

This SEIA study was financed by the World Bank and the Norwegian Education Trust Fund (NETF)—which is gratefully acknowledged.

Abbreviations

AAC	Anti Aids Clubs
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BLO	Better Life Options, South Africa
CBO	Community Based Organization
CRDI	Canadian Rural Development Institute
EFA	Education for All
EVF/EMP	Education in Family life and Population Matters, Mali
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationists
FLE	Family Life Education, Senegal and Tanzania
GEEP	Group for Population Studies and Education, Senegal
GER	General Enrollment Ratio
GNP	Gross National Product
HAMSET	HIV/AIDS, Malaria, Sexually Transmitted Diseases, TB-related program in Eritrea
HESI	Short for “The link between health and social issues and secondary education: Life-skills, health and civic education”—one of the SEIA thematic studies.
HIAK	Akershus University College
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HPS	Health Promoting Schools Programme, South Africa
HPSI	Health Promoting Schools Initiative, Namibia
ICT	Information and communication technology
IIEP	International Institute of Educational Planning, UNESCO
LINS	Centre for International Education, Oslo
LS	Norwegian Board of Education, Oslo
MBESC	Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MoH	Ministry of Health
NAC	National AIDS Commission, Mali
NER	Net enrollment ratio
NUEYS	National Union of Eritrean Youth and Students
NGO	Non Government Organization
OBE	Outcome-based education
OY	Ombetja Yehinga, Namibia
PDEF	Ten-year Education and Training Program, Senegal
PRODEC	Ten-year Plan for Education Development, Mali
PRODESS	Five-year Plan for Education Development
SEIA	Secondary Education in Africa
SHC	School Health Committee
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
STD	Sexually-transmitted Disease

SWAA	Society for Women and AIDS, Senegal
SWP	Summer Work Programme, Eritrea
TI	The National Institute of Technology, Oslo
TIE	Tanzanian Institute of Education
TIP	Teacher Inservice Programme, UWC, Cape Town
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
USIKO	Community-based organization in South Africa
UWC	University of Western Cape, Cape Town

Executive Summary

Despite heavy emphasis on basic and primary education over the past two decades, there is renewed interest in the importance of secondary education in the developing world. Secondary education is increasingly valued for its social as well as economic roles in preparing young people for adulthood.

Education is also viewed as a change agent although the evidence for its effectiveness with regard to promoting health and life skills education contributing to behavior change is dubious as the country studies included in this report (Eritrea, Malawi, Namibia, Senegal, South Africa and Uganda) demonstrate.

However, this evidence should be used to improve the situation rather than to abandon the schools as a vehicle for behavioral change as they carry great potential for this task. Therefore, this qualitative study focuses on examining which schooling programs are effective in equipping children with life skills, which programs reduce dropout and increase participation and how schools can become agents in tackling health and social issues.

Three broad approaches to these challenges are identified—within school, into school, and beyond school programs or interventions. There appear to be more instances of the last two approaches being used than the “within school” approach; it has for example, proved difficult to find convincing examples of school curricular projects in the selected countries.

A more promising field is the “into school” concept where numerous activities have been identified at various levels of significance. “Beyond school activities” are also many and tend to be the province of NGOs, thus leading to perceptions of them as outside the mainstream and less valuable: the focus on examination success at the secondary level also militates against activities seen as reducing time available to pupils for study.

Important in the study’s analysis is the identification of prime movers such as Ministries of Education, Health or Employment, NGOs and UN agencies plus *ad hoc* local initiatives from teachers’ organizations and the like.

For the purpose of this study, it was felt that no distinction should be drawn between junior and senior secondary schools. Although these may be regarded as distinct stages of secondary education, in practice in most SSA countries they share the same characteristics. In this report, the term “secondary education” includes both junior and senior secondary education levels.

Before examining promising practices more thoroughly, the report provides working definitions of curriculum, life skills, civics, and health education. The report emphasizes the *qualitative* nature of this inquiry with its focus on who is doing what and to what effect rather than attempting to quantify promising practices and their inputs and outcomes.

It was considered futile to elaborate on costs and benefits in monetary terms of the promising practices, as they differ too much with regard to content and context. It is evident that testing out of various practices is important, even if they might seem too expensive at first glance. Most government education systems in developing countries will seldom afford such testing. Here the contribution of NGOs can prove to be important. When and if promising practices are to be taken to scale, mainstreamed or generalized, questions of economic sustainability will need to be assessed.

The preparatory phase of the study was characterized by the participatory development of conceptual tools and defining promising practices to include those thought to have potential for effectiveness and success.

The study was set up as a joint consortium of experts from various institutions in Norway and researchers at the University of Western Cape, South Africa, as well as in-country researchers in each of the focus countries. A list of researchers is provided in Appendix A.

Selection criteria for promising practices were also developed jointly to include *inter alia* such ideas as whether records had been kept of results and outcomes, whether such accounts were accessible, whether activities were replicable and sustainable, whether they had been disseminated, whether they were context specific and where ownership was located.

Following this exercise, instruments for the study were developed and followed up with a joint planning seminar in Cape Town which agreed approaches, instruments and a work plan for completion of the study, including appointment of local country researchers and gaining access to sites in the selected countries. Fieldwork and data collection involved the use of interview schedules, observations, and documentary analysis.

Site reports were collected and collated to form the basis of a country report, thus representing the first stage in the analysis of data; findings from the six country reports were compiled into a thematic report which was then subjected to a quality check, followed by the development of a synthesis report.

Strengths and limitations of the report relate particularly to issues surrounding collaborative inquiries of this type conducted at a distance, time constraints including the phasing of the study at a time (October to March) when schools in the Southern hemisphere conduct examinations and take a long vacation, use of local researchers who not only have local knowledge and competence but may also filter information for purposes of their own.

Overall, the study reveals a rich and textured account of the reality under examination. In addition to the quality of data generated, the experience of joint, collaborative research between North and South was wholly positive, as well as the collaboration South-South (between UWC and researchers/institutions in the six case countries). This HESI study has no doubt contributed to developing competence, institutional capacity, and professional linkages both in the South and in Norway.

The project was regarded in all the case countries selected as valuable and important providing an opportunity for local practitioners to reflect on the issues under examination.

There are four chapters to the synthesized report. The first chapter locates the report within its broader context by providing the background to the study and briefly outlining its rationale and purpose. This chapter also describes the methodology followed in conducting the fieldwork and completing the analysis of the data collected. The second chapter of the report provides an overview of the countries and promising practices included in the study in a tabular form. Chapter 3 focuses on the factors that enable and constrain promising practices, before concluding and providing recommendations in Chapter 4.

Findings from the study indicate that the following characteristics typify promising practices:

- Links between schools and communities leading to support for promising practices,
- Visionary leadership which empowers participants at many levels,

- Systemic links with government and/or NGOs,
- National, regional, and local policies which provide guidance but which allow flexibility,
- Reflective learning practices for all participants,
- Variety in approaches to curriculum, teacher preparation and peer educators,
- Strategies which tap into the capacities of a broad group of participants from a variety of contexts,
- Funding and other factors which contribute to sustainability, and
- Systems and procedures which facilitate record keeping and accessible information.

Factors which influence promising practices are examined in the study holistically; such factors interact in a complex way and should not be studied as independent variables. In some of the cases studied, integrating approaches into the school curriculum was an enabling factor; in others, basing strategies within the community worked better. The use of volunteers was similarly seen both as enabling and as inhibiting in different contexts.

This finding indicates that investing in a single factor, such as strong leadership, may not prove effective as the interaction of enabling factors present in a successful program may be more important for success. In particular, a significant cluster of factors influencing promising practices relates to the concept of sustainability. Leadership, policy, and funding appear to be the “big three” which together contribute most to sustainability.

The cluster of factors contributing to institutionalization of a promising practice are identified as an integrated curriculum, appropriate teacher education, relevant materials, structural support, ongoing evaluation, and peer education. These broad indicators are a digest of critical factors drawn from the 18 programs and projects examined in the six selected countries. Fully-formed exemplars of model practice were not revealed from which clear principles could be drawn. The conclusions summarized below provide a further set of themes and concepts which illustrate what promising practices might offer.

The promising practices examined in the selected countries all represent multi-problem initiatives; intervention strategies have to take cognizance of the complex of problems addressed by such programs in contexts characterized by scarce resources.

Conclusions from the study suggest that the promising practices identified are bound up with the relationship between health and civic education on the one hand and access to secondary education on the other. The effect of limited access to secondary education reduces access to health-related knowledge while illness limits access to school in a circular relationship. Promising practices need to take this circularity into account.

Teachers are critical change agents in the health and civic education spheres the study deals with and there are major implications from the findings for teacher education, professionalization, and support.

Peer education and youth involvement are also key areas for consideration; peer education is an outstanding feature of the study’s findings. However, peer educators need to operate within a supportive environment and in a climate of community involvement for best effect.

Where resources are limited, community engagement becomes even more important in addressing health and civic education issues. The hosts of resourceful people and organizations within communities need to be empowered and enabled to make an optimum contribution.

Leadership is an essential ingredient for development and sustainability, whether located in a ministry or other organizations. Visionary and empowering leadership, located at various levels within systems and organizations is a key finding of the study. However, leadership as represented in visionary policies is equally important.

Ongoing evaluation as a means to investigating, publicizing and improving practice is a further critical area for investment.

The study concludes with recommendations which suggest that community participation, linking “within school” to “beyond school” activities, buttressed by training and developmental strategies, is essential for program success.

An integrated curriculum, pre- and in-service teacher education, institutionalization of programs, ongoing evaluation and research, plus adequate funding provide the other important enabling functions which will turn promising practices into successful programs.

Most probably, secondary education in Africa will receive increased and strengthened attention in the years to come. Parallel to this development hopefully an increase in number of promising approaches within the focal areas of this study will be seen. The present report reflects upon empirical material collected by February 2003 in six African countries only. As it is generally acknowledged that cost-efficiency of activities will improve if one can learn from others’ successes and mistakes, further studies are required in order to produce needed information for development in this field. Steps should also be taken to secure distribution of relevant findings to those persons and institutions who are dealing with these challenges from day to day.

Introduction

Context of the Study

Investing resources and capacity in the education systems' role as a change agent—for instance in the fields of health, life skills, and nutrition—implies that one believes there is an untapped or underutilized potential somewhere, and that it is possible to improve and strengthen this potential. A complex of school-related activities, including curriculum, may be seen to contribute to attitude and behavior change and the school in one form or another remains the most widely available mechanism for social and economic mobility. Some commentators have gone so far as to claim that, aside from nationality, schooling may be the biggest determinant of life-chances for many people (Smith 2003). However, the literature relating to HIV/AIDS and the role of the education system is not overly optimistic in this regard. A recent synthesis report of findings and recommendations of country studies in Botswana, Malawi, and Uganda is relatively critical (Bennell, Hyde, and Swainson 2002). This report concludes that there is little hard evidence to show that school-based HIV/AIDS education and, more generally, sexual reproductive health and life skills education, has had a major impact on sexual behavior. Although there are large variations, most countries' education systems undoubtedly have tremendous potential in terms of personnel, infrastructure and the role they play at all levels of society. These potentials should be tapped for instance in the fight against HIV, as part of a set of strategies to reduce the risk, vulnerability, and impact of HIV/AIDS.

Today, while it is widely recognized that HIV/AIDS education should be culturally sensitive and adaptive to local contexts, it is also clear that effective HIV/AIDS education needs to challenge deeply-held personal, organizational, and societal values that

perpetuate practices and attitudes which spread the disease. This new role for teachers and the approach it requires, affects the lesson material, class discussions, lesson planning, and teaching and learning methods in new and different ways. Effective HIV/AIDS curricula are interactive and participatory and draw on the resourcefulness and knowledge of learners as peer educators and community facilitators—all of which results in innovative and challenging classroom teaching and learning processes and school development strategies.

Institutional Collaboration

This report is part of the SEIA study commissioned by the Africa Region of the World Bank. One of the main intentions of the SEIA study has been to build bridges between the North and the South in terms of linking institutions, as well as strengthening institutional and personal links between countries in the South. The institutional linkage with the Western Cape was a significant aspect of the whole study. Not only were plans for the work and the subsequent procedures worked out jointly but all aspects of the report preparation were shared. The collaboration benefited all parties, the members of the Norwegian consortium, the University of the Western Cape and the field-based research teams. Some challenges arose from the working style adopted, particularly related to collaborating at a distance, time constraints of the study as well as the role of the researchers and their power both to select sites and to exclude sites from the selection process. The latter needs special attention in particular when local researchers may have hidden agendas for including or excluding various cases. Despite these challenges and limitations, considerable amounts of data were collected from a number of different sites within the timeframe. These data have yielded rich and textured descriptions which have been analyzed to provide an understanding of promising practices.

However, the building of a firm relationship between partners in the North and South was a welcome outcome from the HESI study on which it is hoped to build for the future. Capacities were built among all the partners and deeper understanding of the opportunities and problems which arise in jointly-conducted studies of this type.

The South African and Norwegian teams worked jointly, selecting countries, identifying sites and generating a shared understanding of the purpose, concepts, processes, and strategies for the study. Early in 2003, the South African researchers visited the six case countries: Eritrea, Mali, Namibia, Senegal, South Africa, and Tanzania. Each South African researcher worked alongside a local (country) counterpart.

The finalization of the study was supported by feedback from participants in the conference on Secondary Education in Africa in Kampala June 2003. The feedback from the Kampala conference emphasized the importance of cultural factors, empowerment programs, gender issues, and the potential of using ICT for discussions and learning about sensitive issues. Furthermore, it was noted that the role played by teachers, especially related to HIV/AIDS, was controversial. Another controversy relates to whether or not to make life skills and health education an examinable subject. Finally, the conference identified a need for further exploring the changing role of learners, challenges related to child-headed households, the relevance of education to a rapidly-changing social situation, and the status and professionalism of teachers.

Junior and Senior Secondary Education

For the purposes of this study, it was felt that no distinction should be drawn between junior and senior secondary schooling. Although these may be regarded as distinct stages of secondary education, in practice in most SSA countries they share the same characteristics. First and foremost, access is by selection through more or less rigorous examination procedures. Primary school-leaving examinations are the filter system for selection for junior secondary education and the junior secondary examination filters out those thought unsuitable for further academic schooling at the senior secondary level. Secondly, the curricula at both stages are linked. Junior secondary education is rarely seen as a terminal stage although in fact it is for a majority of pupils (Al Samarrai and Bennell 2003). Where once a “Junior Certificate” meant access to a job or to further education as a teacher or nurse, inflation of credentials has reduced this markedly. A full Secondary School Certificate is now the minimum qualification for employment or further education and junior secondary is increasingly seen purely as a means of access to it. Thirdly, the styles of teaching and learning are identical with a reliance on mastering a set syllabus in preparation for an examination which largely will test cognitive skills as represented by memorization. Despite attempts to reform examination systems and approaches to teaching and learning at this level, they remain largely unchanged. Finally, junior secondary and senior secondary schools frequently operate as a unitary organization in the same buildings on the same campus with the same principal. For these reasons this study did not differentiate between the two stages.

Promising Practices

The study is based on identifying and analyzing “promising practices” related to these questions (life skills, health, and civic education) in secondary schools in Africa. The team of researchers decided to adopt the concept of “promising practice” instead of applying the more familiar concept of “best practice.” “Promising” is seen to fit more with the aim of the study, allowing for the inclusion of the study of activities not necessarily identified as good today, but with the *potential* to develop in the a positive direction. The focus within the study is on trying to understand underlying reasons why a practice is promising, and the necessary conditions and processes leading to an activity becoming more effective than others.

Promising practices are furthermore defined as those which are generally regarded as such by significant stakeholders, which clearly produce desired results, are cost-efficient, are replicable, and require no extraordinary resources or inputs. Included in the definition may be a program, a policy, an advisory service, a set of materials, or a conventional school curriculum. It may also be that the potential for success within an approach or program qualifies it for inclusion in a list of promising practices.

A Qualitative Study

A study of promising practices, including an investigation of those factors which promote such practices in different country contexts, calls for a largely qualitative study. From the outset this was conceived by the joint team as a qualitative study which would seek insight

into how and why programs worked or failed, rather than quantifying inputs, outcomes, and outputs. By the nature of an inquiry into what might constitute promising practices in the selected areas it was felt that typically qualitative methods such as interviews, focus groups and documentary analysis would provide the type of information the study required. This report draws on both the empirical work conducted as case studies of individual programs as well as interviews and conversations with officials in the Ministry of Education, heads of service organizations such as NGOs, religious organizations and individuals interested in educational change. A challenge that faced the team throughout the study was that of developing an understanding of the inter-connections between policies, reform and promising practices and their relationship and relevance to local contextual conditions.

Rationale for the Study and Methodology

There are two sections to this chapter. The first locates the report within its broader context by providing the background to the study and briefly outlining its rationale and purpose. The second section describes the methodology followed in conducting the study from the preparatory phase through the phase of data collection to that of analysis and documentation.

Rationale for the Study

Since the worldwide Education for All process was initiated in Jomtien in 1990, the significant priority given to primary education in many countries has become evident. International donors as well as the development lending institutions have tended to focus on the first years of schooling. A number of education sector-wide approaches and programs have concentrated on quantitative and qualitative development of the first years of education, with a particular emphasis on public education systems.

This has been a necessary and important development. Nevertheless, one of the consequences is that other levels of the education system have been less prioritized. In many developing countries, large “bulges” of students coming from primary education are seeking further education, which, to a large extent has not been strengthened in accordance with the needs. In some countries this is becoming a real and large-scale problem, with thousands of young people aspiring to participating further in general or vocational education, but with limited or no opportunities. At the same time many of these countries, and in particular those in SSA, are undergoing socioeconomic reforms and transformations, which reduce the possibilities for traditional occupations or employment in rural areas. The increase in the

In several countries, special efforts have been introduced in order to attract children to primary education. Often this is in the form of providing free education, including cutting school fees, as for instance in Uganda: As a consequence of the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE), enrollment in primary schools, which accounted for 2.2 million pupils in 1996, is expected to reach 6.8 million by 2003. One of the main challenges of UPE which needs immediate policy development and action is related to the extension and improvement of post-primary educational institutions in the country in order to give room for the large “bulge” of children from primary school. Until now Government policies for post-primary education have remained in the shadow of the UPE reform (Wirak 2003).

number of unemployed youth has become a major problem in many countries and, for instance, has led to an increase in poverty and crime. There is today considerable political pressure on governments to invest more and improve their secondary education capacity.

Another parallel entry point to the argument for strengthening secondary education is the importance of this phase of education for economic development. The rationale for the World Bank SEIA Study emphasizes this as set out in the Terms of Reference for this HESI study:

Investment in secondary education in Sub-Saharan Africa will provide countries with critical higher-level skills and knowledge for advanced learning and training of technicians, scientists, entrepreneurs, and yields considerable social and private returns. Secondary education plays a crucial role in preparing for higher education and for work, for youth and in a life-long learning perspective. In Sub-Saharan Africa, less than one-third of the age group takes part in secondary education. In these countries there is a strong pressure to expand this level in the educational system, especially at lower secondary level. The main purpose of the SEIA regional study is to summarize key lessons for lower and upper secondary education reforms in Sub-Saharan African countries and draw from successful reforms in other regions. SEIA's overall objectives are to: (a) Collect and summarize best practices and identify sustainable development plans for expansion and improved quality, equity, and efficiency of delivery of secondary education in SSA; (b) Identify policy options for the development of a strategic agenda for implementation of secondary education reforms in SSA countries; and (c) Recommend how donor agencies could better coordinate and support secondary education reform agendas in SSA.

A third main reason for strengthening secondary education is related to the potentially important role of this level of schooling in terms of the age of the students. Secondary schools are important institutions as they are organized social arenas for the transformation of children to adulthood. This transformation concerns both biological and psychological processes, and the transformation process has an impact on how each individual relates to others, the local community, and the wider community. In most societies, this age group is connected with transformation rites and social institutions of change, the consequence of which is that the individual is accepted as adult, with the rights and duties connected to this status.

In many SSA countries the traditional systems for taking care of the transforming rites have been weakened or destroyed due to war, unrest, increased mobility of people, or simply because such practices are not perceived to be relevant to the “modern lifestyle.” Family and community systems are changing; systems of local control and decisionmaking mechanisms have been uprooted. Increasing numbers of the people searching for a livelihood in the growing towns will often not find the customary safety net of relatives and

communities that once were found. Such societies can often be characterized as threatened by both rootlessness and a loss of norms.

As the promising practices in this study indicate, secondary education has the potential to be an important arena in training young people how to live under changing conditions—how to get trained to function physically and psychically under new social organizations and with rapidly changing technology. The secondary level of education is considered appropriate for explaining and teaching how to relate to a complex and globalized world, a challenging but crucial task.

In general, one can say that the realities of economic and social life in most African countries dictate that conventional approaches to secondary schooling and their accompanying curricula—often inherited from colonial regimes and remaining largely unchanged for forty or more years—need to be adapted to new conditions. These conditions may be summarized as: difficult if not declining economic environments with poorly developed labor markets, widespread political insecurity, social unrest and both national and international conflicts, as well as declining social environments and breakdown of traditional communities perpetuated by urbanization. Furthermore, the rising tide of danger from HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, and other deadly diseases, as well as rising demands for schooling accompanied by inadequate supply, in terms of both quality and quantity, pose tremendous challenges to the education system (World Bank 2000a).

The Role of the Education Sector

Investing resources and capacity in the education systems' role as a change agent—for instance in the fields of health, life skills, and nutrition—implies that one believes there is an untapped or underutilized potential somewhere, and that it is possible to improve and strengthen this potential. A complex of school—related activities, including curriculum, may be seen to contribute to attitude and behavior change, and the school in one form or another, remains the most widely available mechanism for social and economic mobility. Some commentators have gone so far as to claim that, aside from nationality, schooling may be the biggest determinant of life chances for many people (Smith 2003).

However, the literature relating to HIV/AIDS and the role of the education system is not overly optimistic in this regard. A recent synthesis report of findings and recommendations of country studies in Botswana, Malawi, and Uganda is relatively critical (Bennell, Hyde, and Swainson 2002). This report concludes that there is little hard evidence to show that school—based HIV/AIDS education and, more generally, sexual reproductive health and life skills education, has had a major impact on sexual behavior. Generally speaking, students at the surveyed schools were well informed about the causes and consequences of HIV/AIDS. It is translating this knowledge into behavior change that remains the major hurdle. Economic and social/cultural pressures that fuel unsafe sex among adolescents remain as high as ever, and in the poorest communities, are probably increasing. There is growing concern about the risk of female students contracting HIV from teachers and other older men. Condom use remains highly controversial, for example in Malawi (Bennell, Hyde, and Swainson 2002).¹

1. See also Barnes and Mosha (2003) with reference to denominational schools.

The country studies from Malawi and Uganda point to a number of shortcomings within the education system in these countries:

- Curriculum design and delivery is seriously problematic.
- The “integration and infusion” approach whereby HIV/AIDS topics are included in carrier subjects is not effective.
- Teachers lack both the competence and commitment to teach these topics.
- Guidance and counseling services and peer education are also seriously inadequate.

Results of programs and curriculum innovations introduced so far have had mixed results. Kelly, in his 2000 report “Planning for Education in the Context of HIV/AIDS,” argues that this is not a reason for not pursuing the programs, but, on the contrary, a signal that approaches need to be improved. They need to be better targeted, more flexible, prolonged, consistent and above all made intersectoral, combining formal and non-formal education,

The HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan for Ministry of Education and Sports in Uganda states:

The education and sport sector is a unique tool for spreading HIV/AIDS information and awareness. As an already organized infrastructure, it is cost-effective and can reach a large audience of teachers/instructors and administrative staff, pupils and their parents, . . .

education with health, education with strategies to fight poverty, education with mass-media campaigns. Kelly’s point of view is supported by others who emphasize the tremendous potential and important role of education in the years to come. Caillods of UNESCO/IIEP, in the preface to Kelly’s report, states that for a long time, HIV/AIDS was considered to be essentially a medical problem, but

now it has become clear that prevention is essential and that education is potentially the single most powerful weapon against HIV transmission. The World Bank AIDS Campaign Team for Africa (World Bank 2000b) underlines that the education sector can be used to help bring the epidemic under control and to mitigate increased social disruption.

Although there are large variations, most countries’ education systems undoubtedly have tremendous potential in terms of personnel, infrastructure and the role they play at all levels of society. These potentials should be tapped for instance in the fight against HIV as part of a set of strategies to reduce risk, vulnerability, and the impact of HIV/AIDS. The following facts underline this (Wirak 2003):

- Between one-fifth and one-quarter of all people in the world are engaged in the direct work of education on a day-to-day basis, as learners or as teachers (Kelly 2000). This means that the schools are the most important “arena” and meeting places outside the homes.
- Education is one of the prioritized national sectors. Growth in education is considered important for general development and prosperity.
- Teachers represent one of the largest groups of employees in all countries. They represent an enormous potential force of communicating HIV/AIDS-related messages. Most often teachers have high status due to their role as educators, and will often in addition to their function as teachers, play central social, political, and other roles in the communities.

- Schools represent infrastructure located in the communities. These buildings and systems are available and often used for community activities, health campaigns, sports, parties, and politics.
- The national school curriculum represents a powerful channel of communication to learners and their families in many countries. The schoolbooks and other school material have a high status.
- Compared to other sectors, education traditionally plays an important role and is considered attractive, by itself and due to its results. Education is wanted, and educated people attain status. People often prioritize investment in the education of their children.
- Although not functioning optimally in all countries, the education sector represents a powerful system with large planning, coordinating and communicative means.

Some of the countries included in this HESI study have low rates of schooling and literacy, for instance Mali. This study has found that the school is still an important societal institution, which strives to inform, educate and communicate not only to schoolchildren, but through them, to their parents and the whole community. The school in these contexts thus has an extraordinary multiplying effect, which has been exploited in the projects studied.

One of the ideas of this HESI study is to identify examples of promising activities in secondary education within a more specific area, but closely related to the above phenomena. The study focuses on issues, questions and best practices related to the link between health and social issues and secondary education, with a particular emphasis on life skills, health and civic education. The study explores the following questions related to the main theme:

- Which schooling programs at lower and upper secondary school level effectively equip youth with information on health issues, civics, and life skills?
- Which learning programs are effectively increasing participation and reducing dropout rates among youth-at-risk at the secondary level?
- How can teachers and staff in secondary education become agents in tackling problems such as HIV/AIDS, malaria, sexual life styles, and in promoting positive civic values?

The study aims to identify and analyze promising practices related to these questions. Promising practices are initially defined as those which are generally regarded as such by significant stakeholders, which clearly produce desired results, are cost-efficient, are replicable and which require no extraordinary resources or inputs. Included in the definition may be a program, a policy, an advisory service, a set of materials or a conventional school curriculum. It may also be that the potential for success within an approach or program qualifies it for inclusion in a list of promising practices.

Activities Implemented In and Out of Schools

In examining efforts to reach youth with the important messages and information subsumed within this HESI Study it has become apparent that at least three broad approaches may be identified:

- Curriculum approaches integrated with the regular school curriculum - the *within-school* programs or activities (which may vary in Banks and Banks' terms from the contributive to the social action levels of intensity [Banks and Banks 1989]).
- Those complementary to and supplementary to the regular school program, often sponsored by or conducted by NGOs and CBOs - the *into-school* activities.
- Those functioning entirely outside the schools but targeting school-aged youth—the *beyond-school* programs and projects

Studies undertaken early in the HESI process indicated that there is far more going on in the last two categories than in the first. It has proved very difficult to find concrete and convincing examples of school curricular programs or projects at the secondary level that fit the criteria the overall study is framed around. Inquiries in Eritrea, Uganda, Tanzania, and Zambia revealed plans “to do something” at the junior secondary level but with no hard evidence of what is actually being accomplished. There is, on the other hand, a great deal of material available at the primary or basic education level (in some areas also including lower secondary). In Banks and Banks' terms, the social action approach, or even the transformation approach, has yet to be adopted in many African countries, especially at the secondary school level.

A far richer field is that of the “into-school” concept and many countries have what Banks and Banks would call additive programs or activities. The list of these is extensive, but a further problem arises in terms of the significance and scale of many of the programs described. For example, a number of good and promising activities are shown among street children in Tanzania, but only 60 recipients are benefiting from the program (Banks and Banks 1989).

Beyond-school activities are also many and varied and tend to be the province of NGOs, either local and national or international. By their very nature, these tend to be add-on and, unless a deal is done to incorporate their principles and materials into aspects of the regular curriculum, they suffer as a consequence. The prime importance of examination success at secondary level militates against “into-school” activities, which appear to dilute or reduce the amount of time available for students to focus on academic work. However, notable examples of successful “into-school” activities do exist.

The scale of an activity may be important but a further issue is the identification of the prime movers or sponsors such as the Ministry of Education, other government Ministries such as Health or Employment, recognized NGOs/CBOs, international agencies such as UN specialized agencies and finally, ad hoc local initiatives including the work of local teachers' organizations and community groups.

Methodology

This section of the report includes some definitions applied and describes the three phases of the empirical study—the preparatory phase, the fieldwork and data collection phase, and the phase of data analysis and documentation.

Some Definitions

Within this study, *the curriculum* will be defined as the set of organized learning experiences encountered in formal schools and will include syllabuses, learning materials and approaches

to teaching and learning. Alternative and broader definitions of learning experiences and programs may be required for initiatives targeted at youth outside the formal school. *Life skills* will be defined in terms of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for an individual to function in society and to be able to satisfy basic cultural, material, and security needs. Life skills may be taught as a subsection of a civics program or through the medium of other school subjects. *Civics* education normally involves the systematic teaching of citizenship, individual and human rights and often includes direct teaching regarding the civic and political institutions of the country. Civics may also be subsumed within an ideological program such as Zambia's efforts during the 1970s to promote *Zambian Humanism* as a curriculum subject. *Health* education may again be found as a separate curriculum subject or as a set of topics and concepts incorporated into science, home economics or other related school subjects. Outside the school the treatment of these important concepts varies considerably according to the nature of the program for out-of-school or at-risk youth. They are rarely found as "subjects" as encountered in a traditional school curriculum (Smith 2003).

A study of promising practices and an investigation of those factors which promote such practices in different country contexts calls for a largely qualitative study. This report draws on both the empirical work conducted as case studies of individual programs as well as interviews and conversations with officials in the Ministry of Education, heads of service organizations such as NGOs, religious organizations, and individuals interested in educational change.

Phase 1: The Preparatory Phase

The preparatory phase of the HESI study was characterized by the development of a conceptual framework, investigation of existing knowledge, initial search for possible promising practices, and formulation of the state of the art document. This phase was much influenced by communication with the World Bank staff and the processes leading to a final set of Terms of Reference and Agreement.

Discussing "Promising Practices"

An internet search mainly using the Google search engine revealed more than 3.5 million hits on the concept of "good practices." When studying the first pages of Google's references, it became evident that this concept is very much connected to international development work, particularly to gender and development, but also to education, health, and environment. Searches for, studies on, and description of "good practices," "projects," or "cases" have become common and have been accompanied by parallel development of concepts and methodologies. These approaches gained popularity from the 1980s and were based on the idea that instead of focusing on assessment and evaluation of negative aspects, emphasis on positive aspects would be a more stimulating approach. The "good practices" could then, in theory, be learned from and replicated in other similar or even different circumstances.

Today, this is often considered to be too simplistic a way of thinking, because it has been impossible to "copy" good practices as such, because they usually consist of complex settings, structures, functions, and backgrounds. Today the focus is more on trying to understand underlying reasons why a practice is good and the necessary conditions and processes leading to an activity becoming better than others.

The main lesson that emerged in terms of scaling up an innovation is that attention should be given to reproducing the conditions rather than simply the content of the innovation. (Ndoye undated)

Quite early in the development of the HESI project, the concept of “good” or “best” was replaced by “promising.” It was difficult to treat “good practices” in a systematic theoretical way. In relation to what was the practice “good”? “Promising” described better what was the core of the study, it opened up for the study of activities which were not necessarily identified as good today, but with the *potential* to develop in the right direction. “Promising” was more relevant and adequate and less demanding. Also the TIP team agreed that the term “promising practice” was more appropriate than “best practice” as it allowed the researchers to take into account a wider range of study sites which, in turn, would provide a more complex understanding of development. Development initiatives face different challenges at various stages of their own development and one of the aims of the study was to identify a range of these challenges and the responses of a number of different initiatives to these challenges. A challenge that faced the team throughout the study was that of developing an understanding of the interconnections between policies, reform, and promising practices and their relationship and relevance to local contextual conditions.

Another important aspect was that the practice, in order to be named promising, should have the capacity to survive within quite harsh existing realities, for instance in rural areas in remote parts of Africa. It would be relatively easy to find, document, and analyze single “pilot” schools that are effectively using a new program. In most cases, such a program might look promising. To value the quality and effects of a program, one important dimension, therefore, is to identify where in the “development chain” the program is (Dalin 2002).

The “development chain” is a conceptual tool created by Dalin which is used to assist in the identification of the stage a program has reached in its own development—from the pilot phase to the implementation phase and, further, to the stage of institutionalization. Each of these phases has its own indicators as well as challenges. It was agreed that, wherever possible, a variety of practices along the development chain would be selected for inclusion in the study.

The Terms of Reference for this thematic study proposed a broad definition of promising practices to include a methodology, an approach, an advisory service, a policy, a concept, a relationship between institutions, and a distance education program—on the condition that it has been functioning and that the results have been produced, or that it shows the preconditions for results to be produced.

Following those broad guidelines, a definition of promising practices emerged from the case studies as follows:

A promising practice is a developmental concept which may describe practices at different stages of completeness and which hold a kernel of promise and success. There is a certain level of risk-taking, “messiness” and complexity of reinforcing conditions and activities surrounding such practices. Promising practices often have supporting mechanisms in place. They do not exist in isolation, but in relation to other activities as well as resources and materials. Promising practices require a degree of flexibility for implementation. They need to be adaptable and responsive to different contexts and to other changes that occur over time—and possibly, as different practitioners work with the selected practices (Sonn 2003).

Developing Selection Criteria

Throughout the planning stages of the HESI study, selection criteria for promising practices were often discussed and focused on. The TIP team finally developed the following selection criteria to identify promising practices and select sites for study.

Records Indicating Results. Records refer to both quantitative and qualitative documentation and results refer to changes in outcomes. The point is that the HESI study needed sources of information that were both written and relatively systematic. The investigations in each site did not allow for basic investigation.

Accessible Accounts. This criterion indicates the need to consider the cost-efficiency of practices selected for investigation. If costs of the practices were not included, one could risk coming up with excessive and costly undertakings with poor chances of becoming mainstreamed and sustained. Money can buy a lot, also in terms of promising practices.

Replicability. The extent to which a practice might lend itself to widespread replication should be taken into account. In other words, the practice should not be so unique that it would not be possible to implement it at other sites.

Sustainability. The practice should be beyond the planning stage or the pilot stage and/or there should be some indication that it will be able to continue over time. This meant that it was important to collect data about the origins of the selected practices and to give some of the history in order to provide a picture of how well established they are.

Popularized and Disseminated. It was recognized that it would be good to investigate how popularization and dissemination occurs-how a practice becomes more widely accepted and implemented within a site or community.

Relevant and Context Specific. The practice needs to be relevant and seen by stakeholders to be relevant to its particular context. The study team needs to look carefully for ways in which the practice has been modified within its cultural context.

Ownership. The degree of involvement/participation of different stakeholders would be an important criterion. While practices may have been initiated externally, it is important to try to assess the extent to which the providers as well as the recipients have taken on ownership of the practice.

Intersectoral/interdisciplinary Approach. An integrated or holistic approach would indicate a practice based on the recognition that problems are not isolated but exist within a wider context. It is important that this context is understood and described.

Systemic Understanding. This criterion refers to the recognition that solutions are often complex, but that a practice might be seen as part of a wider strategy to address a problem.

Equity. Investigation of ways in which practices in the HESI study address gender, ability, age, race and the rural/urban divide.

Developing Instruments for the Study

The TIP study team developed four interview schedules to be used in the HESI study, which were piloted in a promising practice site in Cape Town and later adapted. The learning and insights gained in the pilot work were taken into the joint work-session held in October 2002 in Gordon's Bay, South Africa.

A three-day workshop at Gordons Bay in South Africa functioned as a channel for clarifying ideas, proposals, and methods with the Norwegian partners and the TIP team, who took responsibility for undertaking the data collection and empirical studies. Decisions taken at Gordon's Bay were documented in the workshop report (Smith 2002) which served as an important implementation guide for the TIP team. Of particular interest was the work-session discussion of criteria for country selection, criteria for identification of programs and criteria for selection of promising practices. Methodological criteria were also agreed at Gordon's Bay; these clarified ideas on what was meant by promising practices, how data might be collected and collated and what kinds of in-country researcher should be employed. The structure of the Final Report was also agreed upon. Representatives from the World Bank were invited to this workshop, but were unable to attend due to other assignments.

Appointment of Local Country Researchers

While the South African team had been commissioned to conduct the fieldwork and to write the associated reports, it was also necessary for the team to contract and work with local researchers in the six selected countries. These researchers assisted in identifying and selecting sites as well as gaining access to the selected sites. In addition, they were involved in collecting documents, liaising with organizations and schools, conducting interviews, and, where necessary, translating the responses to these interviews. They were responsible for writing site reports and for checking and verifying country reports. The range of tasks described here fulfilled an important aim of the study—that of capacity building for these researchers, many of whom had had little previous exposure to this kind of studies. The country partnerships ranged in size from two to four researchers.

Gaining Access to and Liaising with Selected Sites

In order to facilitate this process, each of the possible sites was sent a letter outlining the rationale and purpose of the study, the profile of the research teams, and their roles and responsibilities. This letter also required confirmation of their participation in the study. Each site was also promised a copy of the site report as well as the country report.

Phase 2: Fieldwork and Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews of approximately two hours duration each were conducted with a range of key informants, from departmental officials to school principals and program managers, from teachers and program implementers such as peer educators to the students themselves. The interviews were largely shaped by—but not exclusively limited to—the interview schedules developed during Phase 1. Often the researchers returned to interviewees to collect further information or to verify information previously collected.

Wherever possible, researchers visited the sites where programs were being implemented. This was not always possible due to the timing of the project. A number of schools were closed for vacations. During planned visits, researchers observed lessons and conducted discussions.

Wherever possible, documents from the various Education Departments or Ministries—both at national and regional levels—as well as those from other service providers were collected and consulted. These included policy documents, planning and strategy documents, as well as evaluation reports where these existed.

Phase 3: Data Analysis and Documentation

Data analysis and interpretation were conducted in different stages. First, data from each site were compiled into a site report. These reports captured the interview responses and observations made. Where possible, site reports were returned to the site for verification.

The next stage was to conduct analyses across the sites within each country to produce a country report. Country reports also included an overview of the country as well as recent educational and social policy so as to locate the practices described in the site reports within their larger contexts. It is within these reports that the first level of “conscious” analysis occurred as the teams began to grapple with the challenge of illustrating complex relationships between policy, practice and local contextual needs and demands.

Thirdly findings from the six country reports were compiled into the final thematic report. This report highlights factors which contribute to the establishment and further development of promising practices, and offers conclusions and recommendations.

The fourth stage was the final quality check and consolidation of the synthesis report and the country reports by the Norwegian counterpart, including extensive communication between the parties. Literature identified in the State of the Art paper and other recent works on the topic was added to the final synthesis report.

The four stages described above represent a pyramid—the site reports laying the groundwork or foundation for the country reports and these, in turn, providing valuable perspectives from which to build the thematic reports. Together, the reports make a significant contribution to critical engagement with policies and practices which support and strengthen secondary education in Sub-Saharan Africa.

The Challenges, Strengths, and Limitations of the Study

Conclusions and recommendations are best understood in the context within which they have been developed. It is widely recognized that collaboration on special studies and research projects has both strengths and weaknesses and that collaborative work requires careful planning and the establishment of effective management and communication systems and procedures. These are not only difficult to develop but are also very challenging to maintain over the life of the project. When done successfully, it is often a costly business but leads to worthwhile understandings and insights.

This study not only required collaboration but collaboration *at a distance*—between the Norwegian and South African partners, and between the South African researchers and the local country researchers before and after the fieldwork phase. This complexity in project layout was very much a result of the framework defined by NETF and the World Bank.

It was a prerequisite that a large part of the budget should be utilized by the partners in the South. To contribute to South-South collaboration was also an indirect objective of the process. Most probably good results would have been obtained in a more cost-efficient way by utilizing “traditional” consultancy strategy, with small expert teams responsible for the whole study. The added value of HESI, which is difficult to measure exactly but still represents an important part, is the contribution to South-South and North-South network development in addition to the cooperation between parties in Norway.

The project was planned and implemented in accordance with the deadlines set by the client, the World Bank and also as a reflection of limited budgets at hand. To maintain a clear relationship between budget and available time for the study was necessitated by the fact that the majority of consultants/researchers involved were on contractual basis. The study was conducted between October 2002 and the end of March 2003 with a 12-day extension on the initial deadline. This timeframe was made more difficult by circumstances outside the control of the project. In some of the countries selected the schools were on vacation for most of December and January, while in Eritrea, schools were on a short break during February.

Another limitation to be mentioned concerns the local country researchers. While they provided access to sites and their liaison work often smoothed the way for the South African colleagues’ visits, it is suspected that there were times when some of the local researchers also played, often unintentionally, a gatekeeping function. They had enormous power to both select sites and to exclude sites from the selection process. The lack of information provided to the South African researchers about potential sites before the visits were undertaken contributed to the dangers inherent in this situation.

Despite these challenges and limitations, considerable amounts of data were collected from a number of different sites within the timeframe. These data have yielded rich and textured descriptions which have been analyzed to provide an understanding of promising practices. This achievement has largely been due to the quality of interaction and mutual respect developed within the country teams. Each “side” brought to the inquiry particular skills and insights which enabled them to penetrate the surface of the selected sites and then to draw together the various strands of data to describe their complexities. At the same time it was possible to highlight important individual factors which contribute to promising practice.

It is important to note that the project was recognized in all the countries visited as valuable and those who participated did so enthusiastically, generously sharing their views. They expressed the hope that they would be able to learn from the reports—in particular, from reading about practices followed in other programs. This enthusiasm to learn and to share understandings is itself an important finding of the study.

Finally, it is important to note that the process of inquiry offered participants who were interviewed opportunities to reflect on their own practice and to share ideas with the researchers. This, in itself, has been a positive spinoff.

The section which follows summarizes in tabular form the programs and projects examined in the six selected countries and provides additional information on the political, social and educational context of each country. The tables identify individual activities and innovations and highlights promising aspects of the programs in each country.

Country Frameworks and Brief Description of Practices Studied

Country Profile: Eritrea

Eritrea is a relatively small country in the Horn of Africa, undergoing a process of reconstruction after an extended (30-year) war with Ethiopia, followed by a border conflict which began in 1999 and ended after three years. This has caused severe destruction and a humanitarian crisis. During the period of war, over one million people were driven from their homes. The conflict strained the housing, educational and public systems of the villages and towns where internally displaced people have resettled. Almost all men of ages 18-40 were called up for military service. Women and children have been receiving minimal services such as education and health care. Among positive signs are that the government of Eritrea has already started a demobilization and re-integration process of soldiers. High- school students who had been doing their national service are

Country Background Statistics: Eritrea

Total population in 2000	3,659,000
Life expectancy at birth 1995–2000 (years)	52
HIV prevalence rate 15–49 age group in 2001 (%)	3.6 (m), 5.5 (f)
GNP per capita in 2000 (US\$)	\$100
Population living on less than US\$2 daily 1983-2000 (%)	76.4
Total debt in 2000 (US\$)	\$311,000,000

(Continued)

Education at a Glance

Gross enrollment ratio in primary education in 2000 (%)	65.3 (m), 53.6 (f)
Transition to secondary education in 1999 (%)	81.9 (m), 79.4 (f)
Gross enrollment ratio in secondary in 2000 (%)	33.1 (m), 23.5 (f)
Youth literacy rate in 2000 (%)	80.1 (m), 60.4 (f)
Young illiterates (15-24) in 2000	209,000
Adult literacy rate in 2000 (%)	67.3 (m), 44.5 (f)
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure in 2000	—

Notes: m = male, f = female.

Source: UNESCO (2003), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*.

now preparing to take matriculation at the end of the academic year (Asfaha, Davidoff, and Teklehaimanot 2003).

Secondary Education²

Relative to the number of primary schools in the country, there are few secondary schools. Secondary schools are very large (5–6,000) students. Official entrance age for secondary school students in Eritrea is 12 years, and official duration of secondary education is 6 years. Total enrollment in 2000/2001 was 142,124 students, of which 42 percent were female. 1,609 students were enrolled in technical/vocational programs, 22 percent of these were female. Of the 2,710 teachers that were employed in secondary schools in 2000/2001,

	Gross enrollment in %			Net enrollment in %		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1998/99	25	30	20.5	20	22.5	18
1999/00	28	33	23	22.5	25	20
2000/01	28	33	23.5	22	25.5	19

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

2. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/eng/TableViewer/Wdsview/dispviewp.asp?ReportId=52>

10 percent were female. About 62 percent of secondary school teachers were trained, and the average pupil teacher ratio was 52:1. About 20 percent of the students in secondary schools repeated.

Demand for preschool, primary, and secondary education services is enormous and continues to grow strongly. Many of Eritrea's schools are still functioning, but many do so without basic learning and teaching tools. Less than 10 percent of the corresponding age group completes the seven years of middle school. More than half of the students in any given grade are overaged. Enrollment rates for girls across all levels have remained lower than for boys, and girls' enrollment varies greatly from region to region.

There is a strong emphasis on content and knowledge, and insufficient focus on the development of understanding, evaluation and critical thinking skills. The shortage of pedagogic support materials is compounded by the need to update the curricula in terms of quality of content and relevance. The current Ministry of Education textbooks date from the early 1990s and need to be revised to deal with current problems such as HIV/AIDS, other communicable diseases, science, mathematics and information and communication technologies.

Main National Policy for the Education Sector

Basic Education for All

Promising Aspects of Programs in Eritrea

Eritrea has enjoyed positive experiences with interministerial collaboration between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Agriculture, as the latter provides guidance and training during the Students' Summer Work Program. This project successfully combines civic education with practical skills needed for the reconstruction of societies.

Also the nationwide HAMSET initiative provides an example of interministerial collaboration between the Ministries of Education, Health, Information, Labor and Human Welfare, addressing key health and social issues in an integrated way. The program is successfully managed at the local level, to the extent that students are consulted on design and implementation of projects. Community involvement is emphasized, and experiences so far are that communities are fully engaged.

The youth center-based program NUEYS provide a positive example of a project complementing more traditional school projects, combining leadership training with a peace and reconciliation course and providing both vocational skills training as well as health information through awareness campaigns. Other success factors in the program include training of trainers (leadership development), peer education and community mobilization.

Overview of Promising Practices in Eritrea

PROGRAMS	AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
<p>Students' Summer Work Program (SWP). Ministry of Education Funding: Government Case study: Ibrahim Sultan Secondary School (Central Zone, Asmara) and Wolde ab Wolde Mariam Secondary School (Southern Red Sea Zone, Asab).</p>	<p>Relating education with production and community activities: To reshape the young generation of the country by involving them in both in-school and community transformation programs. To develop labor habits, assure their social and political participation in the community, and learn from and serve the people.</p>	<p>Water and soil conservation. Road construction/maintenance in rural areas. Building of micro dams and canals. Community surveys and studies. Repairing railways. Cleaning, hygiene and sanitation. Agricultural activities. Working in factories and technical institutions.</p>	<p>All school students aged 16 and above. Secondary school teachers as coordinators and guardians. Experts from different sectors, notably the Ministry of Agriculture to give guidance and training. Student Summer Work Centers.</p>	<p>Students are involved in above-mentioned activities during the summer vacation for 30 days. Learning life-skills in rebuilding the country, especially diversity Familiarization with different parts of the country. Integration of theory learned during summer work into school curriculum.</p>
<p>HAMSET Ministries of Education, Health, Information, Labor and Human Welfare Funding: The World Bank Same location as SWP</p>	<p>HIV/AIDS, Malaria, Sexually Transmitted Diseases, TB: To create a disease-free society in Eritrea. To cultivate and enhance a positive life style and moral values.</p>	<p>Address key health and social issues in an integrated way. Intersectoral collaboration between MoE ,MoH, Information, and Labor and Human Welfare. Media broadcasting. Prophylactic medication and provision of mosquito nets. Life skills education and Health Education, HIV/AIDS, Malaria, STD, Female genital mutilation. Provision of sports facilities and sport education.</p>	<p>All the secondary schools in the country. Community involvement through Forums, Cells and public meetings. Project Management Unit at national and provincial level. Project implementers: trained teachers and professionals from the MoH.</p>	<p>Professional development programs for teachers. Monitoring and evaluation. Site visits by the MoH and provincial PMUs.</p>

The National Union of Eritrean Youth and Students (NUEYS).

Non-government.

Funding: Student membership fees; financial backing from HAMSET

Case study: NUEYS, Massawa

Health Awareness Campaign: The aim is to build a versatile youth and to build awareness of various realities in Eritrea.

Vocational skill/training which attaches unskilled youth to the private sector.

Leadership skills and training

Peace and reconciliation course.

Training youth to set up CBOs with project planning and implementation training.

Awareness campaigns through theatre, debate and competition.

Total Membership: 176,000.

260 full-time employees.

Target population: 14–40 year olds.

NUEYS offices and facilities in all six regions in the country

Youth friendly centers in the regional capitals.

Health services centers.

NUEYS operates mainly in secondary schools with an emphasis on social, health and economic issues.

Awareness raising and sensitization programs from regional offices, towns and villages.

National training of the trainer workshops

Community mobilization.

Peer education.

Counseling services at the Youth Centers.

Country Profile: Mali

Mali is a large, sparsely-populated inland country in the Sahel region of West Africa. About 73 percent of the population lives in rural areas, and more than half (55.2 percent) of the population is younger than 19 years. Decentralization is the mode of government with regard to the administration of national development. Mali is a poor country. In 2000, it was placed 165 out of 174 states in the UNDP Human Development Report. Agriculture is practiced by almost 80 percent of the country's economically active population and it remains the lifeblood of the national economy.

The health situation is characterized by a high death rate due to insufficient health coverage, unhealthy environment, poor access to drinking water, nutritional deficiencies, lack of qualified health personnel, a low rate of literacy, education and information, and limited community involvement in health matters. The policy for health and population drawn up in 1990 by the government of Mali is committed to the promotion of socio-sanitary actions with the purpose of improving the well being of families. This brought a lot of partners to Mali to invest in the promotion of health, in targeting the schools as a sector of investment.

A national strategic plan on HIV/AIDS (2001–05) was developed and approved by a special Cabinet meeting held on December 1, 2000 and incorporates other ministries' sectoral plans, apart from that of the Ministry of Health. Political commitment is very high and the President is the head of a newly-created National AIDS Commission (NAC). The NAC is also politically coordinated by the Government Presidency and, technically, by the Ministry of Health (UNAIDS website).

Country Background Statistics: Mali	
Total population in 2000	11,351,000
Life expectancy at birth 1995–2000 (years)	52
HIV prevalence rate 15–49 age group in 2001 (%)	1.8 (m), 2.8 (f)
GNP per capita in 2000 (US\$)	\$240
Population living on less than US\$2 daily 1983–2000 (%)	90.6
Total debt in 2000 (US\$)	\$2,956,000
Education at a Glance	
Gross enrollment ratio in primary education in 2000 (%)	71.2 (m) 51.2 (f)
Transition to secondary education in 1999 (%)	54.3 (m) 47.0 (f)
Gross enrollment ratio in secondary in 2000 (%)	—
Youth literacy rate in 2000 (%)	47.3 (m) 25.1 (f)
Young illiterates (15–24) in 2000	1,425,000
Adult literacy rate in 2000 (%)	35.8 (m) 16.0 (f)
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure in 2000	—

Notes: m = male, f = female

Source: UNESCO (2003), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*.

*Secondary Education*³

The official starting age for secondary education students is 13 years in Mali, with an official duration of six years. Total enrollment in 1998/1999 was 217,700; only 34 percent of these students were female. Students enrollment in technical/vocational programs was 26,784. National estimates indicate that there are 7,663 secondary school teachers, 14 percent of these are female, but there are no available statistics on number of trained teachers. The pupil-teacher ratio in Mali is 28:1.

	Gross enrollment in %			Net enrollment in %		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1998/99	15	20	10	—	—	—
1999/00	—	—	—	—	—	—
2000/01	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

The successive education crises that marked the beginning of the 1990s in the quest for a more advanced democracy persuaded the authorities to undertake the “re-foundation” of the education system. The part of the budget devoted to education in the national budget has progressed from 22 percent in 1992 to 30 percent in 2002. A ten-year development plan for education (PRODEC) is put into practice from 1998 to 2007. Among the identified areas of essential knowledge are: a general secondary education, reformed and efficient; education in the mother tongue and French, a sustained policy of training of teaching staff; a real and genuine partnership centered around the school; an institutional restructuring and adjustment that is necessary to supply a new foundation to the education system; and a communication policy that focuses on dialogue and consultation with all the partners.

Mali has firstly a fundamental cycle divided in two sub-cycles, namely the Primary I “Fondamental I” (six years) and the Primary II “Fondamental II” (three years). According to international norms the Primary II “Fondamental II” is similar to the first cycle of secondary school (junior high school).

Main National Policies for the Education Sector

Decennial Program for the Development of Education (PRODEC); National Policy for the Population

Promising Aspects of the Program in Mali

The program is coordinated from the Ministry of Education but with considerable local autonomy and diversity. It reflects the national policy on population, and addresses

3. *Source:* UNESCO Institute for Statistics <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/eng/TableViewer/Wdsview/dispviewp.asp?ReportId=52>

Overview of Promising Practices in Mali

PROGRAMS	AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
<p>Education in Family Life and Population Matters (EVF/EMP).</p> <p>Ministry of National Education.</p> <p>Funded by: United Nations Populations Fund (UNFPA).</p> <p>Case study:</p> <p>Lycée de DIOILA and the Ecole Fondamentale 2eme cycle de MARAKAK-OUNGO (Koulikoro region).</p>	<p>Health, environment, family life, gender, and population development:</p> <p>To introduce and generalize education for Family Life and population matters in the formal education system.</p> <p>To contribute to the integration of women in the process of social and economic development.</p> <p>To contribute to a national policy on population.</p>	<p>Integrated curriculum in selected subjects: biology, history, geography and agriculture.</p> <p>Taught at all levels from Basic Education, General Secondary level, Secondary Technical and Professional level and Teachers Training.</p> <p>Community radio broadcasts.</p> <p>Awareness campaigns.</p> <p>Conferences with the community.</p>	<p>Learners, teachers, parents and community members.</p> <p>National Directorate of Basic Education in the National Ministry of Education.</p> <p>National Coordinating Committee.</p> <p>Regional Coordinating Committee.</p> <p>Institutional (School) Committee.</p>	<p>Teacher training in FLE to strengthen life skills in health, hygiene and nutrition in order to promote changes in behavior in schoolchildren.</p> <p>Development and dissemination of curriculum materials from National Ministry of Education (MoE).</p> <p>Documentation of information: National MoE.</p> <p>Followup and evaluation of activities: Regional Coordinating Committee.</p> <p>Promotion of safety of school children in particular for girls on their way to and from school.</p> <p>Establish partnerships between school/family/community to reinforce changes in behavior at school.</p>

gender issues. The concepts of health, environment, family life, gender and population development are integrated into regular school subjects, and the program is comprehensive addressing all levels of the school system, as well as training teachers and addressing national authorities in order to impact on policies. Furthermore, the general education policy is influenced by the project. The project seems to link schools and communities well through various outreach strategies including conferences and community radio broadcasting.

Country Profile: Namibia

Namibia is situated on the southwestern tip of the African continent. Namibia gained independence from South Africa in March 1990, after years of political struggle and warfare. Sam Nujoma, the leader of SWAPO became Namibia's first president after democratic elections. Since independence, a period of political stability has provided a context in which Namibia has developed as one of Africa's youngest democracies. In the years after independence, a number of initiatives have been taken to address the gross inequalities and injustices Namibians suffered under South African rule. Namibia is one of the most unequal societies in the world with a Gini coefficient of 0.70 in 1996. Large disparities exist between the income levels of the white and the black communities (Ashby, Collett, and Yates 2003).

Country Background Statistics: Namibia

Total population in 2000	1,757,000
Life expectancy at birth 1995–2000 (years)	45
HIV prevalence rate 15–49 age group in 2001 (%)	13.3 (m), 29.2 (f)
GNP per capita in 2000 (US\$)	\$180
Population living on less than US\$2 daily 1983–2000 (%)	85.3
Total debt in 2000 (US\$)	\$1,638,000

Education at a Glance

Gross enrollment ratio in primary education in 2000 (%)	111.5 (m), 112.9 (f)
Transition to secondary education in 1999 (%)	82.6 (m), 83.4 (f)
Gross enrollment ratio in secondary in 2000 (%)	58.0 (m), 65.5 (f)
Youth literacy rate in 2000 (%)	89.9 (m), 93.3 (f)
Young illiterates (15–24) in 2000	29,000
Adult literacy rate in 2000 (%)	82.8 (m), 81.2 (f)
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure in 2000	—

Notes: m = male, f = female

Source: UNESCO (2003), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*.

Secondary Education⁴

Official entrance age for secondary school students in Namibia are 13 years, and official duration of secondary education is 5 years. The total enrollment in 2000/2001 was 124,196 students, of which 53 percent were female. There were 5,164 teachers in secondary education in 2000/2001 and 46 percent of these were female. In 1999/2000, 64 percent of the teachers were trained. The pupil teacher ratio was 24:1 in 2000/2001, and 11 percent repeaters were reported.

	Gross enrollment in %			Net enrollment in %		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1998/99	59	54.5	63	31	25	37
1999/00	60	56	63	34	28.5	40
2000/01	62	58	65.5	38	32	44

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Namibia's educational system has undergone numerous reforms that have served to improve the quality of education and increase equity and access. The government spending for education average 23 percent over the last years, but allocation to secondary education has declined steadily (Ashby, Collette, and Yates 2003). Only 1 percent of learners make it to tertiary institutions, while 5 percent finish Grade 10, and 74 percent finish Grade 7. Secondary schools grades are offered from 8 to 12. Learners can exit at Grade 10 with an International General Certificate of Secondary Education. Secondary schools are mainly found in the towns. The first ten years of school are free and compulsory according with educational policy.

Namibia ranks as one of the five countries most affected by HIV/AIDS in the World (UNICEF/UNAIDS/WHO 2002). Life expectancy has fallen from 58.8 years in 1995 to 43 years in 2000. Young people (10 to 24 years) account for up to 60 percent of all new HIV infections (Government of Namibia 2002).

4. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/eng/TableViewer/Wdsview/dispviewp.asp?ReportId=52>

Main National Policies for the Education Sector

The Education Act (2001), Towards Education for All (1993), School Health Policy (1998). Furthermore, the Policy on Teenage Pregnancy (drafted 1995) states that a pregnant learner has the right to readmission to the same school within 12 months of her confinement, provided there is a clear evidence the infant will be cared for by a responsible adult. According to *Draft National Policy for HIV/AIDS for the Education Sector* (Government of Namibia 2002), no learner may be denied access to school on the basis of their HIV/AIDS status. Schools are delegated the responsibility for providing special support to HIV positive learners through making available counseling services and facilities within which learners can continue with their studies after periods of absenteeism

Promising Aspects of the Programs in Namibia

Both of the programs selected in Namibia have close relationship to the government. HPSI is state funded and has a working relationship with UNICEF. OY was initiated through support of the Ministry but has NGO status and has multiple sources of funding. The Ministry supports infrastructure while other grants are provided for running the project. One can say that both of the projects have an origin in Ministries response to requests, and that Ministries continue to co-operate to support the programs. Activities in both projects are linked to concepts and policies developed by the central Ministries.

At the same time as the Central/Governmental link is secured, there are considerable elements of local ownership at school and community levels. The responsive and developmental nature of both programs has encouraged stakeholder participation. Leadership in schools has been strengthened through training. There has been extensive use of newsletters, television programs, books and drama, and as incentive the use of an award system for schools divided in gold, silver and bronze awards has been tried out. It is also interesting to observe that schools have been developing their own Health Charter and health policies and that AIDS awareness clubs have been set up in schools. In order to spread the program, schools have been encouraged to recruit other schools.

The researchers working for HESI in Namibia emphasized the importance of development of role models among pupils/youth to spread health/HIV messages. They also reported that the project's participatory methods have influenced cultural change in the communities.

From a management point of view it was reported that systems of program accountability/reporting have been developed, and that research and evaluation were used to document good practices.

Overview of Promising Practices in Namibia

PROGRAMS	AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
<p>Health Promoting School Initiative (HPSI). Ministry of Health Ministry or Basic Education, Sport and Culture</p> <p>Case study: Otjiperongo Junior Secondary School in the Erongo region.</p> <p>State funded—MoHSS (Ministry of Health and Social Service) and UNICEF</p>	<p>Health promotion through schools: To provide a healthy school environment and to take health care to the community.</p> <p>Local ownership of HPSI.</p>	<p>Establish School Health Committees (SHC) and AIDS Awareness Clubs in schools.</p> <p>Development of School Health Charters.</p> <p>Provision of site-based support for learners and teachers in health related issues e.g. school health education, promoting condom use.</p> <p>Support SHC in planning to address health related issues at school and community level.</p> <p>Distribution of health related information.</p> <p>Encourage health corners in each classroom.</p> <p>Encourage schools to support other schools in becoming HPS.</p> <p>Monitoring and evaluation of change.</p> <p>Seek intersectoral support for HPSI.</p>	<p>Falls under the Adolescent School Health Program within the Ministry of Health and Social Services. The regional Health Management Team and District Management Teams support the management of the program. District Management Teams support the management of program work at a regional and district level. A School Health Committee operates at school level and Aids Awareness Clubs.</p>	<p>Conducts Research: school base-line studies, action plans and timeframes, monitoring progress.</p> <p>Offers skills based health education for pupils.</p> <p>Assists schools to develop HIV/AIDS Projects and improve school facilities.</p> <p>Involvement in community projects.</p> <p>Encourage and assist other schools to become HPS.</p> <p>Sets Bronze, Silver and Gold awards for participating schools.</p>
<p>Ombetja Yehinga (OY), Erongo region.</p> <p>Initiated through support of Ministry but has NGO status</p>	<p>HIV/AIDS : To decrease the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic among young people in the Kunene, Erongo and Khomas regions.</p>	<p>Organize events to promote HIV/AIDS awareness among the general population.</p>	<p>NGO status—registered as a welfare organization.</p>	<p>School visits; shows, conferences and workshops; condom and HIV/AIDS materials e.g. newsletter distribution;</p>

<p>Small funding grants Ministerial support for infrastructure Limited self-generated funding. Case studies: Braun Fels Agricultural Secondary School Outjo Secondary School in the Kunene region</p>	<p>To develop the capacity of the OY organization to deliver the program.</p>	<p>Develop and distribute educational materials related to HIV/AIDS Build capacity of staff, teachers and principals. Support the establishment of AIDS Awareness Clubs at schools. Support youth in these clubs in the generation of materials and activities to promote AIDS awareness in their schools and communities. Distribute condoms. Conduct research surveys with regard to sexuality and cultural practices within the communities using art and drama The development of appropriate governance and management structures Accessing funding. Networking and collaboration with other service providers, Ministries and NGOs with similar aims. Program evaluation.</p>	<p>Management Board: Ministry of Local Government and Housing, Ministry of Health and Social Services, Ministry of Basic Education, Sports and Culture, University of Namibia and program staff.</p>	<p>Information sharing through art and drama; teacher and learner training; community awareness programs;</p>
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Country Profile: Senegal

Senegal is a secular and democratic coastal country situated in West Africa. It has a land surface area of 196,722 km² and approximately 10 million inhabitants from 10 ethnic groups. Young people make up the bulk of the population, with close to 58 percent of them below 20 years, while the country has only 5 percent of people who are 60 years and above. The number of school age youth (7–19 years) increased by almost 750,000 from 1992 to 2000. Senegal's economy is dominated by the rural sector (agriculture, livestock-farming, fishing and forestry); 80 percent of the population works in this sector. Senegal's distinctive feature is its strong tradition as a democratic country with political pluralism. Associations from various segments of the society, politicians and civil society play a key role in nation building. Political parties, trade unions, professional associations, parents, and students influence, in various ways, the education policies the State implements.

With a low HIV prevalence of 1.43 percent for a population of more than 9,200,000 people, Senegal has been hailed as an African success story. Senegal has shown a strong political commitment to HIV/AIDS and social mobilization, which has contributed to its ability to maintain a low prevalence rate. The country has established a good system for sexually-transmitted infections (STIs) management (UNAIDS website).

Country Background Statistics: Senegal	
Total population in 2000	9,421,000
Life expectancy at birth 1995–2000 (years)	52
HIV prevalence rate 15–49 age group in 2001 (%)	0.2 (m), 0.7 (f)
GNP pr. capita in 2000 (US\$)	\$490
Population living on less than US\$2 daily 1983–2000 (%)	67.8
Total debt in 2000 (US\$)	\$3,372,000
Education at a Glance	
Gross enrollment ratio in primary education in 2000 (%)	79.3 (m), 70.3 (f)
Transition to secondary education in 1999 (%)	40.3 (m), 37.0 (f)
Gross enrollment ratio in secondary in 2000 (%)	21.4 (m), 14.2 (f)
Youth literacy rate in 2000 (%)	59.5 (m), 41.9 (f)
Young illiterates (15–24) in 2000	926,000
Adult literacy rate in 2000 (%)	47.3 (m), 27.7 (f)
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure in 2000	—

Notes: m = male, f = female

Source: UNESCO (2003), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*.

Secondary Education⁵

The official entrance age for secondary school students in Senegal is 13 years, and official duration of secondary education is seven years. Total enrollment in 2000/2001 was 262,738 students, out of which 40 percent were female. Enrollment in technical/vocational programs was 7,411 students in 1998/1999, 35 percent of these were female. There were 11,182 teachers in secondary education in 2000/2001, 12 percent of these were female. Pupil teacher ratio was 28:1 in 1998/99, dropping to 23: 1 in 2000/2001, and 16 percent repeaters were reported.

	Gross enrollment in %			Net enrollment in %		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1998/99	17	21	13	—	—	—
1999/00	—	—	—	—	—	—
2000/01	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Senegal was the first French-speaking country in Sub-Saharan Africa to institute a modern education system. Senegal, like other Sub-Saharan countries, still suffers certain gaps in education coverage despite the significant progress made over the last 10 years to improve access. Girls are the ones mostly affected by the lack of education, poor school performance and high dropout rates for economic, socio-cultural and political reasons. The delivery of education services is jeopardized due to overpopulated classrooms, dilapidated buildings, the lack of staff and teaching materials and gaps in education coverage.

To address these challenges, the public authorities and NGOs began undertaking significant initiatives in the field of education as far back as the early 1990s. The public authorities were concerned precisely with a new education framework law (1991), developing curriculum content for the basic level (pupils aged between 5 and 12 years), the school project for girls at the primary level, conducting the human resource development program (Phase 2: Education) with funding support from the World Bank, promoting extra-curricular activities on social issues initiated in the school setting by associations and NGOs and developing and adopting the Ten-Year Education and Training Program (PDEF). Until the public authorities set up the PDEF (2000–10), lower and upper secondary education was neglected for a long time and/or derived minimal benefit from these funds.

5. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/eng/TableViewer/Wdsview/dispviewp.asp?ReportId=52>

Overview of Promising Practices in Senegal

PROGRAMS	AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
<p>Ten-year Education and Training Program (PDEF). Ministry of Education, Dakar Multilateral funding (Senegalese State, World Bank, African Development Bank)</p>	<p>Accessibility and quality of Education: To improve the quality of education. To expand access. To improve management.</p>	<p>Curriculum reform. Building capacity of teachers Introduction of the TIC. Reinforcing competence in scientific and practical skills. Extension of the national school mapping exercise. Building new classrooms.</p>	<p>National districts of the Department of Education. School administration. Regional districts for training.</p>	<p>Building of new classes. To create new schools. To make and finance a plan for education. Regional training workshops for teachers.</p>
<p>Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE). Non- Government initiative, Dakar Funded by FAWE international, UNESCO, UNICEF</p>	<p>Gender Access: To contribute to reduction of discrimination by gender in schools. To promote quality.</p>	<p>Advocacy for girls schooling. Sensitization. Functionality and accessibility of national network for solidarity and girls schooling. Reinforcement of girl students' capacities by training and availability of documentation.</p>	<p>Grant holders, Godmothers, and Godchildren. The best pupils.</p>	<p>To provide scholarships and educational stationery. Pedagogical support for the Excellency Club members. Causeries and talks.</p>
<p>Group for Population Studies and Education (GEEP). NGO, Camp Jeremy UCAD, Dakar</p>	<p>HIV-AIDS and STD Health Education: To sensitize the pupils about STD, HIV-AIDS and adolescent reproductive health.</p>	<p>Information and sensitization. Training and production Research.</p>	<p>Student leaders. Teacher facilitators at schools. Teachers (Geography, Biology and Home Economics).</p>	<p>Causeries, presentation of films and exhibitions. Theatrical activities. Workshop for information and advice.</p>

Funded by CRDI, UNFPA	To strengthen education on population, health, environment.		Family Life Education (FLE) clubs. Corner for learners. Peers Educators. Corner for pupils. Education councils. Youth leaders for cyberspace.	Training workshops. Workshop for production of educational stationery.
SWAA–Society for Women and AIDS ,NGO, Dakar Funded by UNFPA	HIV-AIDS: To prevent HIV-AIDS infection in the schools and among working women.	Information and sensitization.	Teachers and trainers. Pupils.	Causerie (discussions). Presentation of films, and after them: causerie.
SIDA SERVICE NGO, Dakar Funded by Catholic Relief, Second Catholic, Family Health International	HIV-AIDS and STI: To prevent HIV- AIDS infection. To fight against HIV/AIDS spreading.	Information and sensitization. Screening and support.	Peer Educators. Teachers (Moral, or French, or Civic Educators). Volunteers for AIDS-Service.	Workshop for training of key teachers. Causerie. Presentation of films with discussion.
CIVITAS INEADE –National Institute of Studies and Action for the Development of Education. Non-Govt. initiative, funded by CIVITAS International	Citizenship and Public-spiritedness: To contribute to promoting an active citizenship.	Advocacy. Reinforce capacity. Social mobilization.	Teachers of history and geography, French studies Students of junior high schools.	Implementation for the solution of local concerns (investigations, research for solutions in the class and dissemination of the findings in the community). Social and community mobilization.

Main National Policies for the Education Sector

National Policy of Education and Training, National Policy for the fight against HIV/AIDS, National Policy for Health of Reproduction, National Policy for Civic Education drafted.

Promising Aspects of the Programs in Senegal

At the national level cooperation between Ministries of Education and Health has a positive impact on the programs, focusing on curriculum reform, teacher training, and expanding access. Many of the programs in Senegal enjoy a strong NGO input to secondary school programs, helping with both training and community sensitization. Family Life Education clubs are set up in the communities, and are used as vehicles for learning and project work. Peer leadership is prominent and information centers are set up at some sites.

Gender issues are addressed. The FAWE program and SWAA are trying to reduce dropout among teenage secondary schoolgirls through sensitization, scholarships, and advocacy. Cultural elements are positively included in various programs, for example, the use of films as an introduction to discussions. The CIVITAS INEADE initiative contributes to promoting an active citizenship addressing teachers of history and geography, French studies and focusing on implementing solutions answering to local concerns. External funding has increased teacher supply and textbooks. A skills based approach has empowered pupils, and the links between the FLE program and regular curriculum is emphasized.

Country Profile: South Africa

South Africa is statistically a middle-income country with an average income among the highest on the continent. Inequality is, however, a major challenge. More than 15 million South Africans are estimated to live on less than US\$2 a day (UNESCO 2003). South Africa's income inequality is among the highest in the world. Poverty is mainly rural, as 72 percent of the poor live in rural areas and 71 percent of the rural population is poor (in comparison with 28 percent in urban areas). Two thirds of the black people are estimated to be poor compared to 38 percent colored, 5 percent Indian and 1 percent white. The poorest twenty percent receive 3.3 percent of income, while the richest ten percent receive 47.3 percent (DFID 1998). Poverty is severest in those provinces containing the former homelands.

The South African National Constitution of 1996 laid the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people. Within these macro policies, education has its own set of national and provincial policies which guide the way forward. The democratic government elected in 1994 began the transformation of the education system with a multitude of reforms. The National Department of Education (NDE) is responsible for developing policy on education and training for the country as a whole. South Africa has a legacy of non-governmental educational organizations working with schools, educators, parents and students, either during or after schools hours, to provide an alternative to apartheid education. Many of these organizations still exist and their role has evolved over the years, to one that is now supporting the schools and education departments in the implementation of new policy.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic has seen an explosive increase in South Africa. In 12 years, HIV prevalence rose from less than one per cent to more than 20 percent. The impact of HIV/AIDS on the health sector is noticeable. The percentage of hospital beds occupied due to AIDS ranges from 26 to 70 percent for adults and from 26 to 30 percent for children (UNAIDS website).

Country Background Statistics: South Africa	
Total population in 2000	43,309,000
Life expectancy at birth 1995–2000 (years)	53
HIV prevalence rate 15–49 age group in 2001 (%)	12.8 (m), 30.8 (f)
GNP per capita in 2000 (US\$)	\$3,020
Population living on less than US\$2 daily 1983–2000 (%)	35.8
Total debt in 2000 (US\$)	\$24,861,000
Education at a Glance	
Gross enrollment ratio in primary education in 2000 (%)	114.5 (m), 108.3 (f)
Transition to secondary education in 1999 (%)	90.7 (m), 930 (f)
Gross enrollment ratio in secondary in 2000 (%)	83.4 (m), 91.2 (f)
Youth literacy rate in 2000 (%)	91.3 (m), 91.3 (f)
Young illiterates (15–24) in 2000	777,000
Adult literacy rate in 2000 (%)	86.0 (m), 84.6 (f)
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure in 2000	18.1

Notes: m = male, f = female

Source: UNESCO (2003), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*.

*Secondary Education in South Africa*⁶

Official entrance age for secondary school students in South Africa are 14 years, and official duration of secondary education is 5 years. Total enrollment in 2000/2001 was 4,141,946 students, out of which 52 percent were female. Enrollment in technical/vocational programs was 198,328 students, 42 percent of these were female. There were 140,856 secondary school teachers in 2000/2001, of which 50 percent were female. About 89 percent of the teachers were trained in 1998/99. The pupil teacher ratio was 29:1 in 2001, and 16 percent repeaters were reported.

6. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/eng/TableViewer/Wdsview/dispviewp.asp?ReportId=52>

Gross and Net Secondary School Enrollment Rate in South Africa, 1998–2001						
	Gross enrollment in %			Net enrollment in %		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1998/99	91.5	86	97	60.5	56.5	64.5
1999/00	90	85	95	63.5	60	67
2000/01	87	83.5	91	63.5	60	66.5

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Main National Policies for the Education Sector

National Education Policy Act of 1996 is the overarching policy for educational transformation in South Africa. This act represents the moral vision of the Constitution and outlines the features of the new education system.

The South African Schools Act of 1996 advocates a new system of organization, governance and funding of schools. It encourages partnerships between local communities and the provincial departments, devolution of powers to the schools and the promotion of school based management.

Curriculum 2005 promotes teaching and learning and the concept of outcomes-based education (OBE). Subjects have been rearranged into 12 learning areas. Curriculum 2005 was reviewed in 2000 and has been revised and streamlined in to the Revised National Curriculum Statement of 2002.

National Policy on HIV/AIDS in Schools. The purpose of education about HIV/AIDS is to prevent the spread of HIV infection, to allay excessive fears of the epidemic, to reduce the stigma attached to it and to instill non-discriminatory attitudes towards persons with HIV/AIDS. Education should ensure that students acquire age- and context-appropriate knowledge and skills in order that they may adopt and maintain behavior that will protect them from HIV infection.

Promising Aspects of the Programs in South Africa

Typical of the programs in South Africa is that they successfully combine in- and out-of-school programs. Programs include extra mural activities, cultural events, and community service (USIKO), and furthermore are often linked to drop-in centers and Youth Health Clinics within the community reaching out-of-school youth. The programs enhance the use of local cultural principles to facilitate programs, passing on essential life-skills.

The Better Life Options (BLO) has a national management allowing for local diversity, and encompasses both teaching and counseling components. Schools facilitate access to pupils rather than being integral to the program, and peer educators from the schools are the key actors, trained by NGOs, using classroom periods for instruction.

Community involvement and sensitization are critical elements. In the USIKO program, men in the community are trained to be mentors for young men going through a kind of “rites de passage.” The HPS concept is integrated into the school curriculum, but does also allow for external support. The programs are volunteer-based, and focus on information, counseling, skills development, and cultural relevance. The programs have extensive use of participatory methods such as role models, drama, story-telling and in USIKO “wilderness weekends.”

Overview of Promising Practices in South Africa

PROGRAMS	AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
<p>Health Promoting Schools Program (HPS). Department of Health, Western Cape Case studies: Atlantis Senior Secondary School and De Rust Futura Intermediate School</p>	<p>Promoting schools as a healthy setting for living, learning and working. The broad aims are to improve the teaching and learning environment for teachers and learners by creating a healthy setting for teaching, learning and living.</p>	<p>The 7 key strategic areas are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To strengthen HPS through curriculum. - Developing the notion of self care. - Effective co-ordination from district offices of MoE to school to classroom. - Intersectoral collaboration for achieving common purpose. - Support activities e.g. human resource development. - Advocacy and marketing. - Mentoring and evaluation. 	<p>Principals, school management teams, teachers and learners. Department officials from school districts; Health personnel; Social workers. NGOs and community members. Structure: Reference Group Executive Group District/Area Coordinator School Cluster Coordinator of School Clusters Individual Schools</p>	<p>The program consists of curriculum content in schools, extra-mural activities and at Youth Health Clinics. Each school runs its own program, e.g. on deworming; HIV/AIDS; violence; sexual abuse, rape and molestation, substance abuse; teenage pregnancies; hypertension; weight; tertiary education; counseling for learners and teachers under severe stress.</p>
<p>USIKO. Community Based Organization (Golden Gate and Kalksteefontein in Bonteheuwel and in Jamestown in the Western Cape.) Funding: Comic Relief, Cord Aid,</p>	<p>“Rites of passage” to manhood for male youth at risk: To provide community based mentoring to male youth at risk. Adult men mentor young boys as a means of providing them with positive role models. To close the gap between men and young boys.</p>		<p>Selected boys from Secondary Oschools. Community members. Health Clinics. Educo: organizes wilderness weekends. Psychologists from clinics and University of Stellenbosch (for Jamestown).</p>	<p>Selection of boys and recruitment of men. Training of mentors and mentored. Structured weekly meetings for mentors and mentored. Combines in- school and out-of-school activities.</p>

(Continued)

Overview of Promising Practices in South Africa (*Continued*)

PROGRAMS	AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
Department of Community Safety	To raise awareness of the responsibility of older men towards the community and to create a forum where they can play this role.			Small-scale community service for the boys in the form of a project of their choice, e.g. farming. Development of self-esteem for boys and men in the program.
<p>YMCA Better Life Options (BLO).</p> <p>Non-governmental organization</p> <p>Funded by Y Care UK and AusAid.</p> <p>Aloe Secondary School in Mitchells Plains, Western Cape and Siyabongo High School Illovo, KwaZulu Natal.</p>	<p>Better Life Options through sexuality and life skills education for youth.</p> <p>To improve access to youth-friendly information in sexual health.</p> <p>To give youth better life options.</p> <p>To reduce the stigma of HIV/AIDS.</p> <p>To promote acceptance of people living with HIV/AIDS.</p> <p>To offer support through counseling, peer education and support groups.</p>	<p>In school programs (WesternCape) and in school and out of school programs (KZN).</p> <p>Peer education.</p> <p>Partnerships with Dept of Health, Social Welfare and Education.</p>	<p>YMCA National Executive.</p> <p>YMCA National Director.</p> <p>BLO Program Director.</p> <p>BLO Project co-coordinators in regions.</p> <p>BLO Local Coordinators.</p> <p>Peer Educators and Voluntary workers.</p> <p>Learners and Youth as key beneficiaries.</p>	<p>Peer education training.</p> <p>Peer education during life-orientation/guidance/library/reading period.</p> <p>Material for peer educators: Peer Educators' Manual and Student's Handbook.</p> <p>Support and mentoring to peer educators by local coordinators.</p> <p>Monitoring and evaluation.</p>

Country Profile: Tanzania

Tanzania is among the 10 poorest countries in the world, with a population of 33 million; of which about 46 percent are under the age of 15 years. It is estimated that about half the population in Tanzania lives below the poverty line. Population growth rate is estimated at a rate of 2.8 percent per annum and the country is experiencing rapid urbanization. The country spends six times more in servicing debt than the expenditure on education. Although macroeconomic reforms introduced in the 1980s have opened up opportunities, especially in mining and service industries, the gap between the rich and poor, as well as between urban and rural has increased. Tanzania is an evolving democracy and a peaceful country. Since its independence in 1961, it has changed its national leaders thrice in a fairly democratic manner. In addition to spending a substantial amount of its resources in the liberation of central and southern Africa, the country is currently bearing the huge burden of refugees from Rwanda, Burundi, and the Republic of Congo.

Country Background Statistics: Tanzania	
Total population in 2000	35,119,000
Life expectancy at birth 1995–2000 (years)	51
HIV prevalence rate 15–49 age group in 2001 (%)	4.3 (m), 9.7 (f)
GNP per capita in 2000 (US\$)	\$270
Population living on less than US\$2 daily 1983–2000 (%)	59.6
Total debt in 2000 (US\$)	—
Education at a Glance	
Gross enrollment ratio in primary education in 2000 (%)	62.9 (m), 63.2 (f)
Transition to secondary education in 1998/99 (%)	18.0 (m), 16.6 (f)
Gross enrollment ratio in secondary in 2000 (%)	6.4 (m), 5.2 (f)
Youth literacy rate in 2000 (%)	93.2 (m), 87.9 (f)
Young illiterates (15–24) in 2008	684,000
Adult literacy rate in 2000 (%)	83.9 (m), 66.5 (f)
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure in 2000	—

Notes: m = male, f = female

Source: UNESCO (2003), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*.

It is estimated that over 90 percent of the population in 2001 did not have access to clean and safe water, especially drinking water. The 2002 Population census shows that life expectancy has fallen to 48 years in 2001. This is mainly due to deaths caused by malaria, which is still the number one killer disease (killing over half a million people, mainly children, each year), followed by HIV/AIDS. As in other African countries, the spread of HIV/AIDS in Tanzania is alarming. The most affected and vulnerable groups

are youth and women, and the rate of infection for girls is six times higher than for boys. The number of orphans has increased to 810,000 children less than 15 years old with serious implications for the education of young people, especially girls, who usually end up remaining home to take care of the sick and younger siblings. The National Policy on HIV/AIDS was adopted in 2001 and the Tanzanian Commission for HIV/AIDS and the Zanzibar AIDS Commission were established to coordinate the national multi sectoral response to the epidemic.

Most of the health problems are preventable, and it was for these reasons that the Ministry of Education and Culture, with the financial and technical support of the United Nations Population Funds (UNFPA), initiated the *Family Life Education Program* with the aim of integrating the health, social and population issues into the formal curriculum. The main idea is to provide knowledge and life skills and counseling services to youth to maintain responsible behavior which will reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS and STDs in order to enable the youth to become responsible citizen and prepare them to meet challenges in a rapidly changing national and global context.

One of the central pillars of the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 is to develop a high quality education at all levels of the education system in the country. As a followup to the Vision 2025, the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) was established as a component of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. So far, Tanzania has already embarked on restructuring of the primary education sector through a Primary Education Development Program with the major focus on enrollment expansion, as the first phase of ESDP. Secondary Education Master Plan, as the second phase of ESDP, is currently in process with the following main objectives: expand transition rate from primary to secondary education from 21 percent (in 2003) to 50 percent (in 2005); increase NER of 14–17 years from 7 percent (in 2002) to 50 percent (in 2010); improve quality of secondary education and provide education equitably across the regions and districts.

*Secondary Education in Tanzania*⁷

Official entrance age for secondary school students in Tanzania are 14 years, and official duration of secondary education is six years (2000/2001). Total enrollment in 2000/2001 was 279,162 students, of which 45 percent were female. Enrollment in technical/vocational programs was 24 286 students; 31 percent of these were female.

Tanzania has the lowest transition rate to secondary education in East Africa. Only 21 percent of primary school leavers join secondary schools, as compared to 53 percent and 29 percent in Kenya and Uganda respectively. The transition rate is particularly low for girls. There are 1,047 secondary schools: 647 (public schools) and 400 (private schools) according to the data at MOEC in January 2003. Only 8.5 percent of the MOEC budget is spent on secondary education (Barnes and Mosha 2003).

7. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics <http://stats.uis.unesco.org/eng/TableViewer/Wdsview/dispviewp.asp?ReportId=52>

Gross and Net Secondary School Enrollment Rate in Tanzania, 1998–2001						
	Gross enrollment in %			Net enrollment in %		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1998/99	5	6	5	—	—	—
1999/00	6	6	5	5	5	5
2000/01	6	6	5	5	5	5

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Main National Policies for the Education Sector

National Policy on HIV/AIDS (2001)

Secondary Education Master Plan (being drafted)

Circular 11/2000: policy on school counselors

Circular 14/2002: formation of school AIDS committees

Circular 13/2002: NGO access to schools

Promising Aspects of the Program in Tanzania

The review of FLE program has revealed that the program has been successful in enhancing and therefore addressing health and safety issues, life skills, and civics in secondary education in Tanzania, and that policy development by the Ministry has also followed the FLE initiative. Among the enabling factors identified to have contributed towards this success includes: relevance of FLE program to respond to the needs of society; mainstreaming or integration of the program in the secondary school curriculum; teacher training mainly referring to the inclusion of the program in the curriculum of the pre-service educators and its strong emphasis on gender sensitivity; provision of relevant and effective teaching/instructional and learning material (source books, teachers guides, charts, and video-cassettes); and peer education through extra-curricular activities and the various clubs in schools that enhance students' ability to make informed choices and develop ownership. Links with related organizations are encouraged by Government, and NGOs are encouraged to work directly with schools.

The use of national expertise at Tanzania Institute of Education to develop materials and approaches has contributed to strengthening the government institution. Factors that have the potential to inhibit the program were revealed to include, among other things, lack of funds to adequately train the teachers; overburdening the teachers, in that counseling life skills is not yet a specialized field and is being done in addition to the teaching load the teachers carry. There is a lack of coordination and therefore fragmentation of support in the implementation of FLE program and its HIV/AIDS strategy in schools, because activities and support of the NGOs and other service providers still remain disjointed and not adequately coordinated and harmonized. Finally, there is a lack of adequate community involvement and ownership of the FLE program which is central especially in the formation of school AIDS Committee that are obviously instrumental in the successful implementation of the FLE program.

Overview of Promising Practices in Tanzania

PROGRAMMES	FOCUS/AIMS	STRATEGIES	PARTICIPANTS AND STRUCTURES	PRACTICE
<p>Family Life Education (FLE) Ministry of Education and Culture. Funded by United Nations Populations Fund (UNFPA). (Jangwani Girls Secondary School and Kibaha Secondary School.)</p>	<p>Health, environment, family life, gender, and population: Integration of these issues into the formal curriculum. Provide knowledge, life-skills education and counseling services to school youth. Enabling youth to adopt and maintain responsible behavior, reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS and STDs among themselves and the community.</p>	<p>Provides an integrated curriculum in biology, civics and home economics (host subjects) to all secondary school learners. In service teacher training. Provision of instructional materials and teacher guides for in service and pre service teachers. Training of education officials and principals of teacher training colleges. Training of teachers by education officials.</p>	<p>Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE); FLE unit in TIE in collaboration with the HIV/AIDS unit in the Ministry of Health; trainers; teachers at schools. School AIDS Committee comprising of learners, teachers and community members.</p>	<p>Develop instructional materials in the host subjects. Teaching aids, e.g. videos and charts. Coordinate training of trainers and teachers. Conduct annual review of the program with all the trainers. Ensure followup support to the schools, e.g. school visits, circulars to schools. Commission evaluation and monitoring.</p>

Promising Practices in the Sub-Saharan Context

So far, an overview has been provided of the rationale for the study, its conceptual framework, and methodology. The previous chapter indicated in tabular form the characteristics of the various promising practices explored in the selected countries. This chapter uses the case studies to explore the concept of “promising practices” further, and to examine the nature of the factors which influence such practices. The aim of this chapter is therefore to begin to bring together the more substantial findings from the field work. In attempting to summarize the broad context of the selected countries, it can be seen that some could be classified as poor or very poor and others as middle income. Most have a predominantly rural population whilst one or two, like Namibia and South Africa, have a large urban population, too. Some like Tanzania have had a long history of peaceful development while others, especially Eritrea, can be characterized as post-conflict societies. Countries were selected from eastern, western, and southern Africa. Some have homogeneous populations and others more heterogeneous groups of inhabitants. The internal gap between rich and poor varies greatly among the countries. Some countries are firmly Muslim and others more secular; most have “strong” governments while others conform more to the “open democracy” model.

Education-related variables are also noticeable. High enrollment rates are found in South Africa, much lower ones in Tanzania. Eritrea has few schools and a low rate of employment of female teachers; some 50 percent of South African secondary teachers are female. Transition rates from primary to secondary are comparatively high in Namibia, much lower in Mali and Senegal. Levels of literacy vary considerably from country to country. Some countries have embraced modern curricula and all seem to have Ministries of Education which are comparatively active in terms of the issues chosen for study. Policy

direction from government is a characteristic of most of the countries selected yet few of the promising practices identified appear to be direct outcomes of government policy.

Thus, it can be seen that despite some similarities, the six selected countries are in fact very different from each other. In a qualitative study of this type, “thick description” becomes an obvious advantage in analyzing information, bearing in mind that country context is all important. Despite this high level of variability, this study still attempts to draw out significant factors in the promising practices identified.

Overview of Country Case Studies

Summarizing the key indicators which derive from the country case studies presented in Chapter 2, it can be seen that the facilitating role of a government Ministry or group of Ministries is very important (Eritrea, Mali, Namibia, Senegal and Tanzania). It can also be observed that where programs or projects follow national policies, this is also a facilitating factor (Eritrea, Mali, Namibia, and Tanzania). Local flexibility and adaptation within national initiatives seem to characterize a number of programs in Eritrea, Mali, Namibia and South Africa. Community engagement or linkages with schools also appear to be important in Eritrea, Mali, and Namibia. Peer leadership or engagement are significant practices in Namibia, Senegal, and South Africa and strong NGO or external support facilitate promising practices in Senegal and Tanzania. In countries like Senegal and Tanzania, linking programs or integrating them with the regular curriculum enhances the relevance of what is done in schools.

It can further be seen that the promising practices which build health and social links have the following characteristics:

- School and community links which address the issues which affect health and social development in positive, proactive and preventative ways.
- Visionary leadership which empowers participants to become involved and which understands the complexities of implementation strategies.
- Systemic links and collaborative practices with relevant government and non-government sectors.
- National, regional and local level policies as guiding frameworks accompanied by a good deal of local diversity and flexibility.
- Reflective and learning practices for participants at all levels.
- A variety of approaches within schools in terms of curriculum, teacher preparation and the use of peer tutors.
- Human and physical resource development strategies which tap into the capacities of participants from the broader educational and community contexts.
- Systems and procedures for accessible records and documentation.

The Nature of the Influencing Factors

When examining promising practices in secondary schools, this thematic study argues for a holistic approach to understanding such practices as opposed to a fragmented approach. A holistic approach clusters the most promising factors from different sites to offer a solution

as to what constitutes a promising practice. Clustering factors in this way best describes the interrelatedness of the factors and offers a multipronged solution to a multifaceted problem. A fragmented approach would isolate single factors, promoting single-tiered solutions.

In analyzing the country reports, it became clear that the individual enabling and constraining factors identified in these reports operate in a complex manner. Rather than having an effect independently, the factors are interrelated and work systemically to provide an environment that either contributes to success or leads to barriers. This also means that what may seem to be an enabling factor in one case, need not necessarily be an enabling factor in another case. Because each case is unique, individual factors function differently in different environments. For example, in both Mali and Tanzania, mainstreaming the Family Life Education program into the curriculum has been cited as an important enabling factor. On the other hand, the USIKO program has a strong community base and is not institutionalized into the school curriculum. This community-base is also viewed as the strength of that program.

In the same vein, a factor, which is an essential component in many of the projects can be both enabling and inhibiting simultaneously. An example of this can be found in the South African country report which names three projects: USIKO, HPS (Health Promoting Schools) and BLO (Better Life Options). Community involvement is seen to be critical for the success of these programs. They all rely on the community to volunteer their professional services and on unemployed community members to volunteer to participate. However, in a context where there is a great need for paid employment and money to feed families, an overreliance on the goodwill of the community has been found to be detrimental to the programs. Factors such as sustainability, commitment, community ownership, and continuity—all of which contribute to the success of the programs—have been negatively affected.

This is an important finding with implications for the way in which the factors are understood as well as for the recommendations made in the final chapter of this report. One cannot assume that the mere existence of one factor, for example strong leadership, will necessarily lead to the development of a more promising practice and, on the strength of that, invest in leadership development to the exclusion of other factors such as teacher training, development of teaching and learning materials, and intersectoral collaboration. Individual factors need to be supported and to work alongside other factors.

For these reasons, the influencing factors have been clustered in the rest of this chapter that reflects on the findings documented in the country reports. In Chapter 4 of the report, recommendations are provided along similar lines; rather than listing discrete recommendations, a more holistic conceptualization of programs is offered.

The remainder of this chapter provides an analysis of the factors that influence the success of promising practices. In addition, constraining factors are highlighted.

Factors Which Influence Promising Practices

These factors have been clustered into broad descriptive and analytical categories and describe the key issues drawn from the various country reports. Special references are made below to specific examples within individual countries to highlight the significance of these

factors within different programs. Although these factors cannot be inflexibly prioritized in a descending order, they are listed from more important to less important as reflected in a combined reading of the country reports. The first cluster of factors includes those which are seen to ensure the sustainability of the practice at a systemic level, while the second cluster of factors are those which ensure the institutionalization of the practice in the life of the school.

Factors Contributing to Sustainability

Factors which are seen to contribute to the sustainability of the promising practice at a systemic level are: leadership, policy, and funding. These might be understood as the “big three” factors critical to development.

It is important to note, however, that these factors are highly interdependent. The factors identified as contributing to sustainability at the systemic level often operate in cluster and may influence each other. Policies may release funding, just as proper funding may enable good leadership with sufficient resources, and leadership may be instrumental in fund raising or disseminating practices to the policy level and thus influencing policies.

Leadership

Leadership is needed at many levels in the education system—from ministerial level and program management and implementation levels to leadership at the level of the recipients, the students. The study found that leadership is a prerequisite for promising practices. Leaders

Leadership capacity and ability at all levels has enabled OY and HPSI, Namibia, to build developmental relationships and encouraged a level of institutionalisation at school, local and regional levels. The ability of both programmes to access local and regional leadership support enabled them to access resources, authority and the potential for intersectoral collaboration. Visionary leadership has also supported policy development and the initiation of strategies to address health related issues.

Inhibiting factors have been the limited involvement of some teachers and school leaders in supporting the programme, the poor leadership in local HIV/AIDS structures and the inability of an NGO to hold teachers and school leaders accountable.

Source: Ashby, Collett, and Yates (2003), p. 29.

need to have a good sense of the vision, underlying philosophy and goals of the program globally and locally, especially how it links with contextual factors such as policy, resource provision, and local, regional and national structures. In addition, leaders need to have a clear vision of the implementation phase. The Namibian case study referenced in the box above illustrates the importance of local and regional leadership in providing access to other facilitating factors. Evidence of leadership in intersectoral collaboration as an enabling factor is seen in the HPSI in Namibia and the HIV/AIDS education in Tanzania. There is also evidence to show that the HPSP in South

Africa could be more effective if it became a formal program of the Departments of Health Social Services and Education.

It is critical for those at ministerial and program management levels to liaise with other levels of leadership horizontally (intersectorally, that is, across the relevant ministerial

departments involved in the program) and vertically (intrasectorally, from ministerial/NGO/program management level to the learner and community level). Namibia cases are good examples of this kind of linking as are cases in Eritrea and Senegal.

On an intrasectoral level, the ability of leaders to build personal relationships of trust and support with participants was cited as critical to supporting developmental relationships. Other leadership activities such as providing ongoing moral and material support and assistance to programs, keeping in touch with the ideas and needs of participants and modeling a belief in the ability of youth to make a difference in their own lives and that of the community are all important.

A challenge noted in the HIV/AIDS strategy in Tanzania is the coordination of the activities of NGOs and other service providers. The coordination is seen to be “disjointed” with some schools overresourced to the detriment of others. This calls for intersectoral coordination. Improvement in the sustainability of the promising practice with regard to leadership of effective intersectoral collaboration and coordination needs to be provided and supported at a policy level as well as at the level of individual and group dynamics.

Source: Arendse and others (2003), p. 27.

Intersectoral collaboration presents an interesting challenge for leadership because while it strengthens relationships, it could be perceived as leading to a loss of expertise and thus revealing other threats associated with professional territoriality. Particularly challenging is the sharing of resources and funding between ministries and the development of new methods of accounting and provision to support intersectoral programs. Good examples of inter-Ministerial cooperation were found in Eritrea, Senegal, and Namibia among others.

Leadership style is also of importance, especially democratic leadership that encourages stakeholder participation, and builds ownership and capacity in program activities.

Policy

The potential of policy to encourage schools and teachers to integrate societal issues into the traditional curriculum is noted as another factor that helps to implement and sustain the activities of programs. National and regional policies set a vision and a framework for the establishment of structures and procedures to address health and population issues which mandate the implementation of programs at a local/school level. Although all programs cited in the country reports operate within a national and regional framework which mandates the implementation of programs at a local/school level, there has generally been a lack of school level policy around health and population issues, for example, condom distribution and the inclusion of HIV/AIDS into

In Namibia there is currently no specific policy with regard to HIV/AIDS at the school level. “There is no tool so nobody knows what feet to dance to. There is not a policy on teachers doing something about HIV/AIDS and you can’t enforce anything” (OY, Namibia report). This is a factor, which hinders the work of OY. Some teachers do not attend training sessions the programme offers or support the AACs to a great extent. There is also limited involvement and sporadic involvement by teachers in integrating HIV/AIDS awareness into the formal curriculum.

Source: Ashby, Collett, and Yates (2003), p. 32.

the formal curriculum. The development of school level policies in consultation with learners, teachers, school managers, and community members could greatly enhance the successful integration of programs. Tanzania is an example of a country where national policy has in fact been derived from experience with the FLE program. It should also be noted that where Ministries support such policies as the creation of more representative school management structures, this can have a beneficial effect on programs relating to pupil needs.

Policy at the school level also often operates within the framing guidelines of the dominant religion of the school. For example, in Senegal and Tanzania, the Catholic Church promotes abstinence from sexual activity and prohibits condom usage. The promising practices at those sites thus operate within that framework. National and regional policies set the parameters within which the practice should operate systematically. School level policies enable or hinder a promising practice at an operational level.

There has been no evidence in any of the programs surveyed for this study that they have worked within a whole school development framework, which would promote the activities of these programs in a broader macro-planning process within the line-functions of the school management and governance structures.

Funding

All the programs in the study highlighted the importance of adequate funding to develop and sustain the promising practice. Funding provides the physical and human resources,

which sustain the program. Adequate funding has not been clearly specified in any of the programs. Given the contextual differences between countries, it is important to note the funding available to different promising practices in terms of the scale, scope and location of the program.

The programs in Sub-Saharan Africa are generally implemented in poor communities with limited resources. They rely heavily on outside

EVF/EMP in Mali, a government program, which was started in 1989, receives funding from various sources. It has formally documented funding, accounting, and accountability processes which contribute towards its sustainability. The funding is seen to be “not too restrictive.” At the same time, the program scope is seen to be limited (only 31 schools in 15 years) which is attributed either to a certain caution on the part of funders or/and the heavy financial implications of the EVF/EMP activities.

Source: Konaté and Sonn (2003), p. 18.

funding, community involvement and volunteers. As mentioned earlier in this report, volunteerism is both an enabling and inhibiting factor. The scope and timeframes of this study did not allow for investigation into the impact of funding in relation to other factors. Preliminary evidence suggests that while funding is important, it works together with other factors in promising practices and is rarely a stand-alone factor in success or failure. The Eritrean example quoted in the box provides an interesting case of local development of funding mechanisms with some inputs from government.

In the absence of a formal cost benefit analysis for the programs studied, funding may be seen as both an enabling and an inhibiting factor. On the one hand it enables the implementation of the program but, on the other hand, the limited budgets and/or elaborate and often costly accounting procedures that are associated with receiving external funding

may increase administrative tasks and reduce focus on project development.

The sustainability of programs run by NGOs is highly dependent on the availability of adequate funding (see the OY Program, Namibia, and NUEYS, Eritrea). The benefits of these programs are that they are seen to be relevant, adaptable to different contexts, flexible and close to the site of implementation as opposed to state programs which often have to go through lengthy bureaucratic policies and procedures before implementation. As NGOs rely on donor funding which is tied to specific time frames, longer term planning, high staff turnover due to financial insecurity, limited resources and complex application procedures to access state funding are cited as some of the factors which affect their sustainability.

A type of cost benefit analysis is evident in programmes, which are directly linked to the consolidation of national unity and nation building such as the Eritrean Summer Work Programme. This program makes reference, without documentary evidence, to the cost benefit analysis of the program. The economic demands of the program have been evaluated as very high, but the gains made politically, socially, culturally, morally, educationally, and environmentally have been noted. It is at this nonmonetary level that funding, however limited, makes a program which promotes a sense of nation-building and depends on the resourcefulness of the community, a promising practice.

Source: Ministry of Education, Eritrea (1996) and Asfaha, Davidoff, and Telkehanot (2003), p. 23.

Factors Contributing to the Institutionalization of a Promising Practice in the Life of the School

The institutionalization of program activities may support system level sustainability in the sense that it creates the potential for the program to become immersed in the school activities thus ensuring opportunities for ongoing learning and for the program to receive financial support.

The factors that may contribute to institutionalization are an integrated curriculum, teacher education, relevant and replicable materials, structural support, ongoing evaluation and peer education.

An Integrated Curriculum

An integrated curriculum refers to instances where health and social issues have been integrated into specific subjects, for example, biology, science, geography, and home economics. Conversely, these issues may be dealt with in a stand-alone subject, for example, civic education. Examples of integration of out-of-school, community-based and/or extramural programs into the formal curriculum have also been offered as promising practices (USIKO and BLO, South Africa; SWP and NUEYS, Eritrea; OY, Namibia). Integration may therefore mean teaching within a “host” subject, the mounting of a separate subject with equal status to “regular” subjects or an externally-driven teaching program which is accepted as an integral part of what the school does.

The Family Life Education Program in Tanzania and Mali provide good examples of how societal issues such as population growth, reproductive health, environmental

The importance of the actual integration of the program into the mainstream activities of the school is highlighted in the Eritrean SWP programme which aims to enable learners to integrate what they theoretically learned in schools into their practice. The program is regarded, in its conception, as a very powerful initiative for the participation of students in the reshaping of the country yet the development of the skills of learners has not been maximized due to the absence of linkages which could be made between in-school and out-of-school learning and between the program and other curriculum activities.

Source: Asfaha, Davidoff, and Tecklehaimanot (2003), p. 28.

degradation, decrease in economic activity and quality of life as a result of early dropouts due to teenage pregnancy or HIV/AIDS can be institutionalized in the school by integrating the program into the mainstream curriculum. Here, a multipronged strategy of integration in the curriculum, teacher training, the provision of teaching and learning materials and community involvement is used.

The potential for the successful integration of in-school and out-of-school program activities has been

reported in the USIKO program, South Africa. The report states that “(E)ven in the program where it is primarily an out-of-school program, the life-skills part can be adapted to school” (Arendse and others 2003).

Introduction of a new subject into the school curriculum requires consultation, management, and coordination throughout the system, but particularly at the school level. Evidence in

the country reports shows that attempts are being made in Senegal with Civitas to institutionalize civic education in the school program. The subject, which deals with issues linked to citizenship, institutions, good governance, and political, social and economic rights, has been introduced in colleges and high schools in Senegal. History and geography teachers teach the subject for one hour per week. The implementation of the program highlights the importance of well-managed institutionalization processes, such as carefully thought through strategies, record keeping and monitoring for assessment and further planning. School management teams have to allow time for planning and reflection and record keeping as well as time-tabling of the subject in appropriate slots.

Civic education is one of the ‘poor relatives’ in Senegal’s education system. In percentage terms, delivery of civic education is low in the lower secondary level. In the upper secondary level, it does not feature among examination subjects. As a result, some teachers use their civic education period for history or geography lessons.

Considering the importance of civic education, there is need to reinforce its delivery in schools by urgently taking measures to:

- Restore the civic education period at the upper secondary level, and to ensure related teaching/learning is assessed in class and at the Baccalaureate.
- Institute school governance by establishing a school government in each school to promote learning in citizenship in the school setting.
- Develop out-of-class strategies for civic education, which would involve learners in community civic projects that would give them the opportunity to learn from other resource persons.

Source: HESI Senegal Country Report 2003: p. 21.

Teacher Education

Evidence from the country reports indicates that teacher education plays a vital role in promising practices. The capacity building of teachers and learners has been a key strategy

in both the OY and HPSI programs, Namibia. School leaders and staff members were involved in training, site-based support, and materials development. These processes have reportedly played a key role in building the confidence of teachers to deal with sensitive issues related to cultural beliefs and practices. Some of the case studies point to the lack of ability of teachers to deconstruct their environment and understand the part culture plays in their sexual life—therefore the teachers have problems talking about sexuality to learners and often lack sensitivity or the ability to find an entry point to initiate discussion. Teachers do not live in isolation from their culture. They are heavily influenced by their own culture, but often they don't realize the reason why it is so difficult for them to talk about HIV/AIDS and sexual education.

One strength of the Family Life Program, Tanzania is its inclusion in the curriculum for pre-service educators and the training of the principals of teacher training colleges as trainers in FLE. All the core areas are included and a strong emphasis is placed on gender sensitivity. This is an attempt to address in-school factors, such as teachers' attitudes, learning material etc. that impact negatively on the participation and success of girls at school.

Questions have been raised about the suitability of teachers to deliver HIV/AIDS messages. Examples have been given which show that teachers' beliefs on HIV/AIDS are conservative, mythical, and counterproductive. This view was supported by the OY Program Head in Namibia when he spoke about the difficulties teachers face in teaching and talking about HIV/AIDS. These are significant shortcomings which have to be overcome if teachers are to play a meaningful role in health and social education. Teachers' participation in the development of socially relevant, culturally sensitive, and challenging curricula could give them opportunities to explore their own values and beliefs. They will also have the opportunity to reconceptualize their roles as teachers, counselors and informants and, at the same time, become curriculum developers. The engagement of teachers in these practices is the process which contributes to their role as change agents, and this, in turn, contributes to the establishment of promising practices.

The professional staff at the FLE unit, Tanzania, was of the view that most teachers felt that the teaching and learning support materials helped them to teach the new content areas and they felt comfortable using the materials. Teachers also found the variety and the different media such as textbooks, charts, and videos useful aids to teaching the new content areas.

Source: Barnes and Mosha (2003), p. 22.

Relevant and Replicable Materials

Changes in knowledge, attitude, skills, and behavior cannot be attributed solely to the use of appropriate material, but should be viewed in conjunction with other factors mentioned in the report. However, it is clear from evidence in the country reports that the use of relevant and replicable materials can have a positive impact on promising practices. Such materials should be culturally sensitive, address the learning needs of particular age groups, and provide learners with the necessary knowledge, attitudes and skills which will lead to behavioral change.

In the OY program of Namibia, there is documented evidence that the production of learning and teaching materials of a high standard and relevance can be used in supporting daily program activities. Although context specific materials hold a tension for replication

in other contexts, teachers have been able to either adapt the material or mediate the contextual factors, so that the generic lessons can be drawn from the materials.

Two schools mentioned in the Tanzanian study are seen to be successful because extra curricular programs such as Anti-AIDS clubs and the provision of student counselling enhance and strengthen the curriculum based activities. In both schools students were actively involved in clubs and were supported by committed teachers. These clubs provide opportunities for students to develop leadership skills and to develop ownership of the issues. They were also given time to bring the message across to the wider school community. Although students felt they learned from peers, they rely on adults to provide accurate information, hence the call for teacher involvement in clubs.

Source: Barnes and Mosha (2003), p. 24.

The development of appropriate and relevant learning materials is an important skill for teachers to acquire. Evidence from the materials used in a few of the programs indicates the need for changes in teaching methodology, and classroom management, as well as new ways of meeting the challenges posed by adverse community practices and teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. Engagement with appropriate teaching and learning materials would support the approaches to teacher education mentioned above.

Ongoing Evaluation

It is clear that regular evaluation which supports, provides critical feedback and develops the program in an integrated way contributes to its sustainability. Programs which engage in ongoing evaluation and regard it as an important activity which forms an integral part of the next phase of the development of the program are more sustainable than

The EVF/EMP, Mali, is in its fourth phase and has had three positive evaluation reports. In the October 1995 evaluation report, the following was noted: "The testing of the Education in Family Life and Population matters has lead to an improvement in the knowledge and behaviours of groups targeted with reference to population questions around which the curriculum was built."

Source: Konaté and Sonn (2003), p. 15.

those that do not engage in evaluations or do not engage with the findings outlined in evaluation reports. Lack of evaluation mechanisms was common among the case studies examined. Those which did have a sound evaluation policy like the HPS program in South Africa, were perceived as more successful by their members and their

management. Where there is insufficient documentation, participants have to rely on memory when making decisions or replicating a practice. This could lead to a lack of focus and collective uncertainty about the practice and the policy.

It is recognized that evaluations are often costly and time-consuming for programs with limited funding and staff shortages; however, it is necessary that creative ways of conducting ongoing evaluations which provide for regular reflection and planning sessions need to be developed.

Peer Education

Evidence from several of the country reports has highlighted the vital role of peer educators in promising practices, especially in sexuality education. Young people interviewed said they

found it easier to discuss sexual and other issues with their peers rather than with their teachers and parents (see also Nesbakken 2003). Secondary school learners also enjoy being given responsibilities or being in charge of projects. Programs that involve peer educators create space for youth to take responsibility for themselves and for others, whether it happens during or outside school hours.

In the BLO programme, South Africa, many of the peer educators said that they would appreciate more support from their teachers, especially in the beginning when they are still learning to facilitate. They would appreciate having additional older people involved who could share their experiences with the youth. Striking the balance between youth-led processes and adult support is crucial

Source: Arendse and others (2003), p. 25.

Peer educators play remarkable leadership roles in Youth Clubs, Anti-AIDS Clubs, community projects and as classroom educators and peer counselors. The country and site reports contain detailed descriptions which confirm the role of peer educators in promising practices. While their role is intrinsically important in these programs, they have been found to be most successful when combined with curriculum based studies and teacher support.

Related to the role of peer educators is the growing practice of engaging pupils in their own programs such as various out-of-school clubs, like in Eritrea, Senegal, Namibia as well as South Africa. Student ownership is an important principle for success as these case studies reveal.

Support Within the Structure of the School

Structural support at the school level, between schools and between an external program manager and the school promotes sustainability. Structural support in the form of *time* set aside within the school day for peer education programs (BLO, South Africa); *structures* such as School Health Committees and AIDS Awareness Clubs and the development of a *school charter* to assist with planning and accessing of resources to support program activities (HPSI, Namibia), and *clustering* of schools to plan collaborative activities around HIV/AIDS are mentioned in the country reports. The establishment of close links between the program manager, school principals, teachers, school and community committees create opportunities for shared decisionmaking, planning, and implementation strategies.

The South African country report shows evidence that a program is more likely to be successful if it has the support of the principal, the management team, and the governing body. In the HPS program in Atlantis, the principal's role has primarily been to create an enabling environment to facilitate support and development. He has been able to create a climate in the school where the parents and service providers are enabled to work together for the good of the school. Community support did not come easily because of conflicting views about birth control for the youth. The School Governing Body supports the concept of developing the school into a health promoting school.

Source: Arendse and others (2003), p. 27.

The implementation of school wide programs is cited as being more sustainable in that this affects the decisionmaking and problem-solving around the school time-table, staff, space, resources and the planning of activities. The importance of involvement of staff at

the schools, from the principal to the teachers, is especially crucial in peer education programs, such as the BLO, South Africa. In schools where staff members have been involved and become a resource for the peer educators, sustainability is addressed. On the other hand, in cases where peer educators have little or no support from teachers, the quality and impact of the program is threatened.

Summing Up

The case studies examined from the six selected countries did not reveal fully formed exemplars of model practice from which clear principles could be drawn. However, such was the variety of programs and projects examined (18 in all) that the indicators of promising practice outlined above could be readily extracted. The conclusions and recommendations which follow in Chapter 4 draw together a set of themes and concepts which provide guidance for further extension of the promising practices. They also provide signposts for those planning interventions which will place health, civics education and the struggle against HIV/AIDS at the heart of the secondary schools' effort to provide the life skills which today's young people need.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The analysis of promising practices in the selected countries of this study has given support to the view that secondary schools have a potential to become prime learning sites in regard to the important issues the HESI study sought to explore. The secondary school is the one site that draws adolescents and adults together in a single institution and endeavors to prepare them to make valuable contributions to civil society. Adolescents, coincidentally, have also been identified as the group most vulnerable to health hazards such as HIV/AIDS infection and the group which could benefit most from intervention strategies. It is worth mentioning that teachers are also reported to be a major at-risk group with far-reaching consequences for education in this context.

Several of the promising practices in this study include components targeting teachers, through training and sensitization. The assumption is made that the interactive teaching methodology employed in promising practices could have profound effects on teachers' knowledge, skills, and behavior and in that way support prevention and education strategies.

What this study does argue for strongly is the promotion of secondary education and particularly the promotion of educational initiatives which link health, civic, social, and pedagogical issues. Such initiatives need to be supported by a cluster of factors which will enable them to become promising practices

The following conclusions and recommendations are based on a holistic understanding of the issues described in the previous sections of the report. A subset of recommendations is provided under each topic. These recommendations are based on assessment of a limited set of projects grounded in particular contexts, and are thus only tentative, reflecting what seem to arise out of the case studies undertaken.

Multifaceted Initiatives for Interrelated Issues

The reality of the Sub-Saharan context, and the countries within which the promising practices were identified, is characterized by widespread poverty, past and present political upheaval, poor infrastructure, and the uncertainties of governments and ministries in different stages of transition. In this context, resources are scarce, but social problems are great.

The promising practices in the study generally, and in individual countries specifically, are limited in numbers (Eritrea) and scope and scale (Mali), but they are all multiproblem initiatives. Problems and their solutions are linked in a complex web of cause and effect. In all programs included in this study, various health issues, life skills, civic and population issues have been identified and are frequently addressed under a single program. The intervention strategies, therefore, have to take cognizance of the complexity of the problems within contexts marked by scarce resources. An outstanding feature of all the promising practices in this study is the link with disease prevention, for example, HIV/AIDS, malaria, and TB with nutrition, civic, and family life education.

The promising practices examined allude to the relationships between health and civic education, on the one hand, and access to education and transition into and through secondary school, on the other. This is particularly relevant in promising practices in health and family life which focus on girls. This subtle, implicit relationship between transition and the promotion of socio-pedagogical interventions has cross-relational causes and effects. The effects of limited access to education render those learners more susceptible to malnutrition, unemployment and disease, while malnutrition etc. results in limited transition through secondary school. A closer exploration and analysis of this interrelationship is necessary to render promising practices in HESI successful; it follows that programs cannot merely address one issue without also giving some consideration to the others within the web.

Recommendations

- Strategic thinking and planning for addressing the issue of life-skills, health and civic education must recognize the complexity and interrelatedness of the challenges facing education systems in Sub-Saharan Africa rather than seeking one-shot solutions through an improved curriculum, better teacher education or learning materials.
- Deeper analysis is required of the web of relationships which determine the success or failure of programs designed to bring about changes in behavior

Teacher Education: Teachers as Change Agents

Another feature of the multipronged initiatives with inter-causal links is the huge emphasis which has been placed on HIV/AIDS prevention. Despite—or possibly because of—the negative impact of HIV/AIDS on the fabric of many of the societies examined, HIV/AIDS education initiatives have provided much needed opportunities for reforming teachers' roles, teacher education programs, school development initiatives, and community involvement.

Traditionally, in many communities, teachers have been regarded as the custodians of community values. In transmitting these values, they have often played a conservative role—in every sense of this word. Today, while it is widely recognized that HIV/AIDS education should be culturally sensitive and adaptive to local contexts, it is also clear that effective HIV/AIDS education needs to challenge deeply held personal and societal values that perpetuate practices and attitudes which spread the disease.

This new role for teachers and the approach it requires, affects the lesson material, class discussions, lesson planning and teaching and learning methods in new and different ways. Effective HIV/AIDS curricula are interactive, participatory and draw on the resourcefulness and knowledge of learners as peer educators and community facilitators, all of which may result in innovative and challenging classroom teaching and learning processes and school development strategies. However, teacher may in some instances be part of the problem, and the importance of looking into this issue was underlined in the First Regional Conference on Secondary Education in Africa.

If teachers are going to act as change agents within their schools and also within their communities, teacher education needs to assist them in sensitively challenging “regimes of truth”—those values and beliefs underpinning cultural beliefs and practices which may contribute to the spread of disease and discrimination. This also requires that teachers challenge traditional teaching and learning practices, which impede both critical thinking and change.

The question then becomes what should be the nature of teacher education. Rather than a narrow technical approach to health and social issues, teachers need to become aware of the wider contexts within which these issues occur. For example, in health education programs dealing with HIV/AIDS, it is important that teachers learn not only about the epidemiology of the disease, but also the social constructs which influence the spread of the disease. In other words, there needs to be an examination of issues related to gender inequality, unequal access to schools, the effects of poverty and malnutrition on schooling, and the patterns of stereotyping and marginalization in disease identification and prevention.

Recommendations

- All teachers should be able to teach their learners about health and social issues within their respective subjects and as a discipline in its own right, especially HIV/AIDS education. An approach to teacher education which adequately prepares teachers for the challenges they face in the classroom and in the community should be offered at pre-service and in-service level.
- Ministries of Education, Health, Social Welfare, Population Development, and so forth need to work alongside Teacher Training Colleges and Universities to develop professional programs for teachers. NGOs who have worked in schools in the development of teaching methods, peer education, materials and community mobilization should be co-opted as partners in accredited programs.
- An approach to teacher education recommended for curricula which link health, education, and social issues is based on a human rights approach which promotes rights and responsibilities, diversity and tolerance and which builds confidence, self-esteem and self-discipline as well as focusing on the caring and nurturing of others.

An Integrated Curriculum

An integrated curriculum, which mainstreams health and social issues into the learning and teaching program, needs to be planned from policy level through to the process of curriculum development and implementation. Creative ways of presenting the curriculum, in addition to relevant insertions into existing subjects, need to be explored.

Recommendations

- Development of interactive participatory programs which give learners a voice and responsibility through peer education and the mobilization of the community, involvement in youth clubs, community projects, out-of-school development projects and the incorporation of art, drama and debates in relevant subject areas should form part of the formal school curriculum, with credits for participation.
- The delivery of such a curriculum would require the involvement of other role players such as NGOs, community members and professionals from other sectors, which would be facilitated by well managed and coordinated intersectoral collaboration.

Peer Education and Youth Involvement

An outstanding feature of the promising practices in this study is the involvement of peer educators. Considering that young people are at a stage where they are exploring their own sexuality and often lack information on this topic because of traditional taboos in family and school settings, the contributions of these young people are inspiring and should be encouraged. Peer educators play remarkable leadership roles in Youth Clubs, Anti-AIDS Clubs, community projects, and as classroom educators, often with very little or no support or adult supervision. The country and site reports contain valuable information, which confirms change at an individual level through the development of self-esteem, confidence, knowledge about disease prevention and the promotion of civic values.

Despite the valuable contribution of peer educators, the success of a promising practice cannot be built on this alone. The responsibility for bringing about health and social changes is huge and the challenges are daunting. The challenges require more than change at an individual level; community and peer values need to be challenged. In order to do this, young people need the support and guidance of their teachers and other adult members of the school and broader community. Peer education has to be combined with guidance and counseling, and cooperative school and community projects.

Recommendations

- Peer educators have a unique role to perform, transmitting knowledge and being accessible to their fellow students for guidance, both within and beyond the school.
- Peer Educators need to be supported by teachers and other adult members of the school and the community, if they are to fulfill their counseling and guidance roles effectively.

Community Participation

As stressed in several points in this report, scarce resources are the reality in Sub-Saharan contexts. Education ministries, non-governmental organizations, donor agencies, program planners and designers have expanded their thinking of the school as site, to include external but interrelated contexts which interface with the school as an institution. As an example, various policies and programs have identified community participation as a crucial aspect in addressing educational, societal and community problems. In these instances, community participation has been identified as a major mechanism to address critical social and pedagogical issues through the use of community human resources.

However, the identification of such non-material resources in the community as the resourcefulness of community members and the contribution they can make does not presuppose participation in the full sense of the word. The education levels in many communities are low and consequently there is very little familiarity with the education system and the social, economic, health and political challenges that it faces. These communities have also been hit hard by the AIDS pandemic through illness, loss of life, disease and apathy, which has had catastrophic effects on family life, social and physical infrastructure, community health, and productivity. Harnessing community participation in these contexts is particularly challenging. Those who interact with community members need to find and experiment with new paradigms of working with communities in need. There are also hosts of resourceful people in the community, for example, traditional healers, caregivers, youth leaders, religious institutions, NGOs, and CBOs which are making valuable contributions. With proper management and coordination the collective resourcefulness of community members could be enhanced.

Recommendations

- A common thread in the contributing factors is community participation. In order to deal with the effects of disease and trauma in our schools and classrooms, interventions, which involve the community, should be prioritized. These interventions would have an in-school (curriculum/subject based) component linked to an out-of-school (community based) component.
- Schools should be given guidance and training in the identification of resourceful people in the community, for example, traditional healers, care-givers, youth leaders, and religious leaders. Alongside this, teachers, learners, school managers, and governing bodies should be trained in community participation strategies. This would include making the school a welcoming place for the community.
- Training in community participation strategies should also include the recognition and challenging of adverse aspects of local culture, for example, gender discrimination, stereotyping and marginalization of people with AIDS, and practices which limit access to schooling across gender and age groups.
- It then becomes important for education ministries to strengthen the role of the school in the community. Awareness campaigns should highlight the value of schooling and in-school and out-of-school activities and so create a desire for participation as well as various incentives for volunteerism.

Ongoing Evaluation

Evaluation was identified as a necessary but frequently poorly conducted exercise in promising practices. In the sites studied, monitoring and evaluation were generally weak, often non-existent. Programs were focused more on the acquisition of funding than on a rigorous exploration of practice. Information about the efficacy of the practices was conveyed by word of mouth and anecdotally, for example, 10 fewer pregnancies occurred in a school. It was not linked to dropout rates and transfers through different levels of school, early marriages, and so forth. While such information is valuable and conveys a sense of success, it is not sufficiently sophisticated to provide explanations for apparent change in behavior.

The absence of curriculum evaluation means that there is no real understanding of the effectiveness of lesson content and the methods of transmission used. Without in-depth curriculum reviews, it is not possible to be sure of the currency of the information imparted or their effectiveness in getting ideas across or reinforcing values; instead, there is a very real danger that curriculum materials grow stale and overused.

While evaluation in itself does not make for a promising practice, it provides a means of investigating practices and of learning how to improve these. It is important that evaluation studies be conducted to enable both managers and practitioners—and possibly even funders—to engage in reflection and learning and so begin to investigate the effects of resources, curriculum content, and appropriate teaching and learning styles for integrated curricula. In addition, evaluation could assist in developing understandings of how to challenge community values, beliefs and practices that increase the incidence of disease and limit access to schooling. In these ways, evaluation would contribute to promising practices.

Recommendations

- This report has highlighted the importance of engaging in the monitoring and evaluation of program aims and objectives as well as processes and activities. Without opportunities to investigate and reflect on practice, it is not possible to demonstrate that any changes in knowledge, behaviors, and attitudes have taken place. Without this, it is not possible to know which aspects of a program are successful and which need to be improved or even curtailed.
- In order to conduct thorough monitoring and evaluation, program managers need to set up accessible information systems and document each step of program planning and implementation at all levels of the system. This will facilitate replication in other sites and also provide information to guide policy and programs.
- It is clear that this study had been a “first cut” into many of the programs in a number of countries included in this study. It is important that further research into complex patterns of cause and effect (for example, transition, gender education) be commissioned and conducted. In order to do so, all program budgets need to include funding for this activity and, just as important, program staff need themselves to be trained to recognize the value of evaluation.
- One way in which to involve both program staff and also to facilitate wider community participation in evaluation processes is to ensure that these activities include strong participatory action research elements. For example, communities could be trained to assist in evidence collection and the verification of analyses and findings.

Leadership

The development and sustainability of promising practices would not be possible without leadership throughout the education system and across other ministries and organizations involved in health and social education. The manifestation of leadership capacity and ability at all levels of the system enables programs to build developmental relationships and partnerships and to encourage the institutionalization and sustainability of the program as a promising practice.

Promising practices are by nature and definition in particular development phases and need support, pressure and guidance from visionary and empowering leaders. The realization of the conclusions drawn above relies on strong and visionary leadership. The argument throughout the report has been for systemic and relational thinking in promising practices. Differentiated leadership which allows for the development of leadership at all levels of the system has been a strong proposal. Decentralized structures with decisionmaking powers at national, regional and local levels fall into this framework.

Together with differentiated leadership and decisionmaking powers, there has also been an argument for leadership which is given through policies at national, regional, and school levels. These policies give authority and create an enabling framework for promising practices to develop. Peer educators also refer to this kind of leadership when they ask for relevant and meaningful adult involvement in peer education.

There is no doubt that the education system should invest in leadership development in order to strengthen promising practices. There is a real danger that without leadership throughout the system, education will suffer not only from the consequences of diseases such as HIV / AIDS, malaria, and TB for learners and teachers, but also from its inability to participate in building civil society. The education system would be seen as the problem and not as a solution to the problem.

Recommendations

- The evidence collected in the country reports for this study highlights the need to prioritize leadership development when embarking on change initiatives. Leadership should be developed not only at departmental and program levels, but also at the school level amongst managers, teachers, and peer educators, as well as parents who are involved in the programs.
- Programs should promote youth leadership development and encourage youth to be involved as peer educators and in community based projects.

Institutionalization of Interventions

This study indicates that it is important to harness the energy, resources, and capacities of different ministries, non-governmental organizations, and educational researchers involved in educationally relevant promising practices. They need to work both within their own disciplines as well as across disciplines. Many of the health, civic education, and life-skills programs cover wide areas and could benefit from the input of many different

sectors. It would therefore be beneficial to establish co-coordinating mechanisms to develop programs that encourage greater intersectoral collaboration.

Recommendations

- Education ministries should set up cross-sectoral units which can coordinate and manage these programs. This should be done in such a way that time, funding and resources are made available from all the sectors, so that they are all responsible for the success of the program.
- Such units should involve the leadership in the different ministries and work towards a shared vision and values across the different sectors involved. While such a unit should be tight on vision and values it should allow organizations and units to find flexible implementation strategies which suit the contexts within which they work. This will allow staff direct access to school and community sites.

Funding

It is clear that many of the recommendations suggested above are dependent on funding. It is also clear from the country reports that many programs and projects do not have access to long-term funding, but exist quite precariously from year to year.

Recommendations

- It is vital that education ministries create mechanisms to make sustainable funding and resources available to promising government and non-government initiatives that ensure policy implementation around health, civic, and life-skills education. Without the assurance of such funding, it is not possible to plan ahead nor to develop suitable support structures for activities such as community involvement and monitoring and evaluation.
- It is also important that generally accepted accountability procedures such as regular audits and report writing, be encouraged. Here again, new skills may need to be acquired by program staff.

Epilogue

It is clear from the study presented above that a great deal of valuable work is going on in a wide variety of places and environments. The few countries selected for this study demonstrated many aspects of what can be described as promising practices. No doubt there are more examples to be found in the same countries and in others throughout Sub-Saharan Africa. Looking back at the research experience a number of prominent issues present themselves. The first is the commitment of many people, with or without formal backing and funding, to address the huge health and social challenges confronting their young people. It is common to talk in Sub-Saharan Africa of a lack of capacity in the

education systems. In technical areas this may be true, but, in terms of the readiness of a wide range of people to do what they can within severe limitations, there is much capacity to be drawn upon. The second salient point to make concerns young people themselves. They are not passive recipients of the school program. In many cases they are seeking solutions to problems themselves and are contributing their ideas and energies to programs which tackle these problems directly. The third important issue is that of the role of NGOs, CBOs, and communities at large. The writers of this report take it as a tremendously hopeful sign that so many people are engaging in self-help of one sort or another and are not waiting for “government” to come to the rescue. Finally, it is important to note that promising practices are only promising insofar as they are publicized. It is vital to get across to Ministries, to NGOs and CBOs, and to teachers, pupils and their communities that there are “signposts” which can help them find ways of addressing the pressing problems which confront so many countries faced with HIV/AIDS and other health and social challenges.

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