

PROFILE OF ADULT EDUCATION IN WEST AND SOUTHERN AFRICA

By

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Abstract

This paper investigated the manner in which five determinants of success in adult education interplayed to profile adult education in west and southern African countries. Three west and three southern African countries were sampled to represent the two Anglophone regions studied and the five adult education criteria were made up of national political will, empowering capacity of learning programmes, qualifications of adult education personnel, learners representativeness and volume and quality of adult education research. Internet, library and document searches were the main instruments used in this study and the measurement of adequacy was the mode of analysis employed to determine the ranking of the countries. The findings revealed that South Africa (75%) and Namibia (68%) were the two countries in Africa in which the profile of adult education were highest. The performance of these two countries was followed by those of Nigeria (62%) and Ghana (62%) while Botswana (56%) and Sierra Leone (48%) trailed at the rear. Based on the findings at the level of individual criteria, it was recommended that west African countries should increase the deployment of political will into the arena of adult education and that all countries in Africa should increase the qualification levels of their adult education personnel.

Introduction

Throughout human history, adult education has been used not only as a tool for equipping those who have passed school age with basic and survival skills, it has equally been eulogised as the most cost effective form of education (Biao, 2013; Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner, 2006; Torres, 2003; Peters, Jarvis and Associates, 1991; Knowles, 1984). It has been used as a “quick fix” type of education in crises situation such as during periods of wars and other forms of emergencies and it has been used as a means for spreading social justice in societies wherein a near totality of youths having obtained placement within the formal school system, the adult population is catered for through adult education programmes.

Adult education is not alien to Africa as Traditional African Education is nothing but adult education both in orientation and practice (Omolewa, 2007; Ki-Zerbo, 1995). However, the twin experience of slavery and colonialism has come to reshape the nature of the types of adult education that have been practised in Africa. Hence two kinds of adult education, namely, traditional adult education and modern adult education are now two adult education systems currently in use on the African continent.

All countries of Africa, having had their political and socio-economic frames and structures altered by both slavery and colonialism, had to relearn their bearings in a profoundly changed world beyond 1884, after the balkanization and partition of Africa into nation-states. Even the colonial masters recognised the fact that during and after the colonial period, Africa had to enter into a new era of learning if it must create a meaning for itself within a new post-colonial world. Hence the introduction of extra-mural activities and the promotion of community out-reach programmes in premier tertiary institutions all over Africa (Amedzro, 2004).

Consequently, beyond the colonial era, some African countries employed modern adult education to regenerate their various nations and to fast track development in them. Such was the case in Tanzania, Benin, Ghana, Nigeria, South Africa, Angola and Mozambique to cite but a few. While each nation emphasised slightly different adult education programmes in its selection of an instrument for development, all of these nations raised the profile of modern adult education as an instrument for development while the adult educational emphasis lasted. Between the 1960s, the period of political independence of most African nations and now, the concept and field of adult education have grown more complex and diversified.

The aim of this article is to assess the current profile of modern adult education in the two most affluent and influential regions of Sub-Saharan Africa as the world enters the second decade of the 21st century.

West and Southern Africa

Geographically, Sub-Saharan Africa is usually discussed in terms of four regions, namely, west, east, central (middle) and southern regions. In a strictly geographical sense, West Africa is made up of 17 countries, southern Africa of 5 countries, east Africa of 20 countries and central Africa of 12 countries (United Nations, 2014). For the purpose of the current discussion, Francophone and Lisophone countries of Africa are excluded because beyond some practical work in adult education, adult and non-formal education is yet to become a large field of practice and study in these linguistic sub-regions of Africa (Nikiema, Hagnonnou, Hildebrand and Conseil editorial APAL francophone, 2014; Biao, 1995).

Consequently, Anglophone countries' performance was relied upon to justify the influence of west and southern Africa within the context of Sub-Saharan Africa. Since demographic trends tend to predict economic growth (Mubila, 2012; Bloom and Canning 2011), the indicators of affluence and influence of west and southern Africa are here explained in terms of their recent and future demographic trends.

Whereas the population of the east-central Africa bloc is slightly superior to that of the west-southern Africa bloc (United Nations, 2013), Current fertility rates in the two blocs stand at 2.5% with the southern African region hovering around the 2% fertility rate (Mubila, 2012).

However, beyond these equalising demographic coordinates, the west-southern Africa bloc enjoys a number of superior demographic indices over the east-central Africa bloc. For example, whereas under 5 mortality rate, life expectancy and working age population are projected to be 130 deaths per 1000 children, 57years and 51% of the population in the east-central Africa bloc by 2022, the same projections state 80 deaths per 1000 children, 62 years and 56% of the population in the west-southern Africa bloc respectively (Mubila, 2012). Additionally, the rate of urbanisation within the west-southern bloc of Africa has been found to be higher than the rate of urbanisation within the east-central Africa bloc (The Economist, 2014).

Within the field of education, investment in education (basic, secondary and tertiary) has been reported to be higher within the west-southern bloc than the east-central bloc (UNICEF, 2010). Research financing and research output have also all been found to be both more robust and higher in the west-southern bloc of Africa than in the east-central Africa (Adams, King and Hook, 2010).

Adult Education

The field of study known today as adult education did not exist before the 20th century. It was at the end of the first two decades of the 20th century that it appeared among university disciplines with all the timidity and awkwardness known to all new disciplines. In the words of Jarvis (1991), the first department of Adult Education was established in the United Kingdom in 1920. He says:

When the original black book (Jensen, Liveright, and Hallenbeck, 1964) was published, adult education was just beginning to establish itself as a field of university study. The very publication of that book was a sign of the growing confidence emerging in the field. Indeed, Liveright claimed that the book had to be written not because the world needed it but because the professors of adult education needed to write it. Their view reflected confidence but also the frustration engendered by the lack of recognition given to adult education. However, the lack of recognition is hardly surprising since in 1964 only sixteen graduate programs of adult education existed in North American universities (Houle, 1964). Growth in the number of programs prior to that time was slow both in North America and in the United Kingdom, where the first department of adult education had been established in 1920 (Jarvis, 1991p.1).

The revolutionary and difficult type of learning necessitated by the advent of the Industrial Revolution made a few Social Sciences lecturers to venture out of the walls of the universities in the United Kingdom in the 19th century with a view to helping peasant farmers and ordinary workers understand and cope with the effects of this era on the life and living styles (Coleman, 1992). While these lecturers equipped themselves with pieces of knowledge in the general field of pedagogy and in the specific area of educational psychology, they nevertheless met

disappointment on the field as they failed to retain the interest of adult learners long enough for them to profit by what they had to teach.

It was a bewildered corps of Social Sciences lecturers that withdrew to the university campuses, after a few years, to interrogate themselves about the behaviour of these learners who would not respond positively to the theories of pedagogical practice and educational psychology (the only available pieces of knowledge in the area of teaching at the time). In order to put order in their enquiry and to systematise their thought processes they then set up a unit to investigate their observations and provide rational answers to their questions. Thus was born the first Department of Adult Education in the world in 1920.

From this international beginning of Adult Education, the discipline has registered its many other beginnings across the world. In west and southern Africa, the first departments of Adult Education were established in 1949 and 1960 respectively. On the one hand, the Departments of Extra-Mural Studies of the University College, Ibadan in Nigeria and the University College, Ghana in Ghana both established in 1949 were the first University Departments of Adult Education in west Africa (Omole and Sarumi, 2002; Asiedu, Adoo-Adeku and Amedzro, 2004). On the other hand, the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies established in 1960 within the precincts of the Pius XII University College at Roma in Lesotho (National University of Lesotho, 2008). This Institute served Lesotho, Botswana and Swaziland up to the end of the 1970s when each country established its own university and therefore became independent of one another in the provision of higher education.

Similar to the situation in the United Kingdom, the establishment of these pioneer departments of adult education was preceded by some important adult educational activities such as community development, national mass literacy campaigns and the promotion of liberal education. During the colonial era, the colonisers took advantage of the already well developed practice and network of community development activities in the African colonies to promote the development of African communities through the provision of basic modern amenities such as feeder roads sanitation facilities and public places and squares (Smyth, 2004). Also national mass literacy campaigns were promoted with a view to increasing the participation of indigenes in the process of community and national development (Omolewa, 1985). Liberal education which is education that is designed to expand the human being's mental horizon and to equip him with civil attributes was equally widely promoted during the colonial era (Amedzro, 2004).

However, since becoming a university discipline, the practice of adult education has become complex, more encompassing and pervasive. Not only have the practice and curriculum contents of adult education become more varied, the personnel of adult education has equally become more stratified. Not only have adult learners become more numerous, the typologies of these learners have equally grown most diverse. Indeed, apart from being considered a worthy

educational activity, adult education is currently viewed as an unavoidable lifelong venture and an instrument for personal and national development. Within the context of Africa, adult education can play the vital role of reconstructing a continental psyche battered by centuries of slavery and colonialism and provide opportunities for both personal and national growth. This perspective is of great importance because, the formal school system, with its prohibitive running cost, slow return on investment (UNESCO, 2011) and minimalist approach to learning is not able to attend to the immense learning needs of an Africa that is not only in a hurry to develop but that is thirsty for a multifaceted knowledge spectrum to drive its development.

Therefore, the recognition and acknowledgement by African countries of the fact that adult education exists and that it is able to fast track personal and national development is an important step towards the enactment of productive national development plans. Societies that would display this understanding are the ones in which both the theory and practice of adult education are not only visible but in which adult education constitutes an important sub-sector of the national education system with implications for the supply of the needs of the multiple safeguards upon which the visibility, growth and efficiency of adult education rest.

Consequently, this study of the profile of adult education in the west and southern regions of Africa, necessarily investigates a number of key aspects of modern adult education without which adult education will not be able to serve society in any meaningful way.

Methodology

The design, population, sample and method of data analysis employed in this study are the main items discussed under this section.

Design

The current study is designed as a survey of the performance of west and southern African countries in the promotion of those aspects of adult education system that tend not only to keep adult education visible but which makes of adult education a functional instrument of socio-economic development.

Population

The population among which the findings of this study are to be generalised is made up of the citizens of all Anglophone countries within the west and southern African sub-regions. The Francophone and Lisophone countries were not included in the study because of the novice and miniature natures of adult education in those countries.

Sample

Seventeen and five countries exist in west Africa and southern Africa respectively. Of the 17 countries in west Africa, 5 are Anglophone, 2 are Lisophone while 10 are Francophone. The 5 countries of southern Africa are Anglophone.

In order to satisfy the rule of representativeness the countries of each sub-region were first stratified into very large, large and small countries. Very large countries being those with national populations exceeding 70 million inhabitants. Large countries were said to be countries with national populations above 10 million inhabitants but not exceeding the 70 million mark. Small countries were countries whose national populations laid between 0 to 9 million inhabitants. Secondly, the countries were classified into countries that achieved political independence around the 1960s and those that got independence after the 1960s or before the 20th century. Thus, the following matrix was obtained.

Table 1: Sample matrix of countries for the adult education profile study.

	West Africa			Southern Africa		
	Independent in the 19 th century	Independent around the 1960s	Independent after the 1960s	Independent in the 19 th century	Independent around the 1960s	Independent after the 1960s
Very large countries		Nigeria				
Large countries		Ghana				South Africa
Small countries	Liberia	Gambia, Sierra Leone			Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland,	Namibia

Table 1 shows that, of the 10 countries in the west and southern countries, only one qualified to be viewed as a very large country. That very large country is found in west Africa and it was independent in the 1960s. Two countries (one each in west and southern Africa) fell into the class of large countries. One of the two large countries attained political independence around the 1960s while the other attained independence after the 1960s.

Seven of the 10 countries under study were small countries. Five of these seven countries attained political independence around the 1960s. One of the small countries attained political independence in the 19th century while the other gained political independence in the 1990s.

Three out of five countries were sampled from each sub-region. In west Africa, one very large country, one large country and one small country were sampled. In the absence of any very large country in southern Africa, one large country and two small countries were sampled. The sampled countries then were the following.

Table 2: Sampled countries for the adult education profile study

West Africa	Southern Africa
Nigeria Ghana Sierra Leone	South Africa Botswana Namibia

Table 2 shows that Nigeria, Ghana and Sierra Leone were sampled in west Africa while South Africa, Botswana and Namibia were sampled in southern Africa.

Instrumentation

The main instruments used in this study were internet, library and document searches.

Data Collection

A search was conducted through available information as it exists in documents (books, journals, policy papers, etc.) found on the internet, in libraries and in ministries with a view to assessing the political commitment of each sampled country towards adult education. Information was also gathered on the number and types of adult education programmes run by these countries particularly within the last ten years. Information on the characteristics of the personnel and learners of adult education programmes and typologies of adult education research conducted was also accessed.

The rationale for collecting information on these five parameters stems from the fact that three main factors usually contribute to the success of adult education. These factors include the deployment of political will by authorities through their willingness to deploy both material and financial resources in a fairly adequate manner to the adult education sub-sector. These factors equally include the adequate supply of enabling instruments for adult education practice (learning programmes, personnel and learners) and relevant research.

While the deployment of political will and practice usually precede research activities especially in Africa, nevertheless, research comes to refine the process of adult education by periodically highlighting the state of the art in the practice and theoretical areas of adult education and by pointing to relevant future directions.

Mode of Analysis

Measurement of adequacy was the main method used in analysing the data. Consequently, “political will”, was measured by the availability of a visible and functional national adult education policy in combination with the proof that at least 3% of 6% of national education budgets was allocated to adult education. Therefore, where a nation fulfilled these two

conditions, it was awarded 100% for showing political will towards the promotion of adult education. Where a nation fulfilled one or parts of these two conditions, it was awarded 50% or other scores commensurate to the achievement of that nation.

This measurement scale was employed because by the close of the 20th century, the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first century had recommended that in order to maximize returns on education, all nations should allocate at least 6% of their gross national product (GNP) to education beginning from the 21st century (Delors, 1998). The 1997 Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) on the other hand, had recommended that an adequate percentage of the 6% educational allocation be invested in adult education (Ouane, 2009). As if to refine the statement of CONFINTEA V, the Global Campaign for Education specifically recommended in 2005 that 3% of the Education budget of nations be dedicated to adult education (Sussmuth, 2009).

The adult education programmes run by the countries studied, were assessed on the basis of their levels of functionality and empowerment in the areas of survival skills and employment. This measurement scale is justified by the fact that the utilitarian and progressive philosophies of adult education holds the greatest value to the socio-economic development that is badly needed by Sub-Saharan Africa within the current globalised world.

The adult education personnel operating within the countries studied was assessed on the basis of the percentage of the facilitators and administrators of adult education that had a minimum of Diploma level training in adult education. The Diploma level training being usually a high school plus two years tertiary level training, was considered a minimum level of training that could enable an adult educational personnel perform minimally well in the promotion and operationalisation of general and specific adult education programmes.

The performance of the countries studied as it concerns adult education learners was measured on the basis of the population of youths, adult illiterates and women that accessed national adult education programmes. Where it was found that the clientele of adult education was made up of about 33% out-of-school youths, 33% adult illiterates and 34% women, a country was awarded a score of 100%. Findings that departed from these distributions, attracted commensurate fractions of the total score.

The current measurement scale was adopted against the background of the reality that the school system in Sub-Saharan Africa has space for less than half of the school age population of learners (UNESCO, 2011; Torres, 2003). Also conscious of the fact that basic education is a sine qua non for functional living in the 21st century, it is expected that an adult education that must serve the interest of Africa must have a large space for the out-of-school youths. Additionally, adult illiteracy being an issue in Africa (UNESCO, 2011), it is expected that a substantial population of adult illiterates and semi-literates be catered for by adult education

programmes on the continent. Women are a neglected species in Sub-Saharan Africa. It is expected that national adult education programmes would rescue them and right as much as possible the wrongs so long meted out to them.

The research component of the study was measured against two parameters. The first measured the volume of adult education research conducted in each country. The second parameter assessed the worth of research conducted against its value in shedding light on issues that reveal areas that are yet to be attended to or issues that are methodological in nature. Since research usually informs policy, investigations of topical issues tend to promote the formulation of not just any kind of policies but of relevant and timely policies. Methodological research on the other hand usually helps redress errors of practice before practice is distorted out of achievable objectives or out of control.

Findings

The details of the findings are discussed under the “political will”, “adult education programmes”, “personnel”, “learners” and “research” headings

Political will

Beginning from 1990, a multiplicity of governmental and non-governmental organisations got involved in the deliberations that was to lead to the fashioning of the Republic of South Africa’s first policy on adult education which saw the light of day in 1997 (Aitchison, 1994). A few of these organisations include universities, labour organisations, trade unions, government ministries, political parties and numerous non-governmental organisations (Aitchison, 1994). Consequently, a large number of documents were generated which helped in either producing the first policy on adult education or in reviewing it (Mckay, 2007; Aitchison, 1994). These documents include the

- i). Interim Guidelines for ABET (1995)
- ii). South African Qualifications Act (1995)
- iii). National Education Policy Act (1996)
- iv). South African Constitution (1996)
- v). National Multi-Year Implementation Plan for adult education and training in the Department of Education (1997)
- vi). Skills Development Act (1998) and
- vii). Skills Development Levy Act (1999) (Mckay, 2007).

This policy that has been reviewed a number of times and which had also had its own share of teething problems, recommended the establishment of a strong government Department of Adult Education, a National Qualifications Framework, a National Stakeholders Forum and the promulgation of an ABET legislation. It also recommended the drafting of “Guidelines and

Capacity for Educator Training at all levels” and the promotion of “Research, Information and Development of Curriculum and Materials” (Preece, 2009; Mckay, 2007; Aitchison, 2003).

South Africa is one of the countries in Africa that has deployed an incredible amount of political will in promoting adult education and in using it as a formidable tool for reconstruction, regeneration and national integration. Although financial allocation to the field of adult education has not always been rosy (according to Mckay, 2007, 0.83% of the education budget was allocated to adult education between 1999 and 2001), South Africa allocated 20% of the consolidated 2014 budget to education and 21% of this education budget was deployed to post-school education and training (Republic of South Africa, 2014). Therefore, in the last few years, South Africa has been making available not only a visible adult education policy, it equally has been striving to approach the recommended funding formula for adult education.

Namibia’s National Policy on Adult Learning (2003) is an “innovative policy” that has had “a positive impact on adult learning and education” (Ouane, 2009 p.70). Not only has it developed a series of relevant adult education programmes (including HIV/AIDS related programmes, work-related programmes, life skills and active citizenship programmes), it promotes a financing system that brings many organisations (government, non-government and private organisations) on board. This unique way of promoting adult education has helped Namibia not only to flag a visible National Policy on Adult Education, but also to approach the recommended threshold for the financing of adult education.

Unfortunately the same thing cannot be said of the other countries under review. While Nigeria, Ghana, Sierra Leone and Botswana have National Policies on Education that mention adult education and while they have deployed some amount of effort in promoting adult education (establishment of a National Commission for Adult Education and State Agencies for Adult Education in Nigeria, reinvigoration of the New Year School tradition and establishment of the Institute of Continuing and Distance Education in Ghana, the introduction of Out-of-school education in Botswana), adult education in these countries is yet to be singled out for the robust and privileged treatment that it has enjoyed in both South Africa and Namibia.

Adult Education Programmes

South Africa and Namibia employed adult education as an instrument for social justice by using it as an alternative route to social mobility and ascension (Ouane, 2009; Preece, 2009; Mckay, 2007; Aitchison, 2003). Hence the thoroughness of the work done around the “*National Qualifications Framework*” “*life skills*” and “*active citizenship programmes*” in these two countries within the context of the promotion of adult education. Although it must be noted that varying degrees of efforts have been made in an effort to use adult education as an equalising social instrument in other countries (mainstreaming of adult education products into the school system in Nigeria and Botswana, minimal accreditation of adult education certificates in Ghana

and Sierra Leone), a far greater emphasis remains laid upon the school system so much so that adult education remains constrained in its liberating and empowering role.

Consequently, although most of the countries under review promote myriad adult education programmes, those of South Africa and Namibia are the most functional and empowering in contents, mode of delivery and participation.

Personnel

The most important category of workers within the adult education sector is made up of adult education facilitators. In South Africa and to a large extent in Namibia, “*Under the Adult Learning National Standards Body 05, the adult educator is required to assume a variety of complex roles and functions pertaining to education, training, and development.*” (Mckay, 2007 p.247).

Unfortunately, there have not been adequate institutional provisions for the training of adult education facilitators and administrators to take on the massive responsibilities assigned to the facilitators. This was one of the factors that accounted for the failures recorded within the area of ABET between 2003-2005 (Aitchison, 2003). In Namibia too, institutional framework for the training of facilitators and administrators was not optimally adequate, hence, a shortage in the supply of qualified adult education personnel

However in Ghana, the Institute of Adult Education (now Institute of Continuing and Distance Education), the Department of Community Development, the Agriculture Colleges and Community Health Nurses Training Colleges are four institutions that have been promoting the training of adult education facilitators in the country even before independence in 1957 (Adjei, 2004). These institutions that provide Certificate level to PhD level training in adult educator training have thus far managed to supply a near adequate number of facilitators needed by the adult education sector within the country (Adjei, 2004).

Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Botswana have not been able to supply an adequate number of adult education facilitators and administrators as a result logistical, political and financial reasons (National Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education Commission, 2006; Biao and Maruatona, Forthcoming). Additionally, out of nearly 200 universities existing in Nigeria, less than 10 university Departments of Adult Education exist to train adult education personnel. In these countries, underemployment (wherein inappropriate or non-deployment of adult education graduates to appropriate sectors) may sometime create the impression of overproduction of adult education personnel.

Learners

Learners are not in short supply. However, the types of learning programmes made available by countries do impact the diversity of learners that avail themselves for existing adult education

programmes. In other words, the more varied the learning programmes, the more diverse learners are likely to be.

In South Africa, the following programmes are on offer through adult education mode:

- i). literacy education
- ii). basic education
- iii). water and sanitation education
- iv). environmental education
- v). job skills training
- vi). trade unionism
- vii). agricultural education
- viii). community organisation skills
- ix). adult education material development
- x). workers education and
- xi). training of trainers in each of all these areas (Mckay, 2007; Aitchison, 2003).

This is the most diverse adult education package on offer among the countries under study. South Africa is followed by Namibia that also has an impressive array of adult education learning programmes on offer. All other countries emphasise literacy education and basic education. Ghana promotes some amount of agricultural education and other topical issues during its New Year School meetings where necessary. During the years 1990-2008, with the support of UNICEF, Nigeria floated the Girl-Child, Out-of-school boy education and the Quranic school learners education. These were special adult education programmes aimed at improving participation in the national basic education programme. Therefore, of the countries studied, South Africa and Namibia parade the most diverse adult learners population.

Research

Using a combination of Adams et al's (2010) *Global Research Report on Africa* and journal article publications in the area of adult education, it was discovered that Nigeria led all other countries in the area of number of journal publications in general and specifically in the area of adult education publications. When Adams et al's (2010) *Global Research Report on Africa* was used solely, it was discovered that South Africa led all other countries as this report was biased towards Pure Sciences researches. However, when this was combined with adult education publications, Nigeria led all other countries.

This was expected because, unlike other countries (with the exception of Ghana), in addition to all other types of journal (Education, Pure Sciences, Applied Sciences, etc.) Nigeria publishes at least one national Adult Education Journal (***Adult Education in Nigeria***, a publication of the Nigerian National Council on Adult Education). Ghana equally publishes a journal of Adult Education based at the Institute of Continuing and Distance Education (***Ghana Journal of Literacy and Adult Education***). However, this Ghanaian publication did not prove robust enough to effectively challenge the leadership position of Nigeria in regards to prolificacy and volume of publications. Also, the South African publications, especially on the *Global Research Report on*

Africa were so massive that Ghana's specific advantage in the area of Adult Education journal was not sufficient to displace South Africa from the second position. Although, Ghana tended to discuss more topical adult education issues than Nigeria and South Africa, yet, such an advantage was successfully overridden by the discussion of more methodological issues by Nigeria and South Africa.

It is pertinent to explain at this juncture that although the *Global Research Report on Africa* was heavily biased towards the Pure Sciences, the relevance of this report to adult education is not in doubt as knowledge generated from such sciences as Agricultural Sciences, Environmental Ecology, Biochemistry, Health Sciences, Plant and Animal Sciences and the like is usually repackaged for use within the field of adult learning and non-formal education practice.

Table 3 that follows summarises the findings of the study.

Table 3: Summary of findings

Sub-region of Sub-Saharan Africa	Countries	Political will	Empowerment Level of Adult education programmes	Diploma Level Qualification of Personnel	Equitable Distribution of Critical Types of Learners	Volume and Quality of Research	Total Average
West Africa	Nigeria	55%	53%	58%	60%	82%	62%
	Ghana	55%	55%	80%	58%	64%	62%
	Sierra Leone	50%	50%	50%	51%	41%	48%
Southern Africa	South Africa	78%	78%	60%	85%	76%	75%
	Botswana	55%	56%	55%	58%	56%	56%
	Namibia	80%	76%	60%	75%	50%	68%

In summary, table 3 shows that, in the area of political will of nations to promote adult education, Namibia pooled the highest score (80%), followed by South Africa (78%). The third position was jointly occupied by Nigeria (55%), Botswana (55%) and Ghana(55%) while the last position was taken by Sierra Leone (50%). Table 3 equally shows that, when the analysis of the level of empowerment the adult education programmes may offer, was carried out, South Africa led all the other five countries with 78%. It was followed by Namibia (76%) while the third position was occupied by Botswana (56%). The fourth, fifth and sixth positions were occupied by Ghana (55%), Nigeria (53%) and Sierra Leone (50%) respectively. Table 3 equally shows that with regards to the minimum qualification of the adult education personnel, Ghana paraded the highest percentage (80%) of minimally qualified (Diploma level) adult education personnel. It was jointly followed by South Africa (60%) and Namibia (60%). The fourth, fifth and sixth positions were taken by Nigeria (58%), Botswana (55%) and Sierra Leone (50%) respectively. Table 3 also shows that South Africa displayed the most equitability in the distribution of the critical types of adult learners. It scored 85% to lead all other countries. It was followed by Namibia (75%) and Nigeria (60%). The fourth and sixth positions were jointly occupied by Ghana (58%) and Botswana (58%) and Sierra Leone (51%) respectively. Lastly,

Table 3 shows that in the area of volume and quality of research, Nigeria led all other countries by pooling 82%. It was followed by South Africa (76%) and Ghana (64%). The fourth, fifth and sixth positions were taken by Botswana (56%), Namibia (50%) and Sierra Leone (41%) respectively.

In terms of overall performance, South Africa led all the countries studied by pooling 75% in total average score. It was followed by Namibia (68%). The third position was jointly taken by Nigeria (62%) and Ghana (62%). The fifth and sixth positions were occupied by Botswana (56%) and Sierra Leone (48%) respectively.

Conclusion

Utilitarianism and progressive pragmatism were the frameworks within which the current study was conducted. It could not have been otherwise since the continent studied was one still in need of the basic necessities of life and indeed of re-identification after the twin experience of slavery and colonialism.

Therefore, the countries that pooled the highest scores were those in which the profile of adult education was highest at the time of this study as a result of their greatest commitment in providing the citizenry with personal growth and development opportunities. They were equally adjudged to be the countries that have taken most seriously, the task of reforming society for the benefit of the largest number of the citizenry.

Recommendations

If the potentials of adult education were to be mobilised and eventually maximised for the profit of African development, findings at the level of individual criteria in this study suggest that

- West Africa will have to increase its level of political will towards adult education promotion
- West Africa will have to increase the level of participation in adult learning of social groups (adult illiterates, women, out-of-school youths) that are critical to national development.
- All countries in Africa need to increase qualification levels of their adult education personnel.

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