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HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AGENDA FOR AFRICA IN THE 1990s
(A Programme for the Implementation of the Regional Framework
for Human Resources Development and Utilization in Africa)

I. INTRODUCTION

1. The extent and magnitude of human deprivation in Africa in the first two years of the decade of the 1990s continues to be alarmingly high as it was in the decade of the 1980s. Economic and human conditions in Africa during the 1980s worsened to such an extent that the decade has come to be known as the lost decade for Africa. Available data on health and nutrition showed that over half the population in Africa had no access to modern health facilities, a third or more had no access to safe drinking water and proper sanitation facilities. ¹ Africa's under-five mortality rate at 179 was among the highest in the world.

2. A very high percentage of Africans continued to succumb to diseases which in other regions of the world have been overcome through improvements in environmental and living conditions and specific preventive methods. Most notably among such diseases are infectious and parasitic, including an alarming increase in the incidence of tropical diseases. HIV/AIDS, the most threatening disease in Africa, continued to spread throughout the region in the decade of the 1980s.

3. Illiteracy increased in absolute terms in the continent. The average illiteracy rate in Africa at 55 per cent by world standard is quite high. For the first time during the 1980s, the rate of increase in education at all levels declined, from 8.7 per cent per annum in the 1975-1980 period to 2.17 per cent in the 1980-1985 period, representing a decline of 69 percentage points between the two periods. ² The high rates of illiteracy and declining rates of growth in school enrolments even at the primary school level indicate that despite the efforts by most African countries to achieve universal literacy and basic education, progress in this regard remained slow. Africa's educational system continued to be weak with regard to the supply of technical and scientific manpower.

4. Food production per capita in absolute terms had been on the decline, while the daily calorie supply, as a percentage of requirements, was only 92 per cent of requirements. The comparative figures for the industrialized countries were 132. The incidence of malnutrition increased in the population and the most affected are the children. For example in 1990, out of 177 million malnourished children in the world, some 30 million were African children, constituting approximately 26 per cent of the children under the age of 5 years as malnourished. ³ Malnutrition tends to aggravate the occurrence of diseases such as diarrhoea, measles, whooping cough and pneumonia.

5. The employment situation in the 1980s was rather dismal. Wage employment in the formal sector accounted for less than 10 per cent of the total labour force, while the vast majority of the labour force depended for their livelihood on the agricultural and informal sectors which have been experiencing low levels of productivity. Underemployment - relatively low productivity - continued to increase in Africa throughout the 1980s and is estimated to affect about 90 million in the total labour force of about 240 million. ⁴ The open unemployment rate rose from 10 per cent in the 1970s to about 20 per cent in the late

¹ ECA, "Report to the sixth Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Ten of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization on the Status, policies and programmes of human resources planning, development and utilization in Africa", Addis Ababa, 1991 [E/ECA/PHSD/MFC/91/WP/[6.3(i)(b)]].

² Ibid.

³ UNICEF, The State of the World's Children 1991, New York, UNICEF, 1991.

⁴ ECA, "Report to the sixth Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Ten of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization", op.cit.

1980s and the real wages, on the other hand, declined by approximately a quarter, while the minimum wage, on the average, fell by a quarter between 1980 and 1985.⁵

6. Due to increased rate of unemployment and the fall in real wages, the incidence and spread of poverty increased on the continent throughout the 1980s. While the informal and agricultural sectors absorbed the vast majority of the labour force, their low levels of productivity meant that the incomes generated were not so high as to cushion the region from increased poverty.

7. The nature and extent of the human crisis in Africa has also been documented elsewhere and these studies have proposed a number of measures to improve the situation.⁶ If the deteriorating trends in the human condition continue unabated, by the turn of the century, Africa will be the only region in the world where the conditions of human beings would further deteriorate: the poverty will increase rather than decrease; the same holds for all other indicators of human development, i.e., maternal mortality, infant mortality, illiteracy, general health and nutrition conditions, unemployment and underemployment.

8. The 1992 UNDP Human Development Report shows that the human development index (based on the performance of countries on a set of indicators of human development, e.g., life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate, mean years of schooling, real GDP per capita and adjusted GDP) was extremely low in all except seven African countries.⁷ No African country featured in the high human development category. The 13 countries at the very bottom of the scale are also all from Africa. The fourth meeting of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Development, Planning and Utilization noted that the indicators of human development have continued to worsen, and urged African Governments to redouble their efforts to improve the human conditions in Africa.⁸

9. Such a dismal situation of human deprivation on the continent as mankind is about to enter the twenty-first century should, in itself, be a source of major concern to those responsible for the tasks of development and planning in Africa.

10. No amount of stop-gap and palliative measures and conventional approaches which fail to attack the root cause of poverty and deprivation or effectively develop and utilize human resources and capacities can bring about any meaningful improvement in this area. What is needed is a comprehensive and integrated strategy of development and structural transformation in which human development concerns must form the core. Such a strategy calls not only for major policy shifts and redirection of resources to human development at the national levels, but also similar actions by Africa's development partners in support of the drive to improve human conditions in the continent.

⁵ ILO/JASPA, African Employment Report 1990, Addis Ababa, ILO/JASPA, 1991.

⁶ See for example, ECA, International Conference on the Human Dimension of Africa's Economic Recovery and Development: The Khartoum Declaration, Addis Ababa, ECA, 1988; ECA, African Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programmes for Socio-economic Recovery and Transformation (AAF-SAP), E/ECA/CM.15/Rev.3, 1989; ECA, Handbook for Manpower Planners in Africa, [ECA/PHSD/HRP/89/26[6.1(iii)(a)], 1989; and ILO/JASPA, African Employment Reports, 1988, 1990 and 1992, Addis Ababa, ILO/JASPA.

⁷ UNDP, Human Development Report 1992, New York, UNDP.

⁸ ECA, "Africa's Human Resources Agenda for the 1990 and Beyond", Report of the fourth meeting of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization, Addis Ababa, ECA, 1991 [E/ECA/PHSD/MC/91/6[6.3(ii)(a)]].

11. The main thrust of this document is to put forward a framework for a human development agenda for Africa for the 1990s and beyond. The Agenda identifies priority programmes to improve the human conditions in Africa; proposes strategies for implementing these priority programmes; and outlines modalities for financing human development in Africa.

II. THE CENTRALITY OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

12. Human development, as defined in the 1990 Human Development Report, is "to enlarge the range of people's choices to make development more democratic and participatory".⁹ These choices include: access to knowledge, productive skills, income and gainful employment opportunities, security and self-sustenance in food, shelter and other basic needs, and effective participation at all levels of political and economic development decision-making. In essence, this involves continuous improvements in education, employment, agriculture, health, sanitation, housing, environment; political and civic awareness and responsibility; and empowering people so that developmental initiatives and activities become sustainable.

13. Human development, however, can be brought about only by human beings. It is the continuous development of the capacities and capabilities of human beings that can bring about human development. Therefore, individuals with such developmental capacities and capabilities constitute the "resources" that are required for sustained development. A society which lacks such human resources, as are critical to its political, economic and social development and transformation, is by definition an underdeveloped society. In order to mitigate the situation of underdevelopment, human beings must be endowed with the relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes that society can use towards political, social and economic transformations and development.

14. The imperative of the effective development and utilization of human resources and improving the conditions of human beings has now been widely recognized. As far back as 1980, the Lagos Plan of Action (LPA) stressed the importance of human resources in Africa's socio-economic development.¹⁰ Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) and the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development (UN-PAAERD), both developed in 1985, further reinforced the importance of human resources for Africa's economic recovery and social transformation.¹¹ The Khartoum Declaration and the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation demonstrated the importance of human beings as the main actors in as well as the beneficiaries of the development process.¹²

⁹ UNDP, Human Development Report 1992, op. cit., p. 2.

¹⁰ Organization of African Unity, Lagos Plan of Action, Geneva, International Institute of Labour Studies, 1982.

¹¹ Organization of African Unity, Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery, 1986-1990. Addis Ababa, OAU, 1986; and United Nations, United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development, 1986-1990, New York, United Nations, 1986.

¹² ECA, International Conference on the Human Dimension of Africa's Economic Recovery and Development: The Khartoum Declaration, op. cit., and ECA, African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation, op. cit.

15. The Khartoum Declaration and the African Charter represent two watershed documents on human development in Africa. They have not only been adopted by the ECA Conference of Ministers and the OAU Heads of State and Government, but have also been endorsed by the United Nations General Assembly.

16. The centrality of human development has further been reinforced through the powerful human development reports, which UNDP has been publishing annually since 1990, and the emphasis which the World Bank has been adding recently to the need for poverty alleviation in documents such as the Long-Term Perspective Study; the World Bank Development Report on Poverty (1990); and the Bank's guidelines on incorporation of poverty alleviation considerations in its lending activities. Such consensus has been best summed up by UNDP's Human Development Report 1991 as follows:

"There can be no human development without people being alive, healthy, knowledgeable and able to make a decent living". (p. 37).

17. In the same vein, the Khartoum Declaration asserts:

"This **DECLARATION**.... affirms and asserts that the human dimension is the *sine qua non* of economic recovery. We, the delegates here assembled, will not abide economic rationale, will not tolerate economic formulas, will not apply economic indices, will not legitimize economic policies which fail to assert the primacy of the human condition. That means, quite simply, that no structural adjustment programme or economic recovery programme should be formulated or can be implemented without having, at its heart, detailed social and human priorities. There can be no real structural adjustment or economic recovery in the absence of the human imperative. ¹³

18. The United Nations itself set up an Inter-Agency Task Force in 1989 whose major initiative was the preparation of a Regional Framework for Human Resources Development and Utilization in Africa. ¹⁴ The Framework provides a set of policy and programme guidelines for translating objectives of human resources development and utilization into action measures at the national, sub-regional, regional and international levels. Furthermore, it provides guidance on the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of human resources development and utilization programmes which are consistent with Africa's overall and long-term economic and social development aspirations, goals and strategies. It also seeks to support strategies through which the major components of human development such as education, health, nutrition, employment, etc., could be more strongly integrated into public development policies and programmes. Furthermore, it stresses the urgent need for a broad-based and comprehensive effort to strengthen the human development in each African country.

III. ELEMENTS OF A HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

19. In spite of this high degree of consensus, the goal of implementing human-centred development strategies in Africa still remains elusive. The proposed Agenda is, in a way, an attempt to operationalize the Regional Framework for Human Resources Development and Utilization in Africa. However, the Agenda goes beyond the Regional Framework to propose strategies for implementing the programmes deemed to be critical for improving the human conditions in Africa.

¹³ ECA, International Conference on the Human Dimension of Africa's Economic Recovery and Development: The Khartoum Declaration, op.cit., p.37.

¹⁴ United Nations, A Regional Framework for Human Resources Development and Utilization in Africa, Addis Ababa, ECA, 1990 (E/ECA/PHSD/TC/91/WP.2).

20. The immediate objectives of the Human Development Agenda are to:

- (a) Strengthen human capacities through education and training in skills and appropriate attitude formation relevant to and consistent with Africa's development needs and aspirations;
- (b) Create productive employment opportunities;
- (c) Reduce hunger, increase the delivery of and access to health services and improve access to safe drinking water, sanitation, and housing;
- (d) Ensure genuine participation of people and their organizations in the development process and promote good governance and strengthened civil society.

21. The long-term objectives of the Agenda are to:

- (a) Create self-sufficiency in food production;
- (b) Develop a dynamic regional social and economic system which is self-sustaining regionally and competitive globally;
- (c) Establish complementary agricultural production and trade for sustainable growth;
- (d) Improve and sustain the quality of life of the African population.

22. The major human resources and human development concerns and issues confronting Africa are: high levels of illiteracy; growing poverty and unemployment; limited access to education at all levels; irrelevance of education in relation to developmental needs and the changing global techno-scientific realities; a persistent job-seeker syndrome, and the declining quality of education at all levels; unacceptably high levels of infant mortality and morbidity; high incidence of malnutrition; resurgence of previously-controlled diseases and generally low health status of the population; unsanitary conditions; dilapidated and overstretched physical surroundings; and environmental degradation; lack of effective participation in development and governance.

23. Among these, the priority areas of action for improving the state of human resources development and human development are as follows:

A. Priority area 1: Education for development

24. Africa's education systems suffer from a number of weaknesses.¹⁵ Access to education, particularly at the secondary and higher education levels, continues to be limited. The structure of education is essentially primary-education based, accounting for over three-quarters of total enrolments; while secondary education 22 per cent and higher education a mere 2 per cent. Compared to other regions of the world, Africa's structure of education is the poorest - a factor which constrains the deepening and widening of the skills base so vital and critical for recovery and socio-economic transformation. As a result of the limited access to education and the rapid population growth, over half of Africa's population is illiterate. The levels of illiteracy are higher among women and the rural population than men and the urban population respectively.

¹⁵ For a detailed discussion, see ECA, "Report to the sixth Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Ten of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization on the Status, policies and programmes of human resources planning, development and utilization", op.cit.

25. There is the problem of irrelevance in Africa's educational systems vis-à-vis the region's developmental priorities. For example, too much emphasis is given to general education rather than scientific, technical, technological and vocational education. Course offerings continue to be heavily biased in favour of the liberal arts as opposed to science, engineering, agriculture, management, etc., which are the areas critical to socio-economic development in Africa. Consequently, the stock and rate of human capital formation in technical and scientific areas in Africa compared to other regions of the world is extremely low. Similarly, the number of scientists and engineers in the region engaged in R & D per million inhabitants is also very low in relation to meeting the requirements of the region's industry and the challenges of a technological breakthrough. The quality of education at all levels is low and is deteriorating. This is indicated by the declining educational expenditures, the lack of vital educational supplies, the exodus of qualified and experienced teaching staff to greener pastures, increasing student: teacher ratios, reduced transition rates and higher attrition and repetition rates.

26. The objectives of socio-economic transformation and long-term development in Africa present formidable challenges to Africa's education system. Prospects for socio-economic transformation and long-term development will only be enhanced to the extent that Africa's human resource base is widened, deepened, strengthened and sustained to enable it to spearhead and sustain transformation and development. Therefore, education for development, which countervails the existing weaknesses and imbalances in Africa's education structure - of limited access to education at all levels, programme bias in favour of the liberal arts and traditional fields rather than science, engineering, technician and vocational training, the problem of mass illiteracy, the declining quality of education - is an important goal and challenge which must mirror the expressed priorities of Africa's development aspirations.

27. Thus, education should be reoriented for development and should encompass basic education for all as a fundamental right of every African; expansion in secondary and tertiary levels of education; improving the quality and relevance of education at all levels; and strengthening the skills base in science and technology, entrepreneurship and development management and governance, and technical and vocational fields. The subsequent paragraphs in this section discuss how education for development can be operationalized and the required resources mobilized.

1. Basic education

28. Basic education for all is the bedrock of human resources development. In a more recent attempt to address the issue of basic education, 38 African countries were among the 155 countries at Jomtien (Thailand) that signed the World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action in March 1990. In July 1991, African Ministers of Education met in Dakar, Senegal, to make a long-term commitment to improving African education. The meeting was organized under the auspices of UNESCO, OAU and ECA with the objective of finding ways and means of providing basic education, appropriate and relevant secondary and tertiary education so as to equip the African people with the required skills to face the challenges of Africa's rapidly modernizing societies.

29. Basic education is a fundamental right of every African. This can be efficiently achieved through a three-pronged strategy:

- (a) Providing quality primary and basic education to all children;
- (b) Promoting educational programmes for out-of-school youth; and
- (c) Adult functional literacy and numeracy programmes.

(a) Providing quality primary education to all children: The goal of universal primary education (UPE) entails not only the expansion of enrolment but the enhancement of the quality of primary education

also. One of the reasons for the low quality of primary education in Africa is the low expenditure on educational materials per student per year of approximately \$US0.60 as opposed to the estimated minimum requirements of \$US6.50.¹⁶ Enhancing the quality of education would require raising the professional competence of teachers through improved teacher training; creating and maintaining a conducive teaching and learning environment; and ensuring the availability of appropriate teaching and learning materials. In addition, an interrelated objective is to increase the appropriateness of education, through instituting action measures to develop relevant curricula to meet the needs of African environment; and providing development education which will foster appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes to understand the process of change and how to cope with such change.

(b) Promoting educational programmes for out-of-school youth: As a corrective measure to stop their relapse into illiteracy and prevent their entry into productive and active life before being equipped with the required skills and knowledge, alternative delivery modes to formal education programmes for the out-of-school youth must be developed. In this context, non-formal education programmes need to be promoted.

30. The following programmes may be considered:

(a) Occupational training programmes designed to cover a variety of knowledge and skill areas and geared towards meeting the vocational skill requirements in the employment market;

(b) Skills upgrading programmes directed to provide additional training and skills to progress further in work, e.g., artisanal and vocational training programmes to help those who want to upgrade their skills from one grade level to another;

(c) Rural development skills training programmes designed to provide and improve a variety of skills training programmes for youths, adults, both men and women, boys and girls required in agricultural and non-farm economic activities and those likely to enhance the well-being of the rural population;

(d) Work orientation programmes generally designed to equip the youth with knowledge, skills and attitudes as they enter the world of work. There are many examples of such programmes in Africa, e.g., the Malawi Young Pioneer programme, the Village Polytechnics, the Botswana Brigades, etc.;

(e) Community-based learning/training programmes designed to cater for rural communities, the disadvantaged groups, school drop-outs or non-starters in that they include a literacy component. The emphasis of such programmes is to provide on-the-spot non-formal skills development to the community.

(c) Adult functional literacy and education: Some 50 per cent of the adult population in 1990 in Africa were illiterate. Adult illiterates are usually heads of household and economic decision makers. If they remain illiterate, they are likely to negatively affect social progress. Furthermore, illiteracy is more prevalent among the rural population and women in particular. As major producers of food, illiterate farmers are more likely to experience lower agricultural yields and as such negatively affect total food production for themselves and that of the community. As mothers, illiterate women are less likely to be knowledgeable about and responsive to basic child care practices, which can significantly reduce the infant mortality rate. Educated women are more likely to have lower number of children in comparison with their

¹⁶ The World Bank estimated in 1990 the minimum requirements of books and related materials per primary school pupil a year of \$US5.00. See the World Bank, Sub-Saharan Africa: from Crisis to Sustained Growth. A Long Term Perspective Study, op.cit.). At the inflation rate of 10 per cent per year, this would work out to be \$US6.50 at the 1993 prices.

illiterate counterparts. It is therefore important that special literacy and education campaigns and programmes be directed to this important category of the population in Africa.

31. One of the goals affirmed by the World Declaration on Education for All, to which 38 African countries were signatories, is the reduction of adult illiteracy rate to about one-half its 1990 level by the year 2000. Furthermore, sufficient emphasis must be placed on increasing female literacy to reduce the current disparity between female and male illiteracy rates.¹⁷ It should be feasible to achieve the goal by aggressively embarking on literacy campaigns in local languages. In this regard, the experiences of the United Republic of Tanzania and Ethiopia are models that could be emulated by other African countries. In addition, adult non-formal education programmes for those who are literate need to be encouraged in areas of development such as public health and sanitation, food and agriculture, crafts and technology, so as to increase their income and quality-of-life status.

32. Other skill training programmes which would promote development should also be encouraged. Examples of such skill training programmes are: articulation, justification and negotiation skills for obtaining credit for productive activities from agricultural and small enterprise development banks; planning and managing self-help projects, cooperatives, community schools and local administrative activities in collaboration with different government agencies and organs.

2. Secondary education

33. Secondary education plays a significant role in the creation of middle-level skills, in higher education, employment, the manufacture of goods and services and the promotion of trade and various services. Any change in the pattern of secondary education affects all other parts of the socio-economic system. The role and importance of secondary education and its relation to third level education was recognized by the first ECA/AAU Conference of Vice-Chancellors, Rectors and Presidents of Institutions of Higher Learning in Africa.¹⁸ Secondary education must be tailored to meet the demand for intermediate and technical manpower and prepare a wide range employable skills. This is possible, if the curricula in secondary education is reoriented towards technical, science-based, vocational and technical areas. This will require additional resources for the provision of appropriate teaching and learning materials for improving the quality of education as well as providing appropriate learning environment for science-based courses requiring a certain amount of such materials.

34. In view of the important role of secondary education in development, access should be increased. In this regard, enrolment could be increased by encouraging the establishment of government-aided, private and community-supported schools as well as increasing the intake in government schools.

3. Higher education

35. Africa's institutions of higher learning have an important role to play in the development of a critical mass of skills vital for Africa's development and transformation as well as enabling the region to become

¹⁷ The World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to meet Basic Learning Needs (Jomtien, Thailand, 5-9 March 1990), New York, World Conference on Education for All, April 1990, p.3.

¹⁸ ECA, "The Role of African Institutions of Higher Learning in the Implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action", January 1982 (E/ECA/PAMM/HRP/85/15). See chapter 22, pp. 326-336.

industrially and technologically competitive with the rest of the world.¹⁹ Access to higher education must be increased and education and training must be made more relevant if Africa's institutions of higher learning have to positively respond to the region's development priorities. Thus, Africa's institutions of higher learning must redefine their role in the socio-economic development of the region.

36. The challenge to institutions of higher learning is to establish a creative and relevant education structure capable of meeting the current and future developmental needs and priorities of Africa. In pursuance of this goal, one of the important tasks is to ensure that the educational systems are capable of producing the skills required for the transformation of the African economies through self-reliant development and the internalization of the development process. In this regard, Africa's institutions of learning need to produce scientists, technologists, managers, etc., of the right quantity and quality. In addition, Africa's education institutions must venture into new and non-traditional fields of learning, e.g., entrepreneurship, development management for production and productivity, the building up of capability to manufacture machinery, equipment, spare parts, tools and a wide range of areas of engineering and technology hitherto unexplored in Africa's institutions of higher learning. Furthermore, the education system must equip the students with useful, socially productive and creative skills by strengthening and reorienting the curricula towards technician, vocational and entrepreneurial training. Currently, there is a dearth of such skills which must be developed if Africa is to master science and technology and their application for the development of Africa. The following measures could be used in this regard:

- (a) Reform of university curricula in light of promoting those courses, teaching and consultancy that would assist African Governments to internalize the process of socio-economic transformation;
- (b) Reordering of research priorities through joint inter-university and cross-disciplinary research ventures;
- (c) Conduct of policy-oriented research in critical fields of development such as food and agriculture, science and technology, engineering, development management, etc.;
- (d) Regional cooperation in selected fields of teaching and research;
- (e) Establishment of a teaching and research equipment manufacturing centre; and
- (f) Mobilization of adequate and assured resources for improving the quality of higher education.

4. Operational strategy

37. In order for African countries to achieve the goal of basic education for all by the year 2000, various complementary approaches and alternative delivery systems for basic education will need to be developed. These include:

- (a) Exploring non-formal approaches for delivering basic education services to all, particularly the poor and marginalized, members of society;
- (b) Community-based interventions in adult literacy, for example, village-level TOSTAN functional literacy strategy developed by women in Senegal is an example of this approaches for delivering

¹⁹ For a detailed discussion on the role of Africa's institutions of higher learning in Africa's development, see ECA, "Higher education and the future of Africa in the twenty-first century" (E/ECA/PHSD/TC/91/WP.8) and ECA, "Measures for the development of critical skills for the formulation and implementation of development strategies and programmes" (E/ECA/PHSD/TC/91/WP.4).

basic education services at a low cost to women. Similarly, the Harambee schools in Kenya, the Basic Schools in Zambia, the Mosque schools in Mali and the Niger are some of the examples of the community-based interventions and approaches for meeting the basic learning needs of women. Such approaches at the national level need to be explored and utilized, depending on the particular national situation in this regard. The goal of basic education for all must include an expressed challenge of improving the quality and relevance of education. This will require special effort in revitalizing the teaching and learning environment; greater efficiency and effectiveness in the management and use of existing resources; a higher level of motivation from teachers, education administrators, politicians, parents and communities. Various cost-effective techniques will need to be explored and applied, depending on particular national situations and circumstances. For example, double-shifting in schools; increasing teacher: pupil ratios; developing and producing appropriate and relevant teaching and learning materials on a national, subregional or regional levels to cut down on import requirements; cost-effective teacher training programmes, for example the Zimbabwe ZINTEC model of integrated teacher training programme; reducing costs through increased use of self-study; voluntary teaching assistants and helpers from the community, including secondary and tertiary level students, etc., are some of the ways of making basic education cost-effective and thereby expanding its coverage to the wider community, while at the same time enhancing quality and relevance of education;

(c) The goal of basic education for all can be successfully operationalized only if stronger partnerships between governments, public and private sectors, donors, NGOs, community development organizations, voluntary development organizations, and the community by and large are nurtured and sustained. This means that adequate resources are needed to revitalize and restore the viability of basic education for all in Africa.

38. The World Bank study points out that governments would have to gradually increase recurrent expenditure on primary education from 1 to 2 per cent of GNP to 3 to 4 per cent of GNP to achieve the objective of universal primary education by the year 2020.²⁰ The recent UNICEF estimates put the additional costs of basic education to be about 70 per cent above those incurred in 1990 as a result of a move toward the universalization of primary education by the year 2000.²¹

5. Resource mobilization

39. The provision of quality basic education for all would require additional resources, at least nearly twice the amount currently being spent. Even if cost-saving measures are implemented and the support from NGOs, the private sector and the community is effectively mobilized, additional government spending will still have to be substantial. This will depend upon the political commitment to meeting the goal of basic education for all by the year 2000 (in accordance with the Jomtien Declaration on Education for All); achieving and sustaining a significantly higher rate of economic growth than that of population growth in the decade of the 1990s; and governments' preparedness to switch public spending from the least productive sectors, such as the military, to high priority areas such as basic education.

40. However, increased donor support in this area would be critical to achieving the goal of basic education for all in Africa by the year 2000. External resources have played an important role in Africa's educational development. For example, in the early 1980s, public international development assistance to education and training averaged about 15 per cent of African domestic public expenditure on education.²²

²⁰ World Bank, Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustainable Growth, *op.cit.*, p. 80.

²¹ UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future: Background Sectoral Papers, New York, UNICEF, 1993, p. 89.

²² UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future, *op. cit.*, p. 88.

Notwithstanding the important role of external support in Africa's educational development, the distribution of direct aid by level of education has tended to be skewed in favour of higher levels. For example, only about 7 per cent of direct aid to African education was used to finance primary education in comparison to 34 per cent to tertiary education.²³ Therefore, there is a critical need for policy reforms concerning allocation and use of direct aid and a commitment towards more aid for basic education for Africa.

41. The extent of the need for external aid to achieve basic education for all will depend upon what African Governments themselves do to increase the expenditure on education. UNICEF estimates show that a minimum of US\$4 billion would be expected from foreign donors for meeting the goal of basic education for all.²⁴ However, this could increase to US\$6 billion if the countries were unable to introduce cost-effective measures in education or if economic growth rates were lower than those anticipated for the decade, or if the political will to transfer resources from other areas, such as defence, to education did not materialize.

42. The achievement of the goal of basic education for all and the revitalization of this subsector will require the implementation of basic policy reforms in the education system; the political will and commitment; and the allocation of substantial resources supplied by a new partnership and compact between governments, NGOs, the private sector, and international donors. Without this new compact, the ambitious, though laudable, goal of basic education for all in Africa by the end of this decade will not be a reality.

43. In order for Africa's institutions of higher learning to be able to reorient their major functions to Africa's developmental needs, they must be reinvigorated with a fresh infusion of resources to rebuild their capacities to teach, conduct research and to be of service to their communities. Access to higher education could be increased by increasing the intake in the existing public institutions as well as encouraging the establishment of private institutions. Some African countries have already established private colleges and universities, others are seriously considering this possibility.

44. The institutions of higher learning in Africa must be adequately financed to develop a pool of indigenous scientific and technological manpower to meet Africa's developmental challenges. Therefore, governments must provide the institutions of higher learning with adequate and predictable resources to enable them to undertake their responsibilities in teaching, research and community service. While government funds and resources are critical for the universities to carry out their main activities, universities must also realize that they need to diversify their resource-base by exploring alternative sources of income generation. To this extent, the following could be considered:²⁵

- (a) Viable user fees and cost sharing;
- (b) Enhancing university-productive sector linkages;
- (c) Financial investments and commercial ventures;

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ These are discussed in detail in ECA, "Mobilization and management of financial resources in African universities", Report of the senior policy workshop organized by ECA-PHSD, Accra, Ghana, 2-6 December 1991; and "Report to the seventh Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Ten of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization in Africa: Focus on resource mobilization and utilization in higher education and generation of productive employment" (E/ECA/PHSD/MFC/92/WP.1).

- (e) Endowments;
- (f) Foreign contributions;
- (g) Deferred cost recovery through student loan programmes;
- (h) Effective management and utilization of resources.

B. Priority area 2: Improved health care

45. The overall health status of the African population continues to be low as evidenced by the high infant mortality rate, high maternal mortality rate, high morbidity and mortality resulting from endemic diseases and malnutrition. These problems are further compounded by the inadequacy of the health delivery systems in operation in African countries.

46. In compliance with the World Health Organization's "Strategy for Health for All by the Year 2000" (the Alma-Ata Declaration of 1978), the African Regional Committee, at its thirty-second session in September 1982, approved the Plan of Action to implement national and regional strategies (HFA/2000) for health, using the primary health care (PHC) as the strategy for achieving the goal. The Alma-Ata strategy focused attention on PHC - the concept of "essential health care made accessible at a cost that the country and the community can afford". The PHC strategy incorporates five basic principles: equity, participation, appropriate technology, prevention and an inter-sectoral approach to public health problems. PHC programmes include a broad spectrum of activities: mother and child health including nutrition and family spacing; provision of essential drugs; drinking water and sanitation; immunization; health promotion and elementary curative care.

1. Operational strategy

47. It is being widely recognized that the current emphasis on the hospital health system is biased towards urban centres; it is cost-ineffective and hence unsustainable. Thus, there is a growing consensus on the need for policy changes in the health system for improving the health of the entire population. At the meeting of the African Health Ministers held in Bamako, Mali in 1987, it was agreed to encourage social mobilization initiatives to promote community participation in policies on essential drugs and maternal and child health at the district level; ensure regular supply of drugs of good quality and at reasonable cost to support the implementation of PHC and define and implement a PHC self-funding mechanism at district level, especially by setting up a revolving fund for essential drugs. These formed the basis of what is known as the Bamako Initiative, which was endorsed by OAU in 1988 for revitalizing PHC.

48. The Bamako Initiative spells out the roles of government, local authorities, communities and the informal sector health system in the sustainable delivery of PHC. To revitalize PHC, community participation in health is an important strategy. This strategy will require decentralization of planning and management to the district and local levels; increasing allocation of government funding from shifting resources from the high cost hospital systems serving mainly the urban middle class to basic health care services for the rural population, and under-served urban areas; and actual increase in government allocations to the health sector; policies favouring the rational use, management and allocation of drugs and other basic medical supplies; and other measures intended to improve the productivity of health resources.

49. In addition, strengthening linkages with the traditional health system and incorporating their best practices will further enhance the availability of basic health care to the wider population.

50. The total annual cost for the delivery of PHC, estimated by UNICEF (at approximately US\$6.5 per capita per year), would be to the tune of US\$3.1 billion for the period 1993-2000.²⁶

51. The successful implementation of a health for all (through PHC) programme will be contingent upon a combination of ameliorative measures ranging from the increased government allocations both through reallocation of investment from the high cost hospital system as well as pledging additional funds from government budget; community participation not only in the form of user charges but also, and more importantly, in the planning and management of health services; increased external donor support; strengthening linkages with the traditional informal sector health services and professionals; improvement of knowledge and education for health; greater accountability and efficient and improved management and use of government and community and external resources; and improvement in the provision of and access to the social services (e.g., with education, food and nutrition, water and sanitation and the environment) which directly or indirectly contribute to the improved health condition of the population.

2. Mobilization of resources

52. Currently government spending for health in Africa accounts for an average of 5 to 6 per cent of total public expenditure. This, however, falls short of the required estimated expenditure per capita on basic health services. The strategies for mobilizing additional resources for achieving the basic health goal fall under the following main areas:

(a) Increase in public sector spending on health through increased allocation of resources. This could be possible: if the anticipated economic growth rate of 5 per cent per year in the 1990s materializes; on the capacity to increase tax and thus public revenue; and the proportionate and absolute increases in public sector spending on basic health services; and increases in public expenditure through reallocation of resources towards basic care and away from expensive, cost-ineffective and inequitable health systems directed at the urban elite and middle-class segments of the population;

(b) The private sector through "user charges" for the basic health services can contribute to bridging the financial gap so long as the poor and under-privileged sections of the population are protected;

(c) The NGOs and voluntary organizations in Africa have traditionally played an important role in providing health services to the poor and vulnerable sections of the population. These operations and services by NGOs in Africa should be formalized and strongly coordinated; and additional NGO initiatives should be encouraged in this area. However, there should be a mechanism to coordinate the activities of various NGOs in African countries in the health services sector to maximize their effective contribution to the provision of primary health care in the countries concerned;

(d) International support and aid, in the form of technical assistance, essential medical supplies and equipment, is critical to meeting needs for primary health care in Africa. Even if improved and cost-effective measures are implemented to reduce cost of primary health care per capita; policy changes emphasizing a shift of public expenditure towards basic health care are applied; and partnerships between governments, NGOs and the private sector are strengthened, considerable amounts of external resources through donor support will be required to bridge the financial gap in meeting needs for basic health care in Africa in the 1990s.

²⁶ UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future: Background Papers, op.cit., p.26.

C. Priority area 3: Food security and nutrition

53. Africa is the only region in the world where the nutrition situation has not improved significantly. The region continues to be characterized by food shortages, famine, and high rates of maternal and child malnutrition and deaths due to starvation. The incidence of protein energy malnutrition, iodine deficiency and nutritional anaemia is high and a significant proportion of the children and women are at risk. The main causes of these problems are inadequate dietary intake as a result of inadequate access to food; and disease due to inadequate access to health services and care. Per capita food production has declined in Africa and this has contributed to malnutrition and in turn to retardation in child growth and also disease and deaths.

54. Evidence suggests that no amount of curriculum development or reform will significantly improve the human development situation in Africa without taking into consideration the state of health and nutrition of the population. Thus health and nutritional concerns of the African population must be included in human resources development programmes.

55. Cognizant of the critical importance of food and nutrition as an important aspect of human resources development, the proposed OAU strategy on the International Decade on Food and Nutrition emphasizes:

- (a) The need to reorient policies relating to food self-sufficiency and food security;
- (b) Improve decentralized management and administration of food production and distribution;
and
- (c) Develop community-based programmes with strong participation of people and in particular women as they are the major food producers in Africa.

56. The LPA and AAF-SAP have clearly articulated a set of policies for strengthening food production and achieving food security in African countries. Therefore, appropriate agricultural policies, including land reform, access to factors of production, e.g., credit, production technology, extension services, etc., must be developed and implemented to increase food production and food security in African countries.

57. The major goals for nutrition to be achieved by the year 2000, as specified by the World Summit on Children Declaration and Plan of Action (September 1990), include:

- (a) Reduction in malnutrition among children by half of the 1990 levels;
- (b) Reduction of low birth rate to less than 10 per cent;
- (c) Reduction in iron deficiency, anaemia in women by one third of the 1990 levels;
- (d) Virtual elimination of iodine deficiency, and the vitamin A deficiency and its consequences.

1. Operational strategy

58. Malnutrition is a form of hunger, resulting from an insufficient or an unbalanced diet generally. It is poor people who have inadequate access to food. Therefore, any strategy aimed at achieving nutrition improvements must focus on food production and poverty alleviation through income-generating activities.

59. Any operational strategy for nutrition improvements must be guided by a national food and nutrition policy. One of the effective and pragmatic ways of improving nutrition is through the initiation of community-based programmes in this area. Village development committees or councils with support from rural extension staff will play a key role in enhancing food production and food security. Women should

be involved as key actors in this process as they are the major food producers. They should be given non-formal training in nutrition education. Similarly, nutrition education should be introduced in school curricula and should be an integral part of the overall primary education programme.

60. In addition to direct nutrition programmes, providing basic health care services is one of the important interventions for dealing with nutrition. Access to safe drinking water, sanitation and safe environment have an important impact on health and nutrition. The strengthening of such inter-sectoral linkages (food, health, nutrition, etc.) is an important strategy for human resources development. Unfortunately, most of these services in African countries are inadequate in both quantity and quality, thereby eroding systematically the state of human resources development.

61. The nutrition levels of the African population can be improved by focusing programmes directed towards the poor and the most deprived, who should be actively involved in setting priorities and actions for poverty alleviation. The communities must be empowered to deal with the problems of alleviating food shortages. This means that the people must be given access to resources to allow them to produce adequate food; and nutrition information. This will require structural changes; strengthening community participation and, in particular, the crucial role of women; regional and subregional cooperation and collaboration with regard to learning and sharing the successful experiences in this area.

62. Additional resources will be needed to achieve the nutrition related goals in Africa. The recent UNICEF estimates put a figure of about 0.8 million per year which will be needed to reduce the level of malnutrition among children by half the 1990 level as well as reducing iron and eliminating the iodine and vitamin A deficiencies among women and children.

2. Mobilization of resources

63. The UNICEF estimates show that the cost of financing nutrition related programmes is modest. A combination of sources of mobilizing the funds, through restructured budgets and increase in the total support from external sources, will be necessary. The WFP "food for work" programme should be targeted at the poor and most deprived segments of the population. However, external support will need to be intensified if nutrition improvement goals are to be achieved.

D. Priority area 4: Safe water and sanitation

64. The provision of safe drinking water and sanitation services is central to disease reduction, including the control of diarrhoea. Available data show that only 40 per cent of the population in sub-Saharan Africa in 1988-1990 had access to safe drinking water and even a smaller proportion (30 per cent) to sanitation services over the same period. To some extent, the progress has been masked by the rapid increase in population. Therefore, the goal in the 1990s should be to provide universal access to safe water and sanitation as has been proposed in the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade of the 1980s.

1. Operational strategy

65. As in the case of the other elements of human development, the involvement and participation of the local communities and women is critical to achieving sustained water and sanitation services in African countries. The successful experiences of a number of African countries, e.g., Uganda, Nigeria, the Sudan, Malawi and Ghana, in the community-managed water supply programme demonstrate that this is a pragmatic way of providing and sustaining universal access to safe water. However, an enabling environment must be created to facilitate community management. This would include: the availability of appropriate information to the community to make sound decisions; access to low-cost and appropriate technology to suit the community's needs and capacity to finance, manage and maintain the services; introducing appropriate

policy framework to allow community management; and the timely availability of effective external services, such as training, credit, etc., from governments, donors and the private sector.

66. Similarly, community participation and involvement of women in planning and management of low-cost sanitation facilities is an effective way to increase the coverage of sanitation services.

67. NGOs and external donor agencies in many African countries have been involved in initiating water and sanitation services. While their continued support is critical, the operational strategy should clearly involve the beneficiaries, i.e., the community, in the planning, management and maintenance of such services.

68. It is estimated that an average of US\$5.2 billion per year for water and US\$4.2 billion per year for sanitation would be needed to provide universal access to these basic services.²⁷

Mobilization of resources

69. The UNICEF estimates are based on the use of low-cost, appropriate and cost-effective technologies in water supply and sanitation programmes. Even though the communities will be expected to maintain these services, governments too will need to increase public expenditure in this sector. The UNICEF estimates suggest that such contributions would cover about half the resource requirements for providing universal coverage for water and sanitation services. The other half (around US\$2.3 billion per year) would need to be mobilized through external support.

E. Priority area 5: Generation of productive employment opportunities for all

70. In the wake of slower economic growth and the adoption, in some African countries, of structural adjustment programmes (SAPs), the ability to generate adequate employment opportunities for all those seeking work has been seriously curtailed. The employment problem has further been aggravated by the retrenchment of workers in the civil service and public sectors due to the implementation of SAPs in a number of African countries. Furthermore, unemployment and underemployment are a real problem of development on the continent. Particularly vulnerable to the incidence of unemployment are the young people, who have nearly three times as many chances of being unemployed as the adult population. Female youth are even more vulnerable experiencing, on the average, a relatively higher rate of unemployment than their male counterparts. Similarly, women have a higher chance of being unemployed than their male youth counterparts.

71. The gravity of the African employment problem in the 1980s led to the decision of African Heads of State and Government in adopting in Abuja, Nigeria in June 1991 a Declaration on the Employment Crisis in Africa. This was a milestone in the expression of African political will to tackle and resolve the employment crisis confronting African countries.

72. One of the root causes of the perennial employment problem in Africa is the poor economic performance of the economies, characterised by low and unsustainable levels of economic growth. Therefore, large scale employment creation is predicated on achieving and sustaining a certain level of economic growth. Appropriate policies in this regard need to be introduced at changing the economic structure for achieving self-sustained economic growth and development.

73. Under conditions of slower economic growth and SAPs, productive employment generation potentials of the formal sector are rather limited. Therefore, the vast majority of the labour force must depend on the

²⁷ UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future, op.cit., p.105.

agricultural and urban informal sectors for employment and income. This calls for the implementation of appropriate policy and supportive measures to promote employment generation and productivity enhancement in the agricultural and informal sectors.

Operational strategy

74. While concerted efforts need to be made to significantly create wage employment in the formal sector, employment in the agricultural and informal sectors for the growing numbers of the labour force appears to be the most realistic options. At present, both the agricultural and informal sectors suffer from low productivity and, thereby, low incomes. The potentials of these sectors, in particular the informal sector, to create and expand employment must be supported and strengthened. In this regard the following measures and strategies may be used for creating employment in the agricultural and informal sectors:²⁸

(a) Agricultural sector:

- (i) increasing access to credit, extension services, production technology;
- (ii) improvement in rural socio-economic infrastructure such as schools, health facilities, electrification, water and sanitation facilities, etc. An increase in rural socio-economic infrastructure itself will generate more employment opportunities;
- (iii) increase in the amount of investment devoted to the sector, both private and public;
- (iv) improved agricultural pricing policies.

(b) Informal sector

75. Informal sector is an important sector with a potential to contribute substantially to the economic development and transformation of Africa as well as to create and expand productive employment opportunities. In this context, pragmatic policies aimed at graduating the sector into more productive forms of economic activity must be designed and implemented. Therefore, an enabling environment should be created to help the informal sector graduate into small- and medium-scale businesses. The following interventions and supportive measures, among others, may be considered for strengthening the employment generation potentials of the informal sector:²⁹

(a) Government interventions through various policy instruments which will create an enabling environment;

(b) Development and provision of entrepreneurial training programmes for informal sector operators;

²⁸ A number of measures for the generation of productive employment opportunities have been discussed elsewhere, see ECA, "Strategies for manpower utilization and the unemployment crisis in Africa" {E/ECA/PHSD/TC/91/CRP.1 [6.2(iii)]}, ECA, "The African employment challenge of the 1990s" (E/ECA/PHSD/TC/91/CRP.2); and ECA, "Report to the seventh Ministerial Follow-up Committee of Ten of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Planning, Development and Utilization", op.cit.

²⁹ A recently held conference, jointly organized by ECA and AAPAM in Abuja, Nigeria from 3 to 6 December 1990, made a number of recommendations on promoting the informal sector in Africa; see ECA, Report of the twelfth AAPAM Roundtable Conference on "Mobilizing the informal sector and non-governmental organizations for African economic recovery and development".

(c) Devising programmes aimed at raising the levels of technology and technological adaptations and thereby enhance the productivity levels of the sector;

(d) Legal and institutional policy reforms which will eliminate discriminatory practices against this sector;

(e) Empowering the informal sector and small-scale entrepreneurs by increasing their access to basic and crucial factors of production, e.g., credit, inputs, consultancy, management, marketing, technical and advisory services;

(f) Expand the range of sources of credit for the informal sector through the establishment of alternative, people-oriented financial institutional mechanisms;

(g) Special measures to integrate the informal sector in the national development plans;

(h) Facilitate the transfer of technology by establishing sub-contracting procedures to enhance cross transfers and create special measures for the informal sector's operations with special links to the formal sector;

(i) Creating an institutional framework through which the problems and needs of the informal sector could be articulated to the government;

(j) Special education and training programmes for women and youth to improve their skills; access to the needed business capital, a critical constraint for informal sector operations.

76. The labour market policies towards the informal sector could be directed at entrepreneurial and skills upgrading so as to improve the management capabilities of the informal sector operators and, thereby, improve their productivity and incomes.

77. As women constitute the dominant group in the informal sector, their productiveness and income could be improved by interventions which improve family welfare. The provision of health services, safe drinking water, day-care centres, etc., either free or at subsidized prices, could contribute considerably to family welfare and complement measures aimed at improving women's productivity and incomes.

F. Priority area 6: Promoting popular participation, good governance and civic society

78. Reducing hunger, strengthening human capacities, creating productive employment and all the other components of human development outlined in this document are intrinsically linked to popular participation, good governance and a strengthened and more assertive civil society. The multisectoral focus on people that drives the human development agenda demands that people and their organizations take the initiatives to involve themselves in and assume the responsibility for development. It is imminently clear that development embodies not only material wellbeing but human processes and that without the active participation of people and involvement of communities, human development can be neither achieved nor sustained. The African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation affirms this by calling for an era in "which democracy, accountability and economic justice and development for transformation become internalized and the empowerment of the people ... (is) ... the order of the day in every country". It is apparent that for human development to occur, popular participation and the genuine involvement of communities should be placed on comparable footing with the other initiatives and at the very heart of economic development activities.

79. Similarly, the prospect for achieving human development in Africa hinges, to an overwhelming degree, on the ability to institute good governance and establish participatory, pluralist and unfettered social and economic order. Experience shows that open societies that value accountable governance and strong civil society provide better opportunities for sustained human development. Strengthened civil society allows people to mobilize and utilize their resources and social energy to the improvement of their conditions and security of their future. The current democratic transition in many African countries and the consequent openings of windows of opportunities can become a source of vitality and innovations for creating and instituting strong civil societies that promote human development. An integral thrust of the human development strategy, therefore, must focus on the promotion of national capacities to develop and sustain institutions and processes which would nurture cultures of popular participation, good governance and strengthened civil society. When all is said and done, human development depends on the empowerment of people to take their fate into their own hands and the credibility and effectiveness of the institutions they create to preserve and sustain their achievements.

1. Operational strategy

80. In order for Africa to realize human development goals, the prevailing models of development have to change and innovative programmes, policies and procedures that facilitate and encourage the active participation of those affected in the decision making should be established. There is a clear need to move beyond the prevailing model to a new model based on a set of assumptions that recognize the centrality of popular participation and the role of people as the instrument as well as the beneficiary of development. Earlier assumptions, conventional approaches and entrenched procedures need to be re-examined and structures and institutions must be radically revised.

81. A wide variety of programme mechanisms contribute to fostering participation and community involvement. People's organizations and non-governmental agencies should be recognized as crucial partners in the design and implementation of the human development agenda. Not only do NGOs and people's organizations promote sustainable people-centred development, but they also facilitate the transition towards greater institutional pluralism and more broadly based participation in the mobilization and management of development resources. The human development strategy proposed in this document requires knowledge of the local economic and social terrain, flexibility, responsiveness and greater commitment, qualities which most people's organizations and NGOs have comparative advantages. Governments and international aid agencies should develop mechanisms to allow NGOs and people's organizations to play their partnership role responsibly in the conception, design and implementation of human development programmes and involve them at all levels of policy making.

82. The chances of achieving human development goals will depend largely on launching new strategies which emphasize decentralized structures and devolving responsibilities and authorities to local levels. So many of the problems and solutions of human development have their roots in local activities and it is only at the level of governance that is closest to the people and the communities that these problems can be solved. A flexible, decentralized mode of operation and close and continuing contact and responsiveness to unanticipated developments are key requirements to achieve successful human development.

83. Another strategy that strengthens the participation thrust is social mobilization and the conviction that everyone can play an active role in promoting and enhancing human development. Teachers, religious leaders, government officials, community elders and others must be encouraged to act and contribute something to the goals of human development. Naturally, the more people can learn about activities that benefit them, the greater will be their self-reliance about taking the initiatives and sustaining these activities themselves. The process of development heretofore had been largely considered highly technical and the private preserve of professionals. This monolithic concept of development have largely isolated people from the process and has made them passive recipients of benefits. There is a need to demystify the development

process and affirm the view that only when people involve themselves in the process and build critical awareness of problems and possibilities can genuine human development occur.

84. Popular participation and the involvement of communities in human development initiatives is not something achievable just by emotional exhortations or intellectual argument about its usefulness. In the final analysis, participatory development depends on structural administrative arrangements and political institutions. These arrangements must mandate linkage between the people and the state and its decision-making apparatus. They must include mechanisms by which people hold their bureaucracies accountable and responsive. They must create supportive and enabling environment for the flourishing of intermediary institutions that reflects and articulates the views and preference of people.

85. The growth of strong and viable organizations that operate between the state and its citizens is integral to the creation of pluralistic and democratic society for ensuring participation and involvement of communities. Sustained human development requires the identification of the elements of civil society and support for their initiatives to participate in development and the political and economic processes of their respective countries. Programmes and activities aimed at strengthening a wide range of civic associations in an effort to enable them to define a constructive role and participate actively in the development and implementation of human development initiatives must be launched. The purpose of these activities will be to build the institutional capacity of civic associations and create a pluralist political landscape and foster a genuine participatory processes.

2. Resource mobilization

86. The changing perspective on human development poses important issues for the mobilization and utilization of resources. The amount of assistance funds provided to people's organizations and NGOs should be systematically and substantially increased. Probably the highest payoff of development assistance, in terms of meaningful human development comes from those funds that are channelled to people's organizations and non-governmental agencies. NGOs and people's organizations can utilize funds more efficiently because they have good knowledge of local realities, the communities know and trust them and can quickly and without bureaucratic red tape utilize the resources. Hence, it is essential that the international community continue to increase its funding to NGOs and people's organizations development activities.

87. Meeting human development challenges will require deliberate policy shifts on the part of African Governments to redirect resources to human development and away from military spending and wasteful and unproductive conflicts. Military spending have distorted the priorities of Africa's poorest countries, limiting the state's ability to be responsive to the needs of people and making negative contributions to human well-being and suffering on massive scale. Hence, governments need to implement economic reform and development policies and to create an economic and socio-political environment conducive to channelling resources to human development. So far, economic policies have neither focused nor supported this direction in the desired manner, and these policies must be changed in the years to come if human development is to be achieved in the region.

88. It should also be stressed that improving the conditions of human development in Africa is primarily the responsibility of the African people, communities and civic groups. It is only the African people who have a direct stake in the success of these initiatives. Thus, resources from local community and groups must be effectively mobilized and increased responsibilities for financing human development must be transferred to these communities and civic groups so that the success of the process of change might be guaranteed.

89. But increasing and redirecting resources at the national level to the needs of human development will not be enough. Commitment to human development in Africa must be a shared responsibility of Africa and

the international community alike. Substantial investment in the social sector and accelerated growth at sustained levels, which are essential for the revival of human development in Africa, will require that substantial additional external funding must be allocated and redirected by Africa's partners in development for the cause of human development. The international community would also need to support macroeconomic policies that favour that orientation. There is a crucial need to establish mechanisms to address the shortfalls of resources in African countries in an adequate, equitable and predictable manner. A comprehensive strategy which is aimed at alleviating the crippling foreign debt, fair and equitable terms of trade and increased aid flows needs to be developed and implemented if the human development needs of Africa is to be met.

IV. MOBILIZING RESOURCES FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA IN THE 1990s AND BEYOND

90. One of the preconditions for improving the status of human development in Africa is the availability of adequate resources. The World Bank estimates call for a doubling of spending from the current 4 to 5 per cent to 8 to 10 per cent of GDP to the year 2000 and beyond to achieve universal primary education; basic health; food security and nutrition. This estimate does not include the resources needed for improvements in the other areas of human development such as water and sanitation, housing and improved environment, employment creation, etc. Based on the 1990 GDP figure of US\$307 billion for all Africa,³⁰ this gives a figure of between US\$25-30 billion per year to be allocated for human development, as per the World Bank estimates. The recent estimates by UNICEF on the total costs of meeting the goals for children in Africa put a figure of US\$12.7 billion in 1991 prices,³¹ in addition to present levels of spending. The estimates are based on key sectoral programmes of basic health care, basic education, nutrition-focused programmes, water supply and sanitation; targeted sectoral actions, e.g., focused poverty alleviation programmes and environmental preservation; and special post-war and post-disaster support. Based on the UNICEF methodology used in estimating costs of meeting the goals of children but extending the coverage to the African population as a whole as well as including the area of productive employment generation programmes and facilitating access of people to factors of production, it would be realistic to consider a figure of between US\$20-25 billion a year that would be needed for human development in Africa, in addition to present levels of spending. This figure is close to the one arrived at by using the World Bank recommended ratio of 8 to 10 per cent of the GDP (approximately between US\$25-30 billion).

91. The magnitude of resources required for human development, as indicated by the above estimates, is colossal. Therefore, concerted and innovative measures must be implemented to mobilize the needed resources domestically as well as through external support. Currently, there are serious imbalances in government spending to human development in developing countries. The analysis on government spending priorities, revealed in the Human Development Report 1991, highlights that developing countries spend more than 25 per cent of their GNP through the budget, yet devote less than one-tenth of this on human development priorities. It further reveals similar imbalances in international aid in the priority areas of human development: less than 7 per cent is spent on human development priorities. It concludes that the world has an enormous opportunity to increase investment in human beings, even with existing resources if such imbalances against human development were removed and resource allocation - domestic and international aid - boosted in this area.

³⁰ UNDP/World Bank, African Development Indicators, New York, UNDP, 1992), p. 20.

³¹ UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future. Human Investment Priorities for the 1990s, New York, UNICEF, 1993, p.53.

92. This section explores ways of mobilizing potential additional resources - domestic as well as international - for meeting the challenge of human development in African countries. Additional domestic resources for human development may be mobilized through the following:

(a) Domestic resource mobilization

(i) Reallocation of public expenditure

93. Public expenditure in many African countries is high on defense spending, debt-servicing and loss-making public enterprises. This could be substantially reduced if military spending is cut back, official debt is cancelled or significantly reduced and inefficient and loss-making public enterprises are privatized. The other areas, in which public spending could be redirected for more productive uses, are internal debts, internal policing and political party structures. The resources released through reductions in the public spending on such unproductive areas could be redirected into increased spending on improving the conditions of human development in Africa.

(ii) Arresting financial leakages

94. The outflow of capital by nationals and corporations represents a serious loss of resources from many African countries. In addition, corruption, mismanagement of public funds for private use and the wastage of public resources on prestige projects of little social consequence are a form of financial leakages. The resources for improving the human conditions could be increased, if the savings through the financial leakages could be reallocated for human development.

(iii) Greater efficiency in the use and management of existing resources

95. Additional resources for human development can become available, if existing resources are used and managed more efficiently. This means exploring and utilizing a variety of cost-effective strategies, e.g., low-cost, appropriate technologies, efficient management practices and the like. Decentralizing social services can reduce costs through potential savings from administrative bureaucratic management practices.

(iv) Increasing the share of the private sector

96. Another way of increasing resources for human development and basic social services is through the introduction of user charges for the services. However, the implementation of this strategy must have a built-in provision for ensuring protection of the poor and vulnerable sections of the population against such charges.

97. Additional funds for human development can be mobilized through NGOs and Africa's partners in development.

(b) Non-governmental organizations

98. Indigenous and international NGOs are becoming an important and reliable source of providing resources for human development. However, their potentials as a viable source of providing funds for human development need to be tapped more vigorously in the future.

(c) The role of Africa's development partners

99. In view of the enormity of resources required for meeting the human development goals in Africa and the current imbalances in ODA in human development activities, Africa's partners-in-development have a critical role in complementing and supporting the efforts of African countries towards improving the

conditions of the African people. Massive external support, through bilateral and multilateral agencies; NGOs; the private sector and all other agencies and institutions concerned with uplifting the alarmingly low levels of human development, must become available to African countries in the near future.

100. Additional external resources for human development in Africa can be made available through increasing the current levels of support as well as by redirecting and focusing assistance on those areas which will improve the human condition and thus enhance the overall standard of living of the African population. The Human Development 1992 Report presented an assessment of external aid in support of priority activities globally in health, education, water and sanitation, nutrition, etc. Applying these priority aid ratios to external aid to Africa, it would appear that some US\$2 billion official development assistance went to human development areas in Africa in 1990.³² This figure is far below compared to the annual resource needs for human development of approximately \$20-30 billion per year. It is, therefore, important to establish new modalities for international cooperation, if a human development strategy for Africa is to be put into operation. Additional resources from Africa's partners-in-development could become available to Africa through the following:

(a) Peace dividend

101. With the end of the cold-war era and the reduction of tensions between the superpowers, additional resources through cuts in military spending by industrial countries could be released for financing human development activities. Global military spending is already falling and this trend is more pronounced in the industrialized countries which reduced their total military spending from a peak of \$838 billion in 1987 to US\$762 billion in 1990.³³ This means that a large immediate peace dividend of US\$158 billion saved between 1987 and 1990 by industrialized countries opens up an opportunity for both developed and developing countries for using these resources for more productive and constructive purposes.

102. To increase ODA to Africa, international partners in development should consider directing part of their peace dividend to international development. For example, the World Bank has argued that ODA could double, if only 10 per cent of military expenditure were reallocated to international development.³⁴ Even if 1 per cent of the resources released through reduced military spending by industrialized countries were to be channelled towards human development in Africa, this could provide additional ODA of some US\$2 billion per year for this very important development area.

(b) Debt swaps for human development

103. Another possibility of mobilizing resources for human development in Africa could be through foreign debt swaps for development. A substantial part of Africa's external debt of \$280 billion may be swapped to support activities and programmes in the priority areas of human development. Some of the modalities of external debt-for-human development-swap could involve:

(a) Negotiating a proportion of foreign (usually public) debt that could be swapped to finance human development activities. However, the value of swap will be determined by the rate, usually on a secondary market where each dollar of debt is sold at a fraction of its face value, e.g., 50 cents or less. This means that the actual size and value of swap would be a proportion of its face value;

³² UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future, *op.cit.*, pp.61-62.

³³ UNDP, Human Development Report 1992, *op.cit.*, p. 85.

³⁴ World Bank, Sub-Saharan Africa: From Crisis to Sustained Growth, *op.cit.*

(b) Prospective buyers of foreign public debt will need to be identified. These will be public creditors as well as non-creditor external agencies supportive of human development endeavours. They will need to be identified carefully and approached for offers and negotiations;

(c) The uses to which the debt swap funds could be put should be guided by the individual country's human development goals and priorities. Part of such debt swaps or support could be channelled into independent national human development funds and the regional development fund proposed by ECA in this report.

(c) Reform of ODA

104. Available evidence reveals that there are severe imbalances in international aid allocated to human development. For example, less than 7 per cent of total aid is spent on human development priorities.³⁵ Furthermore, there are critical weaknesses in the operation and distribution of ODA. For example, allocation of aid is arbitrary and not always guided by the developmental objectives. There is inequity in the distribution of aid, for example 40 per cent of the richest developing world population receives twice as much aid per capita as the poorest 40 per cent.³⁶ Most of the countries in the African region fall in the latter category. The basic human concerns, e.g., education, health, nutrition, employment, etc., which should have the highest priority get the smallest share of ODA.

105. There is, therefore, an urgent need to reform the current ODA allocation system in favour of the poor nations, such as those in the African region; shifts in inter-sectoral aid allocation in favour of human development programmes, and in particular those focusing on poverty alleviation, empowering of the people through improving their access to factors of production and improving the human capital formation.

106. The Human Development Report 1992 recommends that 20 per cent of ODA should be allocated for human development expenditure compared with the present 7 per cent. If the target of 20 per cent of ODA to human development is to be met, ODA to Africa must increase to a minimum of US\$30 billion, from the current level of US\$23 billion.³⁷ Additional resources should come from traditional multilateral and bilateral agencies as well as a wide range of Africa's partners-in-development, which would include non-traditional donors. Private resource mobilization for Africa's human development activities is also required.

(d) Converting military assistance to development assistance

107. Much of the military spending by the superpowers was due to proxy cold war conflicts fought on the soil of developing countries. Significant amount of resources went into keeping military bases, expenditure on sophisticated military equipment, and the like. With the end of the cold-war era and the ushering of relative international peace, the big powers should now agree to significantly reduce expenditure on military assistance, military bases, etc. There should be an agreement and commitment on the part of bilateral donors to convert part of existing military assistance into development assistance to developing countries. Under the agreement, if it materializes, African countries could also negotiate for additional ODA for financing human development activities.

³⁵ UNDP, Human Development Report 1991, *op. cit.*

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ UNICEF, Africa's Children, Africa's Future, *op. cit.*, p.63.

D. A regional human development fund

108. A major initiative needs to be launched at the regional level to mobilize resources on a large scale in support of human development in Africa and, in particular, to help in implementing the priority areas of this agenda. The creation of a regional human development fund to address these priority areas at the national and regional levels should, thus, be a timely initiative.

109. Resources of the fund can be generated, both from within and outside Africa, utilizing opportunities for raising resources as outlined in the preceding sections.

110. ECA could act as a catalyst in cooperation with African countries, Africa's regional organizations and institutions, the private sector, African and non-African NGOs, the United Nations system and the international community to establish such a fund and ensure that it is effectively and autonomously managed.

111. The proposed fund should be open to all actors, government departments, cooperatives, NGOs, community-based associations and the private sector. It could operate through specific "windows" to provide credit to groups who do not qualify under normal banking regulations and practices and also a window to fund non-profit making capacity-building and strengthening activities. The proposed African fund for youth and African bank for women could be considered as specific "windows" of the regional human development fund.

V. CONCLUSION

112. The growing consensus that human development must be at the heart of the process of development and transformation must be put to practice. African Governments must commit themselves to embarking on and accomplishing the task of improving the human conditions in Africa on a sustained basis as a matter of extreme urgency. Highest priority must be accorded to investing in people to develop their human capacities, improve their health and nutrition status, empower people through increasing their access to factors of production as well as enhancing their participation in the development and transformation of Africa's socio-economic and political spheres.

113. Domestic policies need to be re-oriented and resources need to be re-directed and increased substantially in support of human development to achieve these objectives. These efforts at the national level will not succeed without the support of Africa's partners in development, who have the responsibility of creating an external environment supportive of this development orientation and re-directing and increasing the flow of external resources to human development areas.

114. This document outlines the elements and modalities of the implementation of such an approach, which should be staunchly embraced in the years to come.