

1 The Challenges, Pragmatic Justification and more Effective Ways
2 of Implementing the Continental Education Strategy for Africa
3 (2016-2025)

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8 **Abstract**

9 The Continental Education Strategy for Africa (2016 -2025) as an initiative by the African
10 Union holds a lot of potential in the prospective transformation of education in Africa. With
11 its focus on all levels of education and collaborated efforts at the continental, regional and
12 national level, it provides relevant strategies for attaining its goals within its targeted
13 2016-2025-time frame. Since its inception, progress in implementation of the CESA 16-25 has
14 been minimal. This paper provides an analysis of the challenges faced, practical reasons for its
15 implementation, experiences and lessons gained from the implementation. It also explores the
16 possibility of deploying alternative ways which are more effective for the implementation of
17 the CESA 16-25.

18

19 **Index terms**— CESA, education

20 **1 I. Introduction**

21 The Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 16-25) was adopted by the African Union Heads of State
22 and Government at their Twenty-Sixth Ordinary Session on 31st January 2016 in Addis Ababa as the framework
23 for transforming education and training systems in Africa (AUC CESA Journal, 2017). The CESA 16-25 was
24 established as a means of creating a new African citizen who will be an effective change agent for the continent's
25 sustainable development as envisioned by the AU and its 2063 Agenda (CESA [16][17][18][19][20][21][22][23][24][25]
26 ??2015). The Agenda 2063 is a strategic framework for the socio-economic transformation of the continent over the
27 next 50 years. Introduced in 2013, it builds on, and seeks to accelerate the implementation of past and existing
28 continental initiatives for growth and sustainable development (Brand South Africa Research Note, 2015). The
29 realization that education is a critical tool in realizing goals of the Agenda 2063 is what led to the birth of the
30 CESA 16-25 in 2015. This was upon the understanding of the lack of human capital on the continent (Addaney,
31 2017).

32 At the adoption of the CESA, there was a call for Member States, Regional Economic Communities, partners,
33 private sector and civil society to popularize and raise awareness about CESA. This came along with

34 Author: e-mail: chigozieokonkwo12@yahoo.com another call for the collaboration with the Commission to
35 develop implementation plans and mobilize domestic resources for the implementation of CESA. This call was
36 re-iterated in 2017 at the Second Ordinary Session of the Specialized Technical Committee on Education, Science
37 and Technology (STC-EST2) in Cairo, Egypt. On the CESA Implementation Platform, Ministers called on
38 Member States and Regional Economic Communities to popularize and organize local launching of the Continental
39 Education Strategy for Africa as Africa's domestication of the global SDG 4 and Education 2030, and reiterated
40 the call for Member States to support the work of the Commission (AUC CESA Journal, 2017).

41 CESA serves as a continuation initiative by the African Union to the Second Decade of Education for Africa
42 which came to its end in 2015. This was a plan of action that span from 2006 to 2015 focusing on gender

2 II. THE CURRENT DIFFICULTIES OF

43 and culture; education management information systems; teacher development; tertiary education; technical and
44 vocational education and training; curriculum, and teaching and learning materials and; quality management
45 ??African Union, 2006).

46 According to the CESA Journal (2017), CESA's content was a result of continental and global discussions on
47 post-2015 development goals. The CESA and its content reflect Africa's contribution to the global Education 2030
48 programmes and constitutes Africa's implementation framework for the United Nation's Sustainable Development
49 Goal number four (SDG 4) on ensuring inclusive and quality education for all (AUC CESA Journal, 2017). The
50 CESA, among other initiatives, complements the SDG 4 especially when taking into consideration the fact that
51 it (SDG 4) is lacking in as far as promoting higher education is concerned. For example, as Teferra (2018) notes,
52 the SDG 4 only barely refers to higher education. It reads: "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and
53 promote lifelong learning opportunities for all" and sets 10 targets of which only two relate to higher education
54 (Teferra, 2018).

55 In the 2017 session of the Specialized Technical Committee on Education, Science and Technology held T
56 in Cairo, Egypt from the 21st-23rd of October, progress made in CESA implementation was recognized and
57 commended. Then, in relation to the implementation, the committee discussed a number of critical issues such
58 as Girls and Women's Education, School Feeding, the Pan African University as well as African Writers and
59 Teacher Development. They also called for establishment of the African Union Teachers' Prize (AUC CESA
60 Journal, 2017).However, according to CESA: "virtually all development players now concur that for meaningful
61 and sustainable economic growth to be achieved, tertiary education must be central to any national development
62 agenda. Countries around the world are striving to build this sector either under pressure, as is the case in Africa,
63 or as a priority in their strategic development plans, as in developed and emerging countries" (Teferra, 2018).

64 The shortfalls with the different projects and initiatives at the continental level, such as the SDG 4 and the
65 Second Decade of Education for Africa, and the need to facilitate implementation of other crucial initiatives such
66 as the Agenda 2063 highlight the significance of the CESA.

67 Heeding to the CESA's call for awareness and collaboration,a gender mainstreaming guideline for CESA was
68 developed by FAWE in collaboration with AU-CIEFFA targeting the elimination of gender bias possibilities
69 in all CESA activities (AUC CESA Journal, 2017). According to Prof. Sarah Anyang Agbor, the African
70 Union Commission, the CESA Indicators manual was finalized by AU-IPED in collaboration with ADEA in
71 2017 and would be available for implementation by the end of the first quarter 2018. The manual provides
72 a harmonized framework against which to benchmark progress of member states tracking the performance of
73 various departments of Education in achieving the objectives of the Continental Education Strategy for Africa.
74 It will also facilitate the strengthening of the continental AU Education Observatory, as the one stop platform
75 for education data of African countries; and make the Observatory a more effectual agent for capacity building
76 and policy analysis of Member States and RECs (CESA 16-25 Indicators Mannual , 2017).

77 2 II. The Current Difficulties of

78 Implementing cesa 16-25

79 The Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) is arguably an ambitious project for Africa which seeks
80 to ensure that her dream for educational development comes to fruition. It, though, is bedeviled by a number of
81 challenges that militate against its successful implementation. According to the CESA 16-25 document, challenges
82 are immanent in all levels of education which are pre-primary, primary, technical and vocational education and
83 training (TVET), secondary, tertiary as well as informal and non-formal education and training and illiteracy.

84 One of the areas which the CESA seeks to address is pre-primary education. This is an important area
85 as it places special emphasis on preparation for school and the child's own knowledge, skills, experiences
86 and other potentialities. Not all schools provide this and in some cases in which they do, they do not
87 have adequate and efficient human and material resources to use for this purpose. Pre-primary education
88 mainly employs play as the mode of learning and the acquisition of positive outlook on life. The CESA
89 (16)(17)(18)(19)(20)(21)(22)(23)(24)(25) document points out that this is one of the key pillars which prop
90 up future learning as well as training. Be that as it may, this important pillar of education is facing a myriad of
91 challenges. A study carried out by Mghase and William (2016) in the Tanzanian pre-primary education revealed
92 that head teachers faced multiple challenges in regard to managing pre-primary education. This means that
93 they lacked essential skills and knowledge that are important in the supervision of pre-primary classes. Such a
94 scenario is cause for concern as these heads will not be able to meaningfully advise subordinates on how to go
95 about their teaching. The CESA ??16-20: 15) document observes that "Many children (in Africa) go to primary
96 school unprepared and thus discontinuities between the home and classroom environments are prevalent." Ideally,
97 the role of preprimary education is to bridge the gap between home and school. In cases where bridging the gap
98 has failed, this could account for poor performance by the children when they finally go into primary school.
99 ??ghase and Williams (2016) proceed to say that, in their study, they noted a marked shortage of resources
100 ranging from classrooms, qualified staff and teaching and learning materials. This Tanzanian situation is only a
101 tip of the iceberg and many countries in Africa are victims to this problem.

102 CESA 16-25 also grapples with the vestiges of colonialism in learning spaces. Years after African countries
103 have become independent, even pre-primary education makes use of foreign language, or the former colonial
104 master's language, as the language of instruction. As CESA ??6-20 (15) notes: "It is very difficult for the child

105 in kindergarten to cope with a new language and structured approaches to teaching and learning". To add on,
106 research has amply demonstrated that children's first language is the optimal language for literacy and learning
107 not only at pre-primary level, but throughout primary school (UNESCO, 2008). When a foreign language is
108 used as the language of instruction, children will not be able to carry out learning tasks successfully and teachers
109 will feel overwhelmed by children's inability to participate, early experiences of school failure, and other related
110 problems. In cases in which they master the foreign language there is the fear that they lose the ability to
111 connect with their African cultural heritage (Ball, 2014). Further, Ball (2014) sheds more light on the effects of
112 using foreign languages for the instruction of children at pre-primary and primary school level when she says
113 that they will be unable to communicate about more than mundane matters with parents and grandparents, and
114 this will account for a depletion of the Africans' repository of languages and dialects and the cultural knowledges
115 that are conveyed through them. For these reasons, the CESA 16-25 identifies Early Childhood Education and
116 Care (ECEC) as the next frontier if Africa is to realize sustained quality education and training.

117 The other challenge that the CESA notes that impinges on pre-primary education is children's readiness to learn
118 in school. Children's readiness for school has changed from a primarily maturational definition to a more socially
119 constructed concept (Gesell and Ames: 1974; Pandis: 2001). According to Murphy and Burns (2002), school
120 readiness is a product of the interaction between the child and different environmental and cultural experiences
121 that increase development outcomes for children. Such an approach is supported by the United Nations World
122 Fit for Children (WFFC) mission statement of 2002 which perceives school readiness as that which promotes a
123 good start in life in a nurturing and safe environment that enables children to survive and be physically healthy,
124 mentally alert, emotionally secure, socially competent and able to learn. This is an all-inclusive statement which,
125 though, remains a pipe dream to most African countries.

126 That most schools in Africa, especially those in SSA, are not ready schools is a major drawback to the
127 implementation of the CESA. This means the school environment and related practices do not foster and support
128 a smooth transition for children into primary school and advance and promote the learning of all children
129 (Mghase & William, 2016). Most families are not ready and they do not focus on parental and caregiver
130 attitudes and involvement in their children's early learning and development and transition to school. More often
131 than not, children are not successful as they lack competence in basic behaviors and abilities including literacy,
132 numeracy, ability to follow directions, working well with other children and engaging in learning activities. On
133 a broader scale, school readiness encompasses physical well-being and motor development, social and emotional
134 development, approaches to learning, language development, and cognition and general knowledge, including
135 mathematics. Also important are attitudes towards learning such as task persistence, attention, creativity,
136 initiative, curiosity and problem solving.

137 What this means is that most schools offering preprimary education are not child-friendly (CFS) (UNESCO,
138 2008) and lack high-quality learning environment that offers appropriate levels of instruction and is safe, secure
139 and inclusive.

140 Finally, child-friendly schools are child-centered and focus on characteristics that are most beneficial for
141 children's holistic development and comprehensive learning. The challenge to the CESA in this regard is that
142 school environments are not child-centered in teaching and learning and that there no health provisions in most
143 instances as schools have not incorporated nutrition, deworming and vaccination programs. Also lacking are
144 hygienic practices which include providing clean water and environments as well as sanitation. Other areas of
145 concern include the use of unsafe and sub-standard places for learning. Punishment, abuse or violence and lack
146 of gender sensitivity predominate and derail the CESA agenda.

147 The CESA is also facing challenges in primary education. This is in spite of the tremendous progress
148 made in terms of access to this level of education in the last two decades. According to the CESA
149 (16)(17)(18)(19)(20)(21)(22)(23)(24)(25) document, the main challenge in primary education is to sustain access
150 while, simultaneously, improving learning outcomes. Although from 1999 to 2012, the adjusted net enrollment
151 ratio leap-frogged from 59% to 79%, there remain some 30 million children who are out of school and need to be
152 brought into the school system.

153 The CESA also faces the problem of qualified and competent teachers. In an attempt to solve this
154 problem, many countries are sacrificing standards and undermining progress by hiring people with little or
155 no training(UNESCO, 2017). The same paper shows that by 2014, at least 93 countries had an acute teacher
156 shortage, and needed to recruit some four million teachers to achieve universal primary education by 2015. The
157 UNESCO policy paper says that if the deadline for ensuring there are sufficiently trained teachers in schools was
158 extended to 2030, it means more than 27 million teachers would have to be hired -24 million of whom will be
159 required to compensate for attrition, according to UIS data. At the current rates, however, about 30% of these
160 93 countries will not be able to meet these needs. Notably, SSA faces the greatest teacher shortage and accounts
161 for two-thirds of the new teachers needed by 2030. What worsens this problem is that there is a steadily growing
162 school-age population.

163 "A quality universal primary education will remain a distant dream for millions of children living in countries
164 without enough trained teachers in classrooms," said Irina Bokova, Director-General of UNESCO. "Teachers are
165 the core of any education system. Some countries, under pressure to fill gaps, have resorted to recruiting teachers
166 who do not have the most basic training. A reading of UIS data indicates that, in one-third of countries with
167 data, fewer than 75% of primary school teachers were trained according to national standards in 2012. In Angola,

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168 Benin, Equatorial Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Senegal and South Sudan, this figure falls below 50%. Resultantly, in
169 about a third of countries in SSA, the GMR shows that the challenge of training existing teachers is greater than
170 that of recruiting new teachers to the profession.

171 The other difficulty that the CESA is confronted with has to do with the teacher-pupil ratio. High teacher:pupil
172 ratios are not working positively in the quest to offer the best learning experiences to the learner (UNESCO, 2014).
173 Countries must ensure that all new teacher candidates have completed at least secondary education. Conversely,
174 the GMR shows that the numbers of those with this qualification in many countries are in short supply: eight
175 countries in sub-Saharan Africa would have to recruit at least 5% of their secondary school graduates into the
176 teaching force by 2020. The problem is acute in Niger which would have to recruit up to 30%.

177 In sub-Saharan Africa, the cost of paying the salaries of the additional teachers required by 2020 totals an
178 extra US\$5.2 billion per year, according to UIS projections, before counting for training, learning materials and
179 school buildings (Hendrik van der Pol, director of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics). Some four countries
180 which are the Central African, Malawi, Mali and Chad will have to increase to a greater degree, their education
181 budgets so to cover the education bills and the costs of training new recruits.

182 TVET in Africa also faces a number of challenges. In spite of this, African countries continue to make spirited
183 efforts to expand TVET training facilities but this appears to be too costly.

184 There is also a discrepancy in TVET access especially for poor people in rural areas. As most TVET institutions
185 are situated in the big cities, such a scenario puts paid to huge barriers to economic and geographical inequalities
186 and also gender inequalities (African Union, 2006).

187 In addition, the current system of education in most African countries is mostly theoretical and lacks the
188 practical element and this can be a challenge in fostering technical skills and enhancing the capability to achieve
189 growth in their economy (Muriithi, 2005). There is no doubt that TVET needs many materials for teaching and
190 learning, especially in the form of specialist equipment and consumable materials and lack of resources is one of
191 the major factors to ineffective TVET system. More to this, most of the available equipment in TVET institutions
192 is not in good working order or directly relevant to the curriculum. The internal efficiency of polytechnics is
193 low and that there is underutilization of facilities and equipment coupled with weak management and ineffective
194 teaching staff. As a result, it is impossible for most graduates to find employment or launch their own businesses,
195 and to work productively (UNESCO-UNEVOC).

196 While great attempts are being made to provide tertiary education in Africa, there are also factors that
197 militate against the successful implementation of this project. According to the CESA 16-25 document, virtually
198 all development players realize that for any meaningful and sustainable economic growth to be realized and
199 sustained there is need for prioritizing tertiary education in the development agenda of nations. However,
200 enrollment figures in universities do not point to encouraging trends.

201 African higher education, at the beginning of the new millennium, faces unprecedented challenges as the
202 demand for access is always increasing, especially in the context of Africa's traditionally low post-secondary
203 attendance levels, but higher education is recognized as a key force for modernization and development. Most
204 of Africa's academic institutions face major barriers in the provision of education, research, and service needed
205 if the continent is to advance. What is clear is that African universities currently operate under very difficult
206 circumstances, which include the social, economic, and political problems facing the continent and in the context
207 of globalization.

208 For Africa to succeed economically, culturally and politically, it must have a strong post-secondary sector and
209 academic institutions are a key element to the future. It is important to note that higher and tertiary education
210 had largely been ignored by national governments and international agencies but there has been the realization
211 that this cannot be ignored as higher education is the key driver to socio-economic development. Africa, a
212 continent with fifty-four countries, has slightly over 620 institutions that fit the definition of a university and
213 by international standards, Africa is the least developed region in terms of higher education institutions and
214 enrollments. Most countries on the continent cannot claim comprehensive academic systems as they have just a
215 few academic institutions and have not yet established the differentiated postsecondary systems required for the
216 information age (Taskforce of Higher Education and Society, 2000).

217 In most African countries, there is a pattern of supply in urban areas and shortage in rural areas and this
218 is strong evidence that the problem of teachers in rural schools will not be solved simply by producing more
219 teachers. Most teachers do not want to work or stay in rural areas due to rampant low salaries, lack of access to
220 professional opportunities and discouraging social isolation (Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2010).

221 In northern Africa, however, the overall trend and state of university education is considerably different from
222 the rest of SSA. Even in the SSA, a few countries, such as Botswana, Namibia, and South Africa have their own
223 unique characteristics. There is diversity in function, quality, orientation, financial support, and other factors in
224 African universities and pronounced differences in national circumstances and realities.

225 The CESA also focuses on informal and nonformal education and training and illiteracy in Africa. This
226 area, too, is experiencing some challenges. According to the CESA document, illiteracy is a major challenge to
227 the adoption of scientific and technological innovations geared towards improvement in agriculture, health and
228 people's livelihoods. Following this, there is needed to stem it so that it does not hamper economic and social
229 progress on the continent.

230 It is not misnomer to say that Africa has the highest number of children, youth and adults who are out of

231 school. According to UNESCO (2015), 6 out of 10 countries with the highest out of school children are from
232 Africa. This translates to very high figures and calls for corrective action to be taken.

233 It has been the practice that non-formal education and training has largely been put in the hands of NGO'S,
234 thus relying on external development resource to expand alternatives for education. Sadly, there is currently
235 a decline in external funding and the picture painted is not at all rosy if African governments do not take a
236 pro-active role in addressing this anomaly.

237 Such a scenario is further worsened by the rapidly increasing population which raises the danger
238 that socio-economic success in Africa may be retarded by a huge population of illiterate people (CESA
239 [16][17][18][19][20][21][22][23][24][25]. Regrettably, only a few countries continentally have been able to embark
240 on massive literacy campaigns that could transform lives on the African continent. It is a sad scenario that
241 community learning centers are still few in number in both rural and urban areas. African cities remain obliged
242 to fully embark on the learning cities initiative in an attempt to put to nought the notion of ignorance conjured
243 by absence of these institutions.

244 If Africa is to move out of the quagmire of failure in her pursuit for excellence, there is a compelling need
245 for these difficulties to be addressed. It is only after these pertinent issues are addressed that one can think
246 of an efficiently and effectively educated Africa taking a significant share of the cake in global socio-economic
247 development.

248 **3 III. Practical Reasons of Implementing the cesa 16 -25**

249 In a recent interview with a French newspaper Le Monde, the chief economist of the International Monetary
250 Fund, Maurice Obstfeld, asked him how to stimulate the potential of world growth, he replied: "First of all,
251 investing in education, and especially in the younger ones, who will be the next innovators (Obstfeld, 2018). We
252 can do more and better in this field. Our econometric studies show that, even in the poorest countries, education
253 efforts offer real, this also holds true for the United States, and this makes even more sense when it comes to
254 promoting equal opportunities. "This acts as an explanation into the efforts on improvement of education by
255 countries globally, inspiring regional bodies into acting on the best strategies that would be implemented in
256 ensuring that the desired goals in access to quality education are attained.

257 Also for businesses, wherever in the world, education, training and skills are essential to boost investment and
258 productivity, as well as to boost entrepreneurship. A shortage of skilled workers is an obstacle to investment. And
259 without investment, neither wealth nor employment is created. It is therefore a serious and dangerous barrier to
260 human development and inclusive growth. Access to education, training and qualification is still an important
261 factor of freedom and contributes to a better citizenship.

262 Africa and Africans are obviously not an exception to these principles and values. In Africa, too, human
263 development, of which education is a central component, together with health, enables people to participate
264 and benefit from the processes of economic growth. As stated in the African Economic Outlook 2017, the most
265 educated and healthy people tend to have better wages and the same document also points out that the lack
266 of employment is the most pressing challenge for the young population (African Economic Outlook, 2017)

267 On the African continent, a young person is generally three times more likely to be unemployed than an adult
268 (International Labour Organization, 2015). And the African Development Bank (ADB) estimates that half the
269 young population is unemployed or inactive, and 35% are in vulnerable jobs (AfDB, 2016). In addition, the
270 youth unemployment rate increases with the level of schooling, indicating that education systems in Africa are
271 not preparing people for the job market. Young people who have completed tertiary education in Africa are two
272 to three times more likely to be unemployed than those with primary education or less (ILO, 2015), all as stated
273 in the Africa Economic Outlook for 2017.

274 The investment in education in order to fulfill all its potential has to go hand in hand with the creation of
275 career and career guidance processes throughout all schooling and working life. Developing career management
276 skills, self-awareness of interests and motivations, understanding how these interests relate to professions and
277 careers are essential soft skills for investment in education to reach its highest potential in Africa. Companies
278 play an essential role in this process, pointing out the skills and qualifications they will need, and acting in
279 coordination with the education system in offering training possibilities in a practical context.

280 Pre-primary education has taken more account in recent times, and while progress is being made in some
281 areas, early learning of children is often neglected, putting millions of children at a disadvantage before they even
282 begin primary school.

283 World leaders recognized the key role that the early years play in tackling inequality by agreeing to a crucial
284 target within the Sustainable Development Goals (ODS), they agreed that by 2030 they will ensure that all girls
285 and boys have access to quality pre-school education, in order to serve as a preparation for primary education.

286 According to State of Education in Africa Report (SEAR) (2015), "In 2012, 184 million children were enrolled
287 in pre-primary education worldwide. Nearly 11 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education in sub-
288 Saharan Africa in 2008. Globally, 8 of the 10 countries with the lowest pre-primary net enrollment rates are in
289 sub-Saharan Africa. In sub-Saharan Africa, only seven countries achieved the gross enrollment ratio target of 80
290 percent or more students enrolled in preprimary education programs. Yet, enrollment in preprimary education
291 programs is expanding throughout Africa. Enrollment rose by almost two and half times between 1999 and 2012.

7 A) HIGHER EDUCATION PAN-AFRICANIZATION (THROUGH PAN AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES)

292 On average, only 20 percent of young children in Africa were enrolled in pre-primary programs in 2012”(State of
293 Education in Africa ??eport, 2015).

294 This demonstrates that African countries have to invest more in pre-school education, increasing the material
295 and economic resources for their development, as well as the quality of education, in order to make preschool
296 education free and compulsory for all the children and pay special attention to the children who need help.

297 In relation to primary education, in SEAR (2015) affirms that between 1990 and 2012, the Africa region has
298 experienced an impressive increase in the number of children enrolled in primary schools, from 62 million to
299 149 million children. And another positive achievement is that in sub-Saharan Africa, since 2000, 15 countries
300 have abolished the schools fees, which gives the children more possibilities to frequent schools, but in other hand
301 no African country has achieved universal primary education, and in the world in 2012, 58 million children of
302 primary school age were out of schools, and 38 million children of that number were in Africa, and half of all
303 out-of-school children in Africa will never go to school.

304 According to SEAR (2015), “in sub-Saharan Africa achieved the greatest gains in secondary education
305 participation compared to all other regions of the world between 1999 and 2012. Worldwide, there were 552
306 million youth enrolled in secondary schools in 2012. Some 49 million secondary students resided in Africa. After
307 graduating from primary school, many students are finding it difficult to attend secondary schools close to home.
308 Across Africa, secondary schools can accommodate only 36 percent of qualifying secondary students. Young
309 people living in rural communities are more likely to have limited access to secondary education compared to
310 youth in urban areas. Seven out of ten rural youths have never attended school” (p.8).

311 Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is extremely important as it offers an opportunity
312 for professional development, which enhances Africa’s global competitiveness and the creation of new decent jobs,
313 and helps strengthen the workforce. In 2012 in Africa just 6 percent of secondary schools were enrollment in
314 TVET programs, 2 to 6 percent of educational budgets are devoted to develop TVET skills (State of Education
315 in Africa Report, 2015).

316 According to a report in the Word Development Report, 2018, entitled Learning to Realize Education’s
317 Promise, explains that low-income and developing countries are most affected by the global learning crisis.
318 In low-income countries, less than 5% of students in late high school score above the minimum proficiency level
319 for reading. This is at 14% for math. In sub-Saharan Africa, less than 7% of high school students are proficient
320 in reading, compared to 14% in math. The report also explains that school attendance is not a problem in
321 sub-Saharan Africa, but learning gaps remain high (Word Development Report, 2018). Many children are not
322 well prepared to learn due to illness, malnutrition and other social problems affecting the region. The quality
323 of teaching is poor because some teachers are not particularly well-educated. Another problem affecting sub-
324 Saharan Africa is the absence of teachers. The variable classroom absence combines absences from school with
325 absences of class among the teachers who are in school. For example, in Kenya, the difference between the two
326 variables shows that 32% of teachers enter school without attending classes. The report suggests that teachers’
327 absence can be attributed to low wages -teachers often have to take on secondary jobs to support themselves.
328 In addition, in addition to teaching, many teachers find themselves dealing with administrative tasks that are
329 normally outside their area of work due to the lack of staff in schools.

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332 In general, education in Africa has developed over the years as statistics show, but education in Africa is still
333 facing major difficulties today, there will still be insufficient numbers completing secondary school, especially
334 girls, and very few post-secondary institutions and posts available to high school graduates. Currently, only
335 30% of African girls complete secondary education there are places in the mainland university for only 6% of all
336 eligible secondary school graduates.

337 6 IV. The Experiences and Lessons of

338 Implementing cesa 16 -25 Since its inception by the African Union, some strides have been attained in the
339 CESA 16 -25’s implementation across the continent. Nearly two years after the adoption of CESA 16-25, African
340 countries are at different stages of progress in integrating/ mainstreaming the internationally and regionally
341 agreed targets and commitments into their national education policies, plans and practices (PACE, 2018).

342 7 a) Higher Education Pan-Africanization (through Pan 343 African universities)

344 In the efforts to enhance education that is relevant to the continent’s needs, the CESA has a special focus on
345 higher education, propagating for the advancement of Pan African centres of excellence. The implementation of
346 the CESA with this aspect has been noticeable, although not at a satisfying level. It has seen the birth of Pan
347 African University (PAU) institutes in selected countries representing different regions on the continent. The
348 PAU Institutes in four of Africa’s five regions are embedded within existing universities of excellence in those
349 regions. The first one is the PAU Institute for Water and Energy Sciences (including Climate Change (PAUWES)

350 which is hosted at Abou Bekr Belkaid University of Tlemcen in Algeria (Northern Africa). This is followed by the
351 PAU Institute of Life and Earth Sciences (including Health and Agriculture, PAULESI) hosted by the University
352 of Ibadan in Nigeria (Western Africa). Third is the PAU Institute for Basic Sciences, Technology and Innovation
353 (PAUSTI) which is in Kenya (Eastern Africa). The fourth one is the PAU Institute for Basic Sciences hosted
354 at the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in Kenya again. The last of the institutes is
355 the PAU Institute for Governance, Humanities and Social Sciences (PAUGHSS) at University of Yaounde II in
356 Cameroon (Central Africa)(AUC CESA Journal, 2017). PAU's fifth thematic institute, on Space Sciences, will be
357 hosted by South Africa and is expected to be operationalized this year (2018). The Institute for Space Sciences
358 (PAUSS) will be based at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology and a consortium of eight universities in
359 South Africa. Its existence sees coverage of all the five regions of the continent which form the continental layout
360 of the Pan African University (AUC CESA Journal, 2017).

361 The Pan African University offers full scholarships to all students enrolled into its programs with calls for
362 scholarship applications issued and widely disseminated by the Rectorate and students apply online for a wider
363 outreach. The Pan African University is already contributing to the integration of the African Continent through
364 extra language courses in all the institutes and consolidated courses on the History of Africa plus Gender and
365 Human Rights, across all programs (Khadija, 2018).

366 However, there are still numerous challenges in the collection, compilation and analysis of statistical data in
367 higher education sub sector in particular at institutional level in Africa (African Development Bank, 2017). For
368 example, "only 2 out of 23 countries (i.e. Ghana and Seychelles) in Sub-Saharan Africa completed the Higher and
369 Tertiary Education questionnaire to UNESCO Institute for Statistics in 2015" (African Development Bank, 2017).
370 Experts in higher education have bemoaned the coordination of the fragmented and parallel systems in place
371 as one of the biggest challenges in many countries: the monitoring of education systems is the responsibility of
372 multiple ministries, agencies and departments across different levels of government (African Development Bank,
373 2017). There is also a lack of clear and comprehensive indicators to underpin the monitoring and evaluation
374 framework for the Higher Education sector. Unfortunately, these are the indicators that are critical for tracking
375 the implementation of the Continental Education Strategy for Africa 2016-2025 (CESA 16-25), Africa's Agenda
376 2063 and the 2030 Global Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), in particular SDG 4 on "Quality
377 Education" (African Development Bank, 2017). This signifies little progress in the implementation of the CESA
378 16 -25 specifically with regards to higher education pillar.

379 8 b) Gender Equality in Education

380 One of the initiatives contained in the CESA 16 -25 is the effort to achieve equality between boys and girls
381 in terms of access to education. although there have been various initiatives targeting the reduction of gender
382 parity in terms of access to education, even within the CESA's initiatives the results have not been satisfying. For
383 example, in the Pan African Universities, as of 2017, the total number of female graduates stood at thirty percent
384 (30%) of the total graduating students (AUC CESA Journal, 2017). Doroba (2017) observes that despite various
385 African governments developing policies in response to the CESA 16 -25 among other initiatives, implementation
386 is still neglected. The implementation process is often compromised or inconsistent. This is often linked to
387 among other factors: lack of policy awareness and understanding by the key implementers at the national and
388 community levels; minimal consultation with the beneficiaries of the policies; and lack of data depicting the
389 impact of the policies on the ground (Doroba, 2017). The limited resource allocation to support the policy
390 implementation process and the lack of political will among government leaders further leads to the shelving of
391 these key yardsticks for progress (Doroba, 2017).

392 Despite the numerous efforts in inventing policies that are centered on equal access to education, reports show
393 that the number of out-of-school children in Africa continues to soar. For instance, a 2016 UNESCO report
394 shows that about 264 million children and youth are out of school, with a majority of these coming from sub-
395 Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2017). According to the report, girls are still more disadvantaged than boys by a
396 wider margin: Girls are more likely than boys to never set foot in a classroom despite all the efforts and progress
397 made over the past two decades. According to the UIS data, 9 million of the 15 million adolescent girls who will
398 never get the chance to learn to read or write in primary school, live in sub-Saharan Africa.(UNESCO, 2017)
399 However, there are still a few instances of progress and success in the implementation of the CESA 16 -25 goals
400 related to gender equality in some countries. In The Gambia for example, the development and implementation
401 of education policy 2016-2030 is bridging the discrepancy in access to education for both girls and boys (Doroba,
402 2017). Doroba (2017) further notes that Gambia's Education Sector Policy 2016-2030 is the first sector-wide
403 policy in the country written after the separation of the portfolio of Higher Education from Basic and Secondary,
404 which saw the creation of a ministry responsible for higher education, research, science and technology and the
405 repositioning of the former Ministry of Education to focus on basic and secondary education matters. "As a
406 result of the changes, gender parity in the Gambia's classrooms is now almost at par. Currently, more students
407 are enrolling for health and agriculture studies but the Ministry is also promoting engineering courses to young
408 ladies." (Doroba, 2017).

409 9 c) Collaboration between AU and NGO for CESA

410 The call for collaboration by the Heads of State at the summit that saw the launch of the CESA 16 -25 as
411 well as reiterations by ministers of education in follow-up conferences have yielded some positive results in
412 the implementation of the strategy. On the forefront of interventionist programmes aimed at attaining the
413 CESA's objectives has been the Forum for African Women Education (FAWE). For every objective that relates
414 to education, the organization has developed a clearly outlined list of interventionist measures. This has seen
415 FAWE developing 10 different strategic interventionist measures responding to 10 CESA objectives that relate
416 to education(FAWE, 2017). The objectives tackle crucial areas such as revitalizing the teaching profession, ICT
417 education, gender parity and equity in education, infrastructural renovations as well as literacy campaigns among
418 others(AUC CESA Journal, 2017).

419 In each of the CESA clusters -the different categories through which strategic implementations are attained
420 -there is a specific lead partner in collaboration with the African Union. The table below presents some of the
421 CESA 16 -25 cluster information, with each thematic area presented along with the lead partners that are active
422 in collaboration in the given area: During the African Union Summit in January 2016, the African Heads of State
423 decided to adopt a continental strategy on home grown school feeding programmes, to enhance retention rates
424 and performance of children in schools, whilst boosting income generating activities and economic development
425 in local communities (African Union, 2018). This declaration encourages AU member states with operational
426 school feeding programmes to continue their programmatic efforts, while inviting other member states to learn
427 and adapt lessons from those running school feeding programmes.

428 The CESA School Feeding Cluster has been much of a success in a number of countries on the continent. This
429 is mostly the case because its adoption came at a time when there were similar initiatives by other international
430 organizations in collaboration with governments as noted at the 2016 Heads of State Summit where the CESA was
431 launched. For example, in Malawi, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology started the school-feeding
432 program in as early as 1994 with the help of the World Food Program, initially targeting selected schools in 24
433 districts (Kamlongera, 2009). In some countries, the school feeding program has been in place for so long, much
434 earlier than Malawi. For example, Cape Verde introduced its school feeding program in 1979. In September 2010,
435 the Government of Cape Verde took over responsibility for funding and managing the national school feeding
436 program which had been in place since 1979 under the management of WFP(FAO, 2010). The Government
437 requested the United Nations (UN) technical support in specific areas aimed at consolidating and strengthening
438 the gains already made in order to secure continuity of the program. At the time, the project covered 100 percent
439 of public elementary schools, registering a high enrolment rate of 92 percent for the 2007/2008 school year, while
440 supporting the food security and nutrition of students and providing social protection to the most vulnerable
441 families (FAO, 2010).

442 The feeding program has so far been a success. For example, evaluations of the school feeding programmes on
443 the continent show positive and near-immediate impacts on increasing girls' attendance and enrolment rates, even
444 in the absence of specific, gender-related programme objectives(African Union, 2018). And, there are examples of
445 school feeding programmes going beyond simply serving in-school meals to accomplish progress vis-à-vis gender
446 equity, such as distributing Take-home Rations (THR) in Burkina Faso and giving goats (Niger) to highperforming
447 girl students as a way of encouraging girls to stay in school, hiring local women to work as remunerated school
448 caterers (Nigeria), the participation of more women in smallholder cooperative societies that sell to Home-grown
449 School Feeding (HGSF) programmes (various countries), amongst other initiatives (African Union, 2018). The
450 success of the school feeding program mainly results from the fact that there were already working structures
451 for the same before the CESA 16 -25's adoption of the program. This also explains the call for collaboration
452 with various institutions which the CESA has always emphasized on. It demonstrates that for the CESA to be
453 implemented successfully there is need for such collaborated efforts. In recognition of the relevance of the school
454 feeding program in CESA, the XIX Global Child Nutrition Forum in Montreal in 2017 praised the African Union
455 for launching the Implementation Cluster on School Feeding under its Continental Education Strategy for Africa
456 (CESA), acknowledging the importance of global and regional networks such as the Pan-African Network for
457 School Feeding and Nutrition.

458 10 e) TVET and the CESA

459 The Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA [16][17][18][19][20][21][22][23][24][25] prospects of young
460 people in Africa through practical skills development.

461 In line with the CESA's TVET goals, the Malawi Government is registering some progress in its effort to
462 expand provision of improved technical, entrepreneurial, and vocational education and training (TEVET) to its
463 young people by building community technical colleges and community skills development centres in its smaller
464 centres and introducing a harmonized curriculum (PACE, 2018). With technical assistance from UNESCO
465 and funding from the EU, the Skills and Technical Education Programme (STEP) is promoting inclusion by
466 enhancing the image of TVET, providing opportunities for women and girls to try their hand at a trade, and
467 identifying and responding to challenges faced by females in traditionally male occupations. Currently, STEP
468 is informing its work from studies on career guidance and counseling, sexual reproductive health, gender-based
469 violence, and inclusion (PACE, 2018). As reported by the Malawi Government at the 2018 Pan African High-
470 Level Conference on Education in Kenya, the major initiatives that are currently under way in the country

471 include women's apprenticeship programs, support to administrators to reduce cases of gender-based violence in
472 colleges, development of student-orientation materials, training on codes of conduct for instructors etcetera.

473 V. Effective Ways of Implementing cesa 16 -25 CESA 16-25 is aiming to achieve many objectives by 2025 in
474 order to fully reorient African education and training systems towards the achievement of the AU's vision and
475 Agenda 2063. To achieve the goals, strategic objectives have been put in place and they are:

476 1. Revitalize the teaching profession to ensure quality and relevance at all levels 2. Build, rehabilitate,
477 preserve education infrastructure and develop policies that ensure a permanent, healthy and conducive learning
478 environment in all sub-sectors and for all, so as to expand access to quality education 3. Harness the capacity
479 of ICT to improve access, quality and management of education and training systems 4. Ensure acquisition of
480 requisite knowledge and skills as well as improved completion rates at all levels and groups through harmonization
481 processes across all levels for national and regional integration 5. Accelerate processes leading to gender parity
482 and equity 6. Launch comprehensive and effective literacy campaigns across the continent to eradicate illiteracy
483 7. Strengthen the science and math curricula and disseminate scientific knowledge and the culture of science in
484 the African society 8. Expand TVET opportunities at both secondary and tertiary levels and strengthen linkages
485 between the world of work and education and training systems 9. Revitalize and expand tertiary education,
486 research and innovation to address continental challenges and promote global competitiveness 10. Promote peace
487 education and conflict prevention and resolution at all levels of education and for all age groups 11. Build
488 and enhance capacity for data collection, management, analysis, communication, and improve the management
489 of education system as well as the statistic tool, through capacity building for data collection, management,
490 analysis, communication, and usage. 12. Set up a coalition of all education stakeholders to facilitate and support
491 initiatives arising from the implementation of CESA 16-25

492 The objectives have been set but to develop Africa, now actions need to be taken. Some of these objectives
493 can sound vague and monotonous, if we just see them written down and no major action taking place for it to be
494 accomplished. The above mentioned objectives were set in order to bring development to Africa but sometimes
495 we forget that Africa besides the need to be developed needs to be modernized.

496 The better way to achieve or implement CESA through these objectives is to change the mentality of African
497 citizens in all the countries. Right now, many Africans can only perceive themselves as victims. They have first
498 to stop thinking of themselves as beggars in need of charity. In order to change the current perception of Africa
499 and Africans, it would be really helpful if the aid organisations were to wind down and pull out, and the media
500 would do their job properly and portray Africa as it really is, not as a disaster zone full of warlords, dictators,
501 pirates, famine victims and disease. One strategy that African nations should look at is reworking the current
502 model of what constitutes a nation. As it stands, the nations of Africa are largely based on the colonial model
503 which did not take into consideration the various ethnic and religious backgrounds of the local people. When it
504 comes to Education in Africa and trying to change it for the better, the most effective way is not just to change
505 the system or graduate many students.

506 The problem of persistent underdevelopment has only one cause. It is the failure of university education to
507 fulfil the promise to underdeveloped countries that it provides more than technical training. The consistent
508 failure of university education to provide graduates with the ability to perform as effectively as expatriates from
509 the West and from the developed countries of Asia is the single cause of underdevelopment. These countries now
510 have an army of university graduates. Yet, they continue to wait for development to begin at some unknown
511 future date. But a persistently underdeveloped country (PUC) always needs expatriate leadership in much larger
512 numbers than it can afford or tolerate. Underdevelopment is permanent because the need has not been fulfilled.

513 Vikas Pota in his article about How to Fix Education in Africa, he points 3 major steps for this purpose.
514 First, there needs to be a focus on the unglamorous area of vocational training. In South Africa, where half of
515 young people are unemployed, threequarters of companies struggle to fill engineering roles. African governments
516 must work closely with employers to find out where the skills gaps lie. India's experience should be a cautionary
517 tale. The National Skills Development Council there created many trained workers who haven't found demand
518 for their qualifications in the labour market. Employer involvement is how countries such as Germany raised
519 vocational education's standards, filled skills gaps and kept youth unemployment down (Pota, 2015).

520 There are signs that this is beginning to happen. The Go for Gold partnership in South Africa, collaboration
521 between the education department and engineering firms, offers promising students extra school classes and paid
522 work experience (Pota, 2015). In Nigeria, philanthropist Tony Elumelu, who has funded a huge programme to
523 plug the shortage of plumbers, electricians and welders, is working to encourage the government to adopt a more
524 work-based approach to vocational training (Moore, 2017).

525 Second, African schools must harness new technology. Distance learning, in which lessons are livestreamed
526 over the internet, can provide a backstop of quality when teachers' standards vary so wildly (Pota, 2015). The
527 Varkey Foundation operates a distance learning initiative -"Making Ghanaian Girls Great"tailored for girls, who
528 are prone to leaving school prematurely. Lessons are led by a teacher based in a studio in the capital, Accra, that
529 are then fed into classrooms throughout the region (Pota, 2015). A local teacher is present in each classroom to
530 ensure that pupils keep up with the lessons.

531 Third, the energies of the private sector should be set free to assist public education systems (Pota, 2015). It
532 has the resources to scale up quickly, whereas education has to compete with hospitals and roads for straitened

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533 government budgets. Free from direct education ministry micro-management, the private sector also has the
534 ability to innovate.

535 Perhaps one of the reasons behind the implementation of CESA 16-25 resides in the worrying trends in learning
536 achievements as presented in notable reports that majority of learners are not learning ??World Bank, 2018).
537 This problem is prominent in early grade education across the continent. African countries may not have financial
538 and technical capacity to deal with such challenges. In view of this, Africa's traditional donor countries through
539 their development agencies have engaged governments in ensuring that early grade learning is improved. One such
540 initiative is the literacy interventions, which the United States government through United States Agency for
541 International Development (USAID) has partnered with more than thirty-five countries across the continent to
542 strengthen literacy gains in early grade learning. In Malawi for instance, this programme called National Reading
543 Programme (NRP) will run from 2016 to 2020. Through such partnerships, USAID is offering financial as well
544 as technical support in areas of literacy development to build capacity and other technical as well as material
545 supports.

546 Another partnership worth pointing out is that involving aid assistance from the government of China through
547 its African human resource development initiative which intends to give scholarships for African students to study
548 in China in a foreseeable period. African Union has been advertising Chinese government scholarships since 2016
549 and it is expected that 15,000 Africans will benefit from this opportunity in its lifespan (African Union).

550 Lastly, the CESA 16 -25 can best be implemented through strong collaborative efforts between international
551 and local organizations and the different governments on the continent. As noted, there have already been
552 instances of success in several projects such as the school feeding and Pan African University initiatives. This
553 is the case because the strategies were integrated into organizational systemic structures that were already
554 operational. In several African countries for example, the school feeding program has been in existence for
555 decades. The situation is not much different with the existence of universities. As such, when strategies which
556 are in line with work that has already been in existence, it has always been easy to facilitate their successful
557 implementation.

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559 In conclusion, the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (2016 -2025) as introduced by the African Union, if
560 executed well, holds the ability to transform the education of Africa. Through its inclusion at national and regional
561 levels, though it has strategies of implementation targeting a specific period (2016-2025), the progress pertaining
562 to implementation does not necessarily reflect this urgency because it has encountered several challenges. The
563 challenges faced exist at all levels of education. These are the pre-primary, primary, technical and vocational
564 education and training (TVET), secondary, tertiary as well as informal and nonformal education and training
565 and illiteracy.

566 For example, one can deduce from the discourse at hand that at the pre-primary level in many African
567 countries, teachers lack the necessary knowledge and expertise to support high quality preschool education. Lack
568 of other resources such as teaching and learning materials which emanates mostly from lack of commitment by
569 governments and international as well as local organizations also adversely affects education at all the levels.

570 The other main challenge that can be extracted from the discussion on the CESA 26-25 implementation relates
571 to the political and historical context of the continent. Several years after independence, traces of colonialism
572 still exist in the language of instruction with most education systems deploying previous colonial languages as
573 media of instruction. It is the existence of such problems that validate the creation of institutional interventions
574 into the progress and development of Africa through initiatives such as the Pan African University.

575 Pertaining to the challenges encountered in higher education, access has always been a problem, along with
576 other problems such as the provision of education and research which are needed for the proper advancement of
577 the continent. As much as this is the general situation in Africa, it has to be noted that there are some regions on
578 the continent that are better off than others. For example, experiences in education in North Africa are different
579 to the rest of Sub Sahara Africa. In the north, literacy and TVET are far much improved. There is diversity in
580 function, quality, orientation, financial support, and other factors in African universities and other pronounced
581 differences in national circumstances and realities.

582 However, with the existence of several initiatives under the CESA 16-25, the disparities that currently exist
583 primarily between some countries in the north and a majority of countries in the Sub-Saharan region are bound to
584 extinction. This can become a reality if the implementation strategies are made effective. For example, CESA's
585 strategic focus on higher education which resulted to the birth the Pan African University, is already contributing
586 greatly to education on the continent. The initiatives targeting gender equality in education on the continent
587 have also registered success in certain areas. For example, the initiatives' legal dimensions have necessitated the
588 effectiveness of laws and policies in education that target the elimination of disparities. This has been possible
589 with the help of international and local NGOs in partnership with governments. A good example has been
590 FAWE's continued lobby for readmission policies in various countries, targeting teen mothers who remain out of
591 school after pregnancy because the law does not allow them a chance to return. In addition, initiatives such as

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Figure 1:

592 the school feeding projects have been boosted by the systemic obligations of the CESA School Feeding Cluster,
593 rendering it a success in a number of countries. ^{1 2 3}

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