Senegal

Civil Society Participation and the Governance of Educational Systems in the Context of Sector-Wide Approaches to Basic Education

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Executive Summary

Senegal is a stable society with good relations between its different ethnic and religious groups (Hermier 2004), although it has experienced some internal conflict in recent decades, within its southern Casamance region. Following independence from France in 1960, Senegal was ruled for four decades by the same socialist party -- although under different names – and neo-patrimonialism was a prominent characteristic of the political landscape (Kuenzi 2003). The year 2000 marked a new era, when Abdoulaye Wade was elected president. Senegal has since been commended

important part of Senegal's PRSP, under the second of the PRSP's four pillars/strategic thrusts (Government of Senegal 2002: 23-23, 41).

Senegal's gross primary enrollment ratio is 79.9% and primary completion rate, 47.8% (World Bank figures for 2001- 2003). A 2000 study of quality of basic education found the following problems: dilapidated infrastructures and shortage of desks; lack of textbooks; high repetition and drop-out rates; irrelevance of teaching programs (which had not changed in decades); the inexistence of a culture of evaluation in schools, departments and regions; and a lack of pedagogical supervision of teachers (Niane 2004). There is considerable inequity in the allocation of public expenditures on education between poorer and richer households (Government of Senegal 2002). Finally, huge disparities in literacy rates exist between men (51.1%) and women (28.9%), between poor and less poor regions (e.g. Dakar 60%; Kolda region, 27.9%) and between urban (57.2%) and rural (24.1%) areas (Government of Senegal 2002).

In education, the Senegalese government's *faire-faire* ("Making things happen") strategy places a strong emphasis on state-civil society

The PDEF's decentralization reforms envisage new relationships of sharing and negotiation being created between central government, local authorities, teachers, pupils and parents (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005). Towards this end, PDEF educational governance structures have been created at regional, *département* and local levels, and each level must formulate and monitor education development plans along with non-state actors (Aide et Action 2002b). At the school level, management committees have been established to include representatives from local and MoE officials, civil society, and school staff. These committees are charged with implementing "*projets d'école,*" (school development projects). *Projets d'école* appear to have the potential to form the basis for bottom-up, collaborative education planning by state and

1. Background

Economic situation

Senegal is a country of 10.5 million people (2004 figure) located on the west coast of Africa, beside the North Atlantic Ocean. Senegal shares borders with The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali and Mauritania. The country's ethnic groups include Wolof 43.3%, Pular 23.8%, Serer 14.7%, Jola 3.7%, Mandinka 3%, Soninke 1.1%, European and Lebanese people 1% (CIA Factbook n.d.). Its languages include French (the official language), Wolof, Pulaar, Jola, and Mandinka (CIA Factbook n.d.).

The OECD's 2004-2005 report on Senegal's economic outlook estimates that Senegal "could replace pre-crisis Côte d'Ivoire as the motor for growth in French Africa," however its "economy must be modernized, diversified and decentralized in order to make it a tool for dprmay osecor feploy a pproxmately two]TJ-20.305 01.725 TD0.Tc0 Tw(0thirdsof 1he mctbverpovplaaion S

-Life expectancy: 52 years
-Infant mortality: 78 per 1000
-Child malnutrition: 23% of children under 5;
-Literacy rate: 39% of population age 15+;
-Gender disaggregated literacy rate: 41% total; Men 56%; Women 29% (2000-2004); [2]
-Under-5 mortality: 137 per 1000 (2003); [3]
-GDP per capita: $636 (2003)(OECD 2005)

The World Bank's 2003 Country Assistance Strategy for Senegal describes the "deep divide between rural and urban Senegal - in income, education, health, and access to modern services" (World Bank 2003: 1). According to Senegal's 2002 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), the rural incidence of poverty varies between 72-88%, compared to 44-59% in urban areas (Government of Senegal 2002: 9). Regional disparities are also considerable. The 2001 Household Survey on Perception of Poverty in Senegal found very low rates of access to a health care centre (within less than 1 km) for the populations of Kolda (23.2%) and Diourbel (25.5%) regions, among others, compared to the national average of 50.4% (Government of Senegal 2002: 18). Concerning education, huge differences in literacy rates exist between men (51.1%) and women (28.9%), between poor and less poor regions (e.g. Dakar 60%; Kolda region, 27.9%) and between urban (57.2%) and rural (24.1%) areas (Government of Senegal 2002: 18). Public expenditures on health and education are not equally allocated between regions and social strata (Government of Senegal 2002).

Many of Senegal's households are unable to pay for these services themselves. From 1960-1993, the average annual growth rate of Senegal's economy, 2.7% a year, did not keep up with demographic growth rates, and was thereby insufficient to improve "real per capita incomes and employment" (Government of Senegal 2002: 15). Another challenge: agriculture "represents 10 percent of GDP but occupies more than 50 percent of the active

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[2] This is quoted from CIDA's *Senegal, Facts at a Glance* webpage, retrieved February 20, 2006, from: http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/cidaweb/webcountry.nsf/VLUDocEn/Senegal-Factsataglance

[3] This is quoted from CIDA's *Senegal, Facts at a Glance* webpage, retrieved February 20, 2006, from: http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/cidaweb/webcountry.nsf/VLUDocEn/Senegal-Factsataglance

population, who are for the most part illiterate" (Government of Senegal 2002: 16). Contributors to poverty in agricultural areas include drought, desertification and low groundnut yields. Urban centres, also, are not without their challenges. A 2002 USAID profile of Senegal showed that while 75% of Senegal's poor live in rural areas, 30% of the urban population is also poor (USAID 2002). Unemployment rates in Dakar increased from 25% in 1991 to 44% in 1996; these rates are linked to rural migration caused by erosion, drought, deforestation and locusts (USAID 2002).

In response to these challenges, Senegal's PRSP has four main strategic thrusts: wealth creation, capacity-building and promotion of basic social services, improving the living conditions of vulnerable groups, and implementation of a participatory and decentralized approach to the steering, execution and monitoring and evaluation of the programs (Government of Senegal 2002: 23-23, 41). Senegal's development partners include the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, European Union, United Nations Development Program, African Development Bank, Japan, Canada, USA, West African Development Bank, France and other UN agencies (World Bank 2003).

For Canada's part, CIDA supports Senegal's PRSP, having played a key role in its preparation,[4] and counts Senegal amongst the 25 development partners where CIDA will focus the majority of its country-to-country assistance. Within Senegal,

> CIDA will be increasing its support to the major country-led programs in the areas of education and grassroots economy. The new program will focus about 60 percent of its resources on basic education, specifically, providing support for literacy, primary-level education, professional training and the development of new curricula, and new management methods.[5]

A 2005 CIDA-funded study of Senegalese civil society actors in education explains some new emphases in CIDA's 2001-2011 Strategic Framework for Senegal. Until now, Canada's support to the implementation of Senegal's 10-year education sector plan (the *Plan décennal*

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[4] This is quoted from CIDA's *Senegal Programming Framework* webpage, retrieved February 20, 2006, from: http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/cidaweb/webcountry.nsf/VLUDocEn/Senegal-ProgrammingFramework

and energy into a lethargic political system and public" (Kuenzi 2003: 53). Overall, Senegal has been growing as a democracy, and has seen little mobilization along ethnic lines, partly because there is considerable emphasis placed on different groups having representation within government (Kuenzi 2003).

History of Senegal's education system

The education system in Senegal has experienced setbacks due to the cleavages created within the population under French colonialism. During that period, schooling was developed mostly in urban areas, was woefully inadequate in its overall coverage of the population, and sought to produce low-level civil servants for colonial administration (Nordtveit 2005). Even today, the formal school system has been critiqued for alienating Senegalese people: "the curriculum is highly theoretical and offers little relevant learning for rural people's improved livelihoods. Rather, it is designed for civil service positions that are held mostly by urban men" (Nordtveit 2005: 9). Indeed, curricula have been a subject of debate since independence, when Senegalese elites were reluctant to change francophone components of the system (Kane 2003). As Kane (2003: 28) points out:

> […] the official language, French, is not a *national* language; it is spoken in schools, but not in homes. Schools are hence isolated from communities; they are entities that prepare for a life outside the community. Thus, the instructional language contributes to the high rates of illiteracy, even amongst those who have been to school.

As a result, non-formal education (NFE) initiatives have sprung up to meet needs unmet by the formal education system. These programs are conducted in African languages and are usually adapted to local culture and priorities (Kuenzi 2003). As we shall discuss in upcoming sections, most of these programs are run by national or international NGOs, although the Senegalese government has in recent years greatly increased its activity within NFE (Kuenzi 2003).

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[7] In his discussion of the two types of social capital, Galvan (2001) draws from Robert Putnam's *Bowling Alone*.

Decentralization of governance

In terms of its administration, Senegal is divided into 11 regions (*régions*), each of which is subdivided into 3 departments (*départements*). Each of the *'départements'* are subdivided into districts (*arondissements*), which are in turn subdivided into rural communities (*communautés rurales*). The latter comprise a certain number of villages (Nordtveit 2005).

Senegal has attracted interest for having the longest history of decentralization amongst West African countries (Ouedraogo 2003). Its decentralization processes have undergone several phases and forms, with some gradual relinquishment of central government control. Even under President Wade, however, the state has on-going challenges determining the distribution of authority and responsibility amongst the country's regions (Clemons 2001). While *political* decentralization has occurred (i.e. sub-national elections of new governmental structures) "taxation, budgeting and expenditure decisions, borrowing, and even the appointment of some sub-national government officials have remained prerogatives of the central state" (Dickovick 2005: 187). In the third and most recent phase of decentralization, launched prior to Wade's presidency in 1996, regions and communities were assigned major responsibilities for providing services, such as health and education. A fund has been created to undergird this shift -- but the *nature and amount* of resources and decision-making authority transferred to these decentralized structures

inspectors at the *'département'* level (*Inspections départementales de l'éducation nationale*, or IDEN).

Formal education encompasses four types of schools: public schools, private secular schools, private Catholic schools, and private Arabic schools (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000). The different levels of schooling are as follows: preschool, for children 3-5 years of age (*éducation préscolaire*); elementary, a 6-year cycle for children from 7-12 years of age (*enseignement élémentaire*); middle-school (*enseignement moyen*); general secondary (*secondaire général*), a 3-year cycle; technical and professional secondary (*secondaire technique et professionnel*); higher education or university (*enseignement supérieur*); and teacher training (Ndiaye, Diop et al 2004). Non-formal education (NFE) comprises literacy programming and community schools, also known as *ECBs,* or *écoles communautaires de base* (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000). [9]

Senegal's education sector plan, the Plan décennal de l'éducation et de la formation *(PDEF)*

Senegal has a 10-year education sector plan, launched in 1998: the *Plan décennal de l'éducation et de la formation* (PDEF). The PDEF outlines governmental policies for education up to the year 2010 (Government of Senegal 2002). Concerning basic education, the PRSP lists some of the PDEF's targets as:

> (i) universal primary education by the year 2010;
> (ii) reallocation of 49 percent of the national education budget to elementary education;
> (iii) improvement of access to all levels of education for girls and lengthening of the time they spend in formal education […]

Diarra, Fall et al. (2000) identify four main principles of the PDEF:

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[9]Ndiaye, Diop et al. (2004: 51-53) mention other forms of alternative basic education, beyond ECBs and literacy programs. For example: the government's experimental *écoles communautaires de base articulées* (ECB-A) for students 12-16 years of age; and Enda Ecopole's *formations Coins de Rue* (FCR), mostly located in Dakar (particularly in disadvantaged areas) which offer programs in daycare, elementary, secondary, professional training and literacy. These programs target girls, boys and young adults who have never had access to basic education.

-better involvement of actors and partners in reinforcement of the education system
-increased power of *'collectivités locales'* (*communes and communautés rurales)* in the decentralization and deconcentration framework
-an approach of negotiated participation with actors and beneficiaries
-a *faire-faire* ("make things happen") policy; in partnership with civil society, a realistic and accepted distribution of roles.

Similarly, the PRSP explains the PDEF as being based on the following principles:

(i) diversification of the types of education offered;
(ii) an effective and well-coordinated partnership;
(iii) strengthened decentralization/deconcentration;
(iv) quality education for all (equality and equity);
(v) achievement by all of the highest performance levels (quality), and
(vi) transparent and efficient management (Government of Senegal 2002: 42).

The PRSP states that the PDEF was "initiated by the State in collaboration with the financial partners, civil society, and the institutions and agencies of the education sector with the aim of spurring quantitative and qualitative development of the education and training system" (Government of Senegal 2002: 41). However, detailed information on the design process for the PDEF, and the role of state and non-state actors therein, is scarce. CSO participants within the process were mainly those with a national-level structure, for example, the national coalition of *'opérateurs'* who deliver non-formal education, the national federation of parents' associations (*APEs*) and the national Education For All coalition (S. Cherry, personal communication with CIDA field staff, February 13, 2006).

Senegal's community schools, or écoles communautaires de base *(ECBs)*

Écoles communautaires de base (ECBs) are designated for 9-14 year olds who are not enrolled in school or who have left school early (Niane 2003). The target is that 65% of these students should be girls (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000). NGOs assume a role of *'opérateurs,'* supporting ECBs in recruitment, training, hiring and supervising of teachers, and in establishing and equipping income-generating activities for schools (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000). ECB teachers are called *'volontaires'* and are frequently paid by foreign donors, such as CIDA via the state agency PAPA (*Project d'appui au plan d'action du MCEBLN)*, or by

ECBs); articulation of the sub-sectors of formal and non-formal education; and the establishment of national plans for basic education (Ndiaye, Diop et al 2004: 27). Concerning the literacy component of NFE, 1993 and 1995 marked two major consultative processes, aiming for "consensus upon national literacy policy," at which time *faire-faire* policy[11]

> […] one of the most liberal and open societies in Africa, and indeed in the postcolonial world. Press freedom, although restricted, was never entirely eliminated. Intellectuals and artists—and, to a lesser extent, labor and civic activists— enjoyed a range of freedoms of expression, despite the government's efforts to incorporate them within Senghor's vaguely democratic corporatist vision of one-party rule" (Galvan 2001: 52).

As we have seen, the Wade government, elected in 2000, has been commended for giving new energy to the political system (Kuenzi 2003). Hermier (2004:2) describes Senegalese civil society as "extremely heterogeneous;" the government has an official list of 316 NGOs, in addition to many associations, trade unions, media organizations, universities, research centres, umbrella organizations and *'tontines,'* or "informal solidarity groups." Generally speaking, CSOs tend to be grouped according to "status or area of interest," but they lack overall coordination and common platforms, and are donor-dependent (Hermier 2004: 2). Their structuring "remains closely linked to the various dialogue settings created as part of cooperation policy (such as the PRSP) […]" – rather than robust, pre-existing networks that can strongly influence decision-makers (Hermier 2004: 4, 7).

Apart from the Hermier (2004) article, there are a few current studies of Senegalese civil society in the public domain. For example, the involvement of civil society actors in the Casamance peace process has been researched (Beck 2002b). Some study has also been conducted of the interaction between elected decentralized authorities and religious leaders (*marabouts*) (Beck 2001a) – while other literature suggests a decreased influence of religion in politics (Galvan 2001, Kuenzi 2003). Patterson (1998) studied some rural Senegalese organizations whose goal of mutual help had been lost amidst class and gender discrimination. The result was un-transparent, un-democratic management, and co-option of members to accept the political status quo (Patterson 1998). It does not seem reasonable, however, to generalize about Senegalese civil society overall, based on these few studies; the current literature is rather limited in volume.

Some information is available about the overall involvement of civil society in the formulation of Senegal's PRSP. The PRSP itself has an annex detailing "Actors and Their degree of participation in PRSP Modules" (Government of Senegal 2002: 89). The category

of civil society actor (e.g. development NGO, labor union, religious organization etc), the stages at which they participated, and the degree of participation (whether low, average or high) at each stage is provided. While this kind of detail is a promising start, it must be remembered that presence does not automatically equate with influence (Brock, McGee et al. 2002), and that it is hard for a reader to discern which of the various stages or actors were the most influential in determining the outcomes of the overall process.

An article by Phillips (2002) -- of the INGO World Vision -- provides some further

leaders of community organizations such as village development associations, women's groups, young people's organizations and professional associations, and, more generally, organizations representing

In the education sector, the *faire-faire* policy gives non-state actors -- NGOs, *GIEs* (*Groupes d'intéret économique*), associations, development organizations -- the responsibility for designing and implementing NFE initiatives (Assié-Lumumba, Mara et al. 2005). These initiatives are highly-adapted to local needs and priorities (Ndiaye, Diop et al 2004; Hoppers 2005). In the delivery of educational services, the PRSP refers to *faire-faire* within education as a kind of "outsourcing" approach (Government of Senegal 2002: 43), meaning that the state hires local NGO *'opérateurs'* to implement programs, thereby building civil society (Kuenzi 2003). Major donors who have supported *faire-faire* government literacy projects in Senegal include CIDA (supporting the *Projet d'appui au plan d'action*, or PAPA), the World Bank (supporting *Project alphabétization priorité femmes*, or PAPF), GTZ (supporting *Projet d'alphabétisation des élus et notables locaux*, PADEN and *Alpha-Femmes*) and the Senegalese state (supporting *Programme d'alphabétisation intensive du Sénégal,* PAIS).

Ndiaye, Diop et al.'s 2004 study offers a strong argument for the *faire-faire*

Diop et al. 2004: 18). Moreover, the plans for institutional support of these partnerships
seem quite robust. For example, the Senegalese government developed – in a participatory
fashion -- procedural manuals explaining the ro

project (Nordtveit 2005). Provider organizations increased in number, mainly grassroots, for-profit associations (Nordtveit 2005). Indeed, these NGO *'opérateurs'* now have a national coordinating body (the *Coordination nationale des opérateurs en alphabétisation*, or CNOAS), for negotiating with the state and training provider personnel (Ndiaye, Diop et al. 2004).

In addition, the participants in literacy programming were mainly from women's associations, and relationships thus grew between service providers and these associations (Nordtveit 2005). These processes in turn strengthened the women's voices, and represented a step of progress towards their greater involvement in decision-making, including within management of their own villages (Nordtveit 2004; 2005).[14] The program participants also had input into course schedules, and into needs assessments whose content shaped the proposals designed by the project providers (Nordtveit 2004; World Bank 2004). The World Bank found that this kind of participation strengthened the "demand-driven nature of the project, which is a key factor in sustainability" (World Bank 2004: 12). This kind of result can lead to a "spiralling up" of demand, whereby participants' expectations of their local services turn into stronger, more unified demands on the wider system and the state (Miller-Grandvaux, Welmond et al 2002a). In addition, Nordtveit (2004) points out that this situation illustrates a successful example of the "short route of accountability,"[15] where service providers are directly accountable to the project participants, rather than only being accountable to the state. This kind of accountability was reinforced in the government's technical PAPF (women's literacy project) evaluations, where one component measured the

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[14] Interestingly, the government agency DAEB's (*Direction de l'alphabétisation et de l'éducation de base)* 2001 longitudinal study of PAPF's outcomes showed a greater success rate in communities where the sub-project was built on an existing women's association, and where village people had established a local management committee as the implementation phase began (Nordtveit 2004).

[15] This concept comes from the World Bank's 2003 Development Report, *Making Services Work for Poor People.*

degree to which project content "corresponded to the participants' requirements" (Nordtveit 2004: 3).

In all these ways, the *faire-faire* approach assisted civil society actors – both participants and providers – to express their priorities, demand accountability, and gain credibility as implementers[16] of educational services. At the same time, this approach has been noted for the potentially negative effect of "chang[ing] the nature of civil society associations, which bec[o]me government-dependent businesses" or "clients" of government (Nordtveit 2005: 426, 448). Another point of ambiguity in the literature on *faire-faire* surrounds the origins of this model of public-private "partnership." The Ndiaye, Diop et al. study (2004) presents *faire-faire* as 'home-grown,' and thus well-suited to the Senegalese context. Other studies, however, emphasize the impact of global trends towards privatization, outsourcing and decentralization of education upon Senegal's education system, including in NFE (Clemons 2001; Kane 2003; Nordtveit 2005). It is not clear, however, whether or not the Senegalese state, and consequently, Senegal's education system, are any *more* influenced by global forces, than any other country receiving external funding for its education system. It might also be argued that the Senegalese state's increased support to NFE within the last decade shows some political will to anchor education in Senegalese realities. As we have seen, the *faire-faire* strategy has in many cases allowed for programming that is responsive to local priorities -- which in turn raises questions about the degree to which global forces shape Senegalese education at the *grassroots* level.[17] These studies on *faire-faire*, read at a distance, create many unanswered questions about the current

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[16] In some cases, women's organizations who began by receiving the services organized themselves to become providers (Nordtveit 2004).

[17] For example, the state's PAPA literacy project has developed a model curriculum, but still local organizations have autonomy in their choice of curriculum and content of classes (Kuenzi 2003). Hoppers (2005:125) has commented that the Senegalese ECB curriculum "has been purposely re-designed for improving the schools' response to the needs of learners" (Hoppers 2005: 125). Distinctions are made between "thememwhems'

S. Cherry
03/03/06
24

balance of power and influence between donors, state and civil society in Senegal, and about the degree to which civil society actors can create their own opportunities for participation within educational governance.

Governance roles and responsibilities under decentralization

Since 1996, the Senegalese education system (except for higher education) has been undergoing decentralization reforms (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000). It is not entirely straightforward to determine from the literature what opportunities and challenges decentralization poses for civil society actors in education. Gershberg and Winkler (2003:8 emphasis mine) describe Senegal's decentralization of education as a case of "*Explicit Delegation to Schools*" – as opposed to deconcentration or devolution to regions or localities. Their definition of delegation – excerpted from their chart defining deconcentration, devolution and delegation of education – is as follows:

Education/General	Administrative	Fiscal	Political
Delegation to schools and/or school councils	School principals and/or school councils empowered to make personnel, curriculum, and some spending decisions.	School principals and/or school councils receive government funding and can allocate spending and raise revenues locally.	School councils are elected or appointed, sometimes with power to name school principals.

 (Gershberg and Winkler 2003: 4-5)

Similarly to what Gershberg and Winkler describe, Senegal's PDEF (education sector plan) calls for "decentralized, ascendant and partnership-oriented" planning within education, and has established structures for planning and implementing the PDEF at regional, *'département'* and local levels (Aide et Action 2002b: 57). Niane (2003) suggests, however, that central government still retains many of the major decisions in educational governance, including policy and curriculum development, teacher recruitment and remuneration, and

evaluation of the system. Aide et Action (2002b) comment that there is some ambiguity in government documents about whether to *devolve* power to elected authorities or to aim for *deconcentration* of educational governance to education authorities at the regional and *'département'* levels (AEA 2002b). The more general and strategic state documents lean towards the former option, and the more operational documents, towards the latter (AEA 2002b). It is not a foregone conclusion, moreover, that elected local authorities have greater capacity for partnership with civil society than deconcentrated education authorities.

It is also not clear in the literature whether decentralization of educational governance 'plays out' differently in the formal and non-

after 4 years (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000), once an ECB is sustainable. The CIDA-funded government agency PAPA (*Project d'appui an plan d'action du MCEBLN*) is a major source of funding for these NGO *'opérateurs'* of ECBs (*Diarra, Fall et al. 2000*).

As to **community roles**, community people participate in determining curriculum, constructing and managing schools, and dete

-**Sub-regional NGOs with their headquarters in Dakar**: *le Forum des Educatrices Africaines (FAWE), le Réseau Africain pour le Développement Intégré, (RADI), TOSTAN et Action – Jeunesse - Environnement (AJE)*

-**National NGOs** are involved in improved access, quality and management of basic education; they work in formal, NFE, middle and secondary, and professional training. These include: *l'association pour le Développement en Afrique (ADEF/Afrique), L'ONECS (Office National de l'Enseignement Catholique au Sénégal)* and *ENDA Graph 3D.*

-**Associations**: these are regulated by law, have modest resources, and seek to contribute to basic education. They include: *association des Femmes du Ministère de l'Education (AFMEN), les comités pour la promotion de la scolarisation des filles (CNSCOFI et CDPSCOFI)* and *les associations de parents d'élèves (APE),* among others.

-**Federations (coalitions) and networks** include national federations of local organizations (e.g. APEs) or coalitions of different associations sharing common goals. They may be working towards EFA or advocating with government on behalf of communities. They may also carry out mobilization, lobbying, organizing fora, seminars, and demonstrations, especially during key dates defined by the UN system. They include FENAPES, CONGAD and the EFA Coalition, among others.

-**Unions**: This study found about 14 unions. They are major players and important pressure groups in the education system; the Ministry invites them to all meetings relating to pedagogical matters. Their opinions are sought whenever important decisions are being made.

Contributions of CS actors to education (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005: 20-25):

Civil society actors contribute within formal, non-formal and informal education.

Their participation enhances:

Access, through building and equipping infrastructure;

Recruitment and sensitization, with a particular emphasis on girls' education;

Retention of girls in school through income-generating activities, school feeding, assistance to families, health education and mobilization, and sensitization about early marriage;

Promotion of a literate environment, though development of literacy programming and alternative models. Associations are heavily involved here as well;

Quality through pedagogical training and seminars, sponsorship and scholarship systems; inputs such as textbooks, libraries; attention to working conditions for teachers, and school feeding programs;

Management though support to enhanced working conditions for local and deconcentrated authorities; capacity-building of leaders; sharing information, innovations and creating data bases;

Social development activities in the school context, including those in favour of marginalized groups; incorporation of local initiatives within education; citizenship education and promotion of gender equity.

Challenges facing civil society actors in education

Within formal education, both school management committees and APEs need their capacity built for organizing and operating more effectively (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005). In non-formal education, Diarra, Fall et al. (2000) concluded similarly that the management capacity of school committees is often very weak; their study found that written documents were rare (e.g. meeting minutes, account books) and that no committees in their sample were able to present a budget (Diarra, Fall et al. 2000). In addition, many civil society actors in education, particularly Senegalese actors, have serious shortages of resources to carry out their missions; lobbying for resources then takes time away from their more important objectives (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005). Their other major needs include capacity-building, improved coordination with decentralized education authorities, and strategies for improving education quality and quality of learning within NFE (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005).

The political context for civil society actors in NFE has also been found less-than-ideal. Despite the strengths of *faire-faire*'s design, and the government's political will to support NFE, some research shows that realities 'on the ground' do not quite live up to policy and plans. Central and decentralized state actors have been criticized for not having

established the planned "new institutional arrangements or mechanisms to administer a decentralized alternative education [… and for a] lack of evident attitudes, practices, and norms that would encourage participation and shared decision-making" (Clemons 2001: 172). Despite their signed agreements, the national coordination of the education sector program (PDEF) and even education authorities at the lower, '

they are over-extended (Clemons 2001). CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère (2005) also found evidence that certain *'opérateurs'* in NFE are not performing up to standard, not respecting their contracts and wasting resources (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005), while Ndiaye, Diop et al. (2004) report that *'opérateurs'* are not consistently hiring competent resource people to train their staff. Finally, Clemons and Vogt (2002) argue that there are strong discrepancies between government, community and NGO perspectives on the purposes of ECBs, and that there is need for all actors to engage in continual dialogue and come to an understanding of their different goals.

Part 5. Summary

In Senegal's overall political context, civil society actors enjoy freedom of association and expression. At the same time, there are substantial 'unknowns' surrounding the decentralization of governance – a major feature of the political landscape and the context for civil society activity. Firstly, there is a lack of clarity about how decentralization policy is translating into practice – in other words, about the degree to which decision-making power and adequate resources are being transferred to decentralized authorities (Clemons 2001). Secondly, the capacity of those authorities to collaborate with civil society actors, and vice versa, is not clearly-documented. In the education sector, decentralization reforms within the sector plan, the PDEF, appear to have created confusion in the relationship between elected local authorities and education officials (Aide et Action 2002b). In short, the changing governance context is difficult for both state and non-state actors to navigate.

The same may be said within non-formal education. The government is a strong supporter of NFE, and has designed sound policies and designated MoE staff to undergird state-civil society partnerships (Marchand 2000, Ndiaye, Diop et al. 2004, World Bank 2004). Still, rendering these partnerships operational poses financial, logistical, and capacity-related challenges for deconcentrated education authorities (Clemons 2001, CREDA

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[22] Weak involvement of *'collectivités locales'* was also noted within *faire-faire* literacy programming (Ndiaye,

which other civil society actors in formal education have a voice in shaping the wider system, and if or how they collaborate in doing so, is not well-documented. At the school level, management committees and their *projets d'école*

Appendix 1: Senegalese Civil Society Organizations (non-exhaustive list)

CSO category & comments These are not the only CSOs in Senegal intervening in education; they are CSOs whose *main focus* is in education (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005: 13).	*CSO name* Unless otherwise noted, these categories and names of CSOs in education, and the information about them, are translated by the author of this paper directly from CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005: 16 - 19 and Annex 3.	*Areas of intervention (in education only)*
International NGOs	a. Aide et Action b. Christian Children's Fund (CCF) c. CARITAS (Catholic Aid)	a. basic education (including NFE), peace education, child rights b. basic education c. school feeding, literacy, agricultural training centres
Sub-regional NGOs with their headquarters or a country chapter in Dakar	a. ADEF (Association for the Development of Education in Africa) b. AJE (Action-Jeunesse-Environnement) c. FAWE (Forum des Educatrices Africaines) d. RADI (Réseau Africain pour le Développement Intégré)	a. formal education, non-formal education b. informal sector of professional training c. girls in elementary education, middle and secondary education d. non-formal education, informal sector, professional training for middle-school graduates

	e. TOSTAN	
	f. ANCEFA	
National NGOs: involved in meeting PDEF (the		

	des filles -- committees for promotion of girls' schooling *-les associations ou amicales d'enseignantes e.g. AERS Amicale Enseignants Retraités du Sénégal* -- association for retired teachers *-APEs (Associations de parents d'élèves)* -- parents' associations	

Federations (coalitions) and networks: these may

2005).		
Unions: these are important pressure groups. They are numerous in the education sector; this study found more than 14 unions (CREDA and Kamara/Lagardère 2005).	a. *SUDES (Syndicat Unique et Démocratique des Enseignants du Sénégal)* b. *SNECS (Syndicat National des Enseignants des Écoles Catholiques du Sénégal)* c. *SNEEL (Syndicat national Enseignement Élémentaire)* d. *UDEPL (Union Démocratique*	

19).		
Education Research Groups	ERNWACA (Education Research Network for West and Central Africa)	-ERNWACA is a "Professional Scientific, non political and non profit association … created to increase research capacity, strengthen collaboration among researchers and practitioners, and promote African expertise on education so as to positively impact educational practices and policies" (ERNWACA website, consulted February 11, 2006 at: http://www.rocare.org/ernwaca_brochure_eng.htm)
Other civil society actors Quotations from Phillips (2002) are CSOs who were involved in the PRSP design process (Phillips 2002:63).	*CSO name and source*	*Areas of intervention (not exhaustive)*
INGOs	-*Plan International* (Diarra 2002) -*World Vision* (Beck 2001a) -*Handicap International* (Beck 2001a) -*Oxfam America* and *Oxfam Great Britain* (Beck 2001a) -*Red Cross* (Beck 2001a) -*World Education* (Beck 2001a) -*Appropriate Technology International* (Beck 2001a)	
Umbrella organizations	*a. CONGAD (Conseil des ONG d'Appui au Développement)* -- Council for NGOs	a. building NGOs' technical, institutional and organizational capacity; promoting dialogue between

	in support of development (Phillips 2002; Hermier 2004) *b. FONGS* -- Federation of NGOs in Senegal (Hermier 2004)	networks and alliances; supporting decentralization and local development; information exchange and dialogue, nationally and regionally (Hermier 2004) b. focusing on rural areas, "increase inter-community solidarity, develop the autonomous skills of rural organizations," training programs, literacy, land management (Hermier 2004)
Women's organizations	*-FAFS (Federation of Women's Associations of Senegal),* represents women's groups (Phillips 2002) *-COSEF* (Hermier 2004) *-FDEA* (Hermier 2004) *-ASBEF* (Hermier 2004) *-Profemu* (Hermier 2004)	
Youth organizations	*CNJS (National Youth Council of Senegal)* and *OJP (Organization of Pan-African Youth)*, represent young people's associations (Phillips 2002)	
Human Rights organizations	*-Senegalese Civic League* and *African League of Human Rights* -- umbrella groups for human rights organizations (Phillips 2002) *-Civil Forum* (Hermier 2004) -ONDH *(Organisation nationale de droits des hommes)* (Beck 2001a)	
Trade Unions	*-SYNPICS* – national umbrella group for trade unions (Phillips 2002)	

	-CNTS -- National Confederation of Senegalese Workers (Hermier 2004) *-UNSAS* (Phillips 2002)	
Agricultural and Producers' Organizations	*-CNCR (Conseil National de concertation de cooperatives ruraux)* (Beck 2001a) -- The National Council for Rural Dialogue and Co-ordinations (Phillips 2002) *-Association des jeunes agriculteurs Sénégalais* (Beck 2001a)	
Faith-based organizations	*-Association Nationale des Imams* (Beck 2001a) *-Church World Services* (Beck 2001a) *-Catholic Relief Services (CRS)* (Beck 2001a)	

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