Global Survey on Education in Emergencies

Angola Country Report

Women’s Commission for Refugee Women and Children

December 2003
The Global Survey on Education in Emergencies

The Global Survey on Education in Emergencies is an effort to understand how many refugee, displaced and returnee children and youth have access to education and the nature of the education they receive. As part of the Global Survey, a site visit to Angola was conducted from April 23 to May 4, 2003. Because Angola’s devastating 30 year civil war affected the education system throughout the country, this report reviews the state of education for all Angolans who were affected by the conflict.

Acknowledgements

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“It is time to turn the battle fields into fields of production and knowledge.”

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Angola

On April 4, 2002, the Government of the Republic of Angola (GRA) and the National Union for the Independence of Angola (UNITA) signed a memorandum of understanding that ended over 30 years of conflict. During the war, 500,000 to 1 million Angolans died of war-related causes (ICG 2003; USCR 2003) and over 4.5 million people were displaced (UN 2001; UNHCR 2002a). Large areas of the interior were cut off from government services, and much of the infrastructure was destroyed or abandoned. As many as 7 million landmines were planted (UN 2002a) which severely hinders the country’s ability to rebuild as humanitarian access, trade and agricultural production are limited.

The full impact of the war and almost total neglect of the national education system leave a staggering challenge for Angola’s government, its international partners, local NGOs and communities.

EDUCATION CHALLENGES

- **Low adult literacy**: An estimated 58 percent of the adult population is illiterate (GRA 2002)
- **Limited access**:
  - Approximately 50 percent of Angolans are under the age of 12 (GRA 2002) and more than 70 percent are under age 35 (UNICEF 2002a; IRIN-SA 2001)
  - Shortages of schools and teachers have forced the education system to turn away tens of thousands of registered students (*Teacher/Mail & Guardian* 2001)
  - Some 2 million children and youth do not have access to the formal school system (da Silva cited in *Angola Press* 2003a)
  - Very few children have access to secondary school (GRA 2002; UNDP, IOM, UNICEF, WHO 2002)
- **Poor-quality learning environments**:  
  - High pupil-teacher ratios and a gross lack of teacher training and preparation (UNICEF 2002b)
  - Lack of basic teaching and learning materials
- **Poor results**:
  - Only 27 percent of children that start first grade finish grade four (GRA 2002)

The Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC), UNICEF and multiple international and local NGOs have set up programs to rebuild education infrastructure, train teachers and get children “back to school.” In truth, Angola has never had a legitimate universally available education system, but the promises of independence, peace and international attention may provide the catalyst for its creation. In order to understand the current state
of education in Angola, it is important to review briefly the history and nature of Angola’s civil war.

**Political History**

Citizens of Angola have never enjoyed a fully functioning government that provided basic social services to all its citizens. In fact, the period beginning with Portuguese conquest and leading up to the present day is rife with political, social and economic marginalization of the majority of Angolans. From the 16th to the 19th century, Portuguese forces along the Angolan coast profited from a large slave exporting system, to the extent that Angola became the largest source of slaves for many Western Hemisphere countries, including Brazil and the United States (USDOS 2003). Within Angola, mass forced labor arrangements replaced formal slavery by the end of the 19th century (USDOS 2003) and continued to operate until 1961, when they were prohibited (Collelo 1989).

Under Portuguese rule, immigrants filled most of the public administration posts, controlled trade and ran large plantations. Educational facilities were largely limited to the immigrants and, in 1940, the colonial government declared the education of Africans to be “the exclusive responsibility of missionary personnel” (Collelo 1989).

In 1954, the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA) was founded, and armed struggle between the MPLA and government forces began around 1961 (Goldman 1999). By the late 1960s there were three major opposition groups – the MPLA, the National Front for the Liberation of Angola (FNLA) and the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA). Despite the common goal of ending Portuguese colonial rule, the groups never united. Instead, the armies, which had their bases of support among different ethnic groups, fought against each other in addition to fighting against the Portuguese.

**Independence and civil war**

In 1975, a coup d’etat in Portugal brought a new military government to power that agreed to grant Angola independence and hand over power to a coalition of the three Angolan opposition groups. The coalition broke down within months, however, and before Angola received independence, an all-out civil war began. Portuguese troops abandoned the capital on November 11, 1975 with the vast majority of Portuguese settlers joining them; their departure dramatically reduced the amount of skilled labor within Angola (Oxfam International 2001).

Angola quickly became the stage for a Cold War battleground between the U.S.- and South African-backed FNLA and UNITA, and the Soviet Union- and Cuban-backed MPLA. The MPLA took and retained control of the capital and much of the coast throughout the civil war. In general, these areas remained outside of the actual fighting and were relatively secure – and consequently attracted large numbers of internally displaced persons (IDPs).
The rest of the country was either controlled by UNITA or did not fall under either party’s general protection. As a result, people who lived in these areas experienced conflict and insecurity due to landmines, forced conscription and other human rights abuses. Infrastructure, including roads, bridges and schools, was destroyed, and many people fled either across the border to another country (primarily the Democratic Republic of Congo or Zambia) or to safer areas within Angola. During the war, many rural areas were cut off from both government services and humanitarian assistance. Tragically, as can be seen on a recent map produced by UN OCHA, much of Angola is still inaccessible to the humanitarian community primarily because of the presence of landmines.

The 1990s

In 1991, a peace agreement, the Bicesse Accord, led to democratic elections under the supervision of the United Nations. In 1992, the MPLA won a close race, but the charismatic leader of UNITA, Jonas Savimbi, declared the elections fraudulent and restarted the war. The fighting during 1992-1994 entered the provincial capitals and was reported to be worse than in previous periods. After the end of the Cold War, external support from the competing national superpowers disappeared. As a consequence, the MPLA took on high interest debts and used revenues from offshore oil contracts to finance its war effort, and UNITA financed its efforts with profits from diamond sales. In 1994, the Lusaka Protocol (another peace agreement) was signed and Angola entered into another period of relative peace until 1998, when UNITA again renewed the war.

From 1998 until 2001 the war continued with more brutal fighting. Both sides were accused of committing a variety of human rights abuses, including abduction and forced conscription (Human Rights Watch 2001; Save the Children UK 2002). The respective forces continued to draw on the country’s lucrative natural resources. In the case of the MPLA, this meant a focus on the oil industry to sustain military spending at roughly 20 percent of national gross domestic product and a corresponding explosion in the country’s external debt. As a result, the government provided only minimal levels of support for other government services (ICG 2003). UNITA’s resources, on the other hand, were quickly diminished when the United Nations imposed an embargo on Angola’s diamonds. This restricted UNITA’s ability to sell on the open market and destroyed their profits. As UNITA’s accounts waned, it lost its ability to match the MPLA and switched to guerrilla warfare tactics.

Peace

In February 2002, Joseph Savimbi was killed in combat with government forces. Within months, the MPLA entered into talks with UNITA and a peace agreement was signed in

Areas Open for Humanitarian Activities

Source: UN OCHA March 2003
April 2002. On November 21, 2002 the final components of the Lusaka Protocol were concluded and Angola was announced to be officially at peace.

The impact of over thirty years of civil conflict cannot be overemphasized. Angola ranks 161st out of 173 countries in the Human Development Indicators (UNDP 2002). Average life expectancy, 46 years, is 30 percent lower than most developing countries (GRA 2002). Sixty to 75 percent of the population is “destitute” and lives on less than $1.68 a day (USCR 2002) despite the country’s incredible mineral wealth. In 2002, an estimated 4.35 million Angolans relied on some form of humanitarian assistance to meet their basic requirements (UN 2002b).

For children, Angola remains one of the “worst places to be a child.” Children were greatly affected by the war – approximately one half of Angola’s 4.1 million IDPs were children under the age of 15 (Watchlist 2002) and an estimated 14,000 children under the age of 15 served in the MPLA and UNITA armed forces (Watchlist 2002). The infant mortality rate is 172 out of 1,000 – the second highest in the world (Watchlist 2002), almost half of the country’s children suffer from chronic malnutrition and more than 10,000 Angolan children die each year from measles due to poor immunization coverage (UNICEF 2003a). In addition, less than half of Angola’s children and youth have access to the country’s formal education system and an estimated 30 percent of children between the ages of 5 and 14 must work to survive (INE and UNICEF 2002).

**Brief History of Education in Angola**

At independence, the education system in Angola was barely functional. In 1973, the gross enrollment ratio was estimated at 33 percent (GRA 2000) and illiteracy was between 85 and 90 percent (Collelo 1989). Out of 25,000 primary school teachers, the government estimated that fewer than 2,000 were minimally qualified to teach primary school children. In addition, secondary schools were limited to urban areas and there were only 600 secondary teachers.

After independence, the MPLA, in areas it controlled, focused its efforts on basic education and literacy. As a result, between 1973 and 1977, the number of students in the formal
school system doubled, with over a million children enrolled in primary school and 105,000 in secondary school (Collelo 1989). During the 1979/1980 school year, more than 1.9 million children enrolled in the formal education system (GRA 2000). The government also started a literacy drive aimed at rural areas and the National Literacy Commission reported that the number of literate adults increased from 102,000 in 1977 to one million by 1980. By 1985 the official illiteracy rate had fallen to 31 percent – although U.S. government sources estimated that it remained much higher (around 80 percent) (Collelo 1989).

During the 1980s, increasing civil conflict and decreases in education funding forced the national education system to contract with an average of 1.2 million students enrolled in the second half of the 1980s (GRA 2000).

On the other hand, the four years of relative peace from 1994 to 1998 had little effect on the education system. Between 1990 and 1997, enrollment averaged 1.1 million students (GRA 2000) and did not increase until 1998/99 when it exceeded 1.5 million, but then it dropped sharply to 1.2 million when violence resumed in 1999. By 2001, there were still fewer students enrolled in primary school (approximately 1.6 million) than the 1.9 million children who were registered 20 years earlier (UNDP, et al. 2002).

Educational opportunities under UNITA, on the other hand, depended on UNITA’s control and presence in an area. “In stable, settled towns and bases, … UNITA during the 1980s established a well-structured, comprehensive, compulsory education system, including a system for recruiting and training teachers” (Richardson 2001: 33). This system included UNITA’s own syllabi and teachers used available Portuguese, Angolan government or UNITA text books. Teachers were not paid but rather lived off their own produce and fees collected from students’ parents. During the 1990s materials became scarce and the system deteriorated.

Educational opportunities for children outside of UNITA’s strongholds were significantly limited. Richardson (2001) reported that in times of peace, community and missionary primary schools functioned in some towns and bases – but that these were quickly abandoned as security waned. She also reported that “refugees from smaller towns and villages [in Moxico Province] reported that absolutely no education has been provided in their settlements since 1983, when UNITA took control of the area” (p. 35). Richardson also reported that “none of the Moxican refugees except men aged over 30, and women and children who had grown up on UNITA bases, spoke any Portuguese” (p. 35).

The deterioration in education throughout the country was evident in the 1996 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) carried out by the National Statistics Office and UNICEF. Only 57 percent of women reported that they had ever attended school compared to 82 percent of men, and only 18 percent of women reported that they had passed beyond fourth grade compared to 38 percent of men (INE and UNICEF 1997). The difference between rural and urban areas was also significant – in rural areas 85
percent of the population did not pass beyond fourth grade compared to 53 percent in urban areas (INE and UNICEF 1997).

One of the consequences of low primary school enrollment and completion and a general under-investment in education is illiteracy, which is prevalent in Angola. While it decreased in the 1980s, it held steady and even increased somewhat during the 1990s. It is now estimated to be near 60 percent (GRA 2002). As might be expected, there are large disparities between women and men, and between people in different provinces. Overall, female illiteracy in Angola is estimated to be around 70 percent, compared to 50 percent for men (GRA 2000). Illiteracy is also much higher in rural areas than urban, and in eastern urban areas than western urban areas. It is estimated at 14 percent in Luanda and 12 percent in the Benguela/Lobito corridor, compared to 41 percent in Moxico. While illiteracy decreases significantly in the urban areas, even there it is still much higher for women (23 percent) than for men (six percent) (GRA 2000).

**Education Now**

Clearly a significant investment is required in order to improve Angola’s education system. Thirty years of civil conflict, extremely limited access to the interior provinces, inadequate funding for education, and poor human and resource capacity buildup have created an education crisis – the government is short of schools and qualified teachers, and millions of students are outside the formal system, with limited access to either formal or non-formal opportunities. The situation is worse for IDPs and children in rural areas (GRA 2002; Johannessen 1999).

**Organization of the Angolan Education System**

General basic education in Angola consists of eight years, which is broken into three levels. Level one is compulsory and consists of four classes (grades) and levels two and three consist of two classes (grades) each. Some preschool education is available in larger towns. Secondary education consists of a three-year general track (pre-university) or a four-year technical/vocational track (including teacher education) – both culminate in the Habilitacaos Literarias, or Secondary School Leaving Certificate – which is necessary for application to university studies.

Officially, the school week is 22 hours for the first three grades, 27 for the fourth grade, 28 for Level 2 and 30 for Level 3 through pre-university/secondary school. The use of shifts (different groups/classes of students attending school at different, assigned times during the day)
has become common in some schools, especially in urban areas, because of a shortage of teachers and classroom space. In situations of limited resources and where there is a tremendous demand to get more children into school quickly, the use of shifts is a rational response, but shifts also have a consequence. In Angola, the use of shifts means that children have only 3-4 hours of instruction per day or 15-20 hours per week (UNICEF Girl’s Education in Angola) as opposed to the official 22-27 hours per week. Instead of six hours of math a week, students may have only two or three. This decrease in instructional time contributes to high dropout and repetition rates (see below) and the general inefficiency of Angola’s education system.

**Access to Education**

Angola has signed and ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child and has affirmed its commitment and intention to achieve the Education for All (EFA) goal that states that by 2015 all children will “have access to and complete free compulsory primary education of good quality” (UNESCO 2000) and that gender disparities will have been eliminated. To achieve the EFA goals, the GRA has committed to “create the necessary mechanism that should be essential for full mobilisation of the human, material and financial resources for the execution of this plan [the Angola National Plan of Action for Education for All]” (GRA 2002: 25). In the rest of this section, we consider how far Angola is from achieving *Education for All* and then discuss some of the challenges that must be addressed in order to achieve it.

**How many Angolan children and youth are in school?**

In 2001, there were approximately 1.5 million children and youth enrolled in classes 1-8 of the Angolan school system and approximately 57,000 registered in pre-university or *ensino medio* (i.e., secondary education). In Angola, children are expected to start class one when they are six years old. The graph below shows the 2001 distribution of Angolan children and youth across the eight classes that make up general basic education.
The vast majority (81 percent) of students in the Angolan education system were in the first level (classes 1-4) in 2001. In fact 50 percent of Angola’s pre-secondary students (Levels 1-3) are in either class 1 or class 2. While there are fewer girls than boys enrolled at each grade level, the differential between girls and boys does not increase throughout the primary and middle school years, which is common in many countries. At the secondary level, however, girls are vastly under-represented accounting for only one-third of all registered secondary students in 2000.9

How many children and youth are not in school?

In 2001, the GRA estimated a net primary school enrollment ratio of 54 percent (GRA 2002).10 Roughly, this means that for every primary school-aged child in school, there was another child who was not in school. Using a variety of sources (GRA 2002; UNDP, et al. 2002; UNICEF 2002a), we have estimated the number of children and youth with access to basic education (Levels 1-3) and secondary education in Angola in 2001.

The two charts (at left) show that in 2001 there were over two million children between the ages of 6 and 17 with no access to the formal school system in Angola. Some of these children and youth were involved in non-formal education programs such as those supported by the Norwegian Refugee Council as a “bridge” to help 10-17-year-old children who have missed years of formal schooling re-enter (or enter) the formal system (see below for additional information on this program). Others are enrolled in one of the private schools in Angola, such as those run by various religious organizations. Even with the presence of these other educational opportunities, however, it is likely that over two million children in Angola do not have the opportunity to learn and develop to their full potential.
Adolescents

School age in Angola is roughly considered to be 6-17, though young adults of 20 years or more can be found throughout the system. Youth make up a large percentage of Angola’s population. Around 50 percent of Angolans are under the age of 12 (GRA 2002) and more than 70 percent are under age 35 (UNICEF 2002a; IRIN-SA 2001). As can be seen by the two graphs above, Angola’s 10-17-year-olds are clearly its most disadvantaged school population with the fewest educational opportunities. If Angola is going to solve its literacy and human capacity problems, this group must have access to education in some form.

What form this education should take depends to a great extent on the educational interests and willingness to participate of the youth – many of whom already have adult responsibilities such as the need to support themselves or their families economically or to care for children of their own. Therefore, the educational opportunities for these youth must be varied. Some will want to enroll in and complete formal education while others may want skills training or instruction in basic literacy/numeracy.

Overage Students

One option that must be made widely available is formal education. Even now, Angolan classes are populated by many overage students, as witnessed by the dramatic difference between gross and net enrollment ratios for the first four grades, 81 and 54 percent, respectively (GRA 2002). In addition, the Ministry of Education and Culture reported in 1998 that only 44 percent of students who registered for the first time in class one were 6 years old. The remaining 56 percent ranged in age from 7-14 (GRA 2002).

In response to the needs of the children and youth who have missed years of formal education, the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), UNICEF and the Ministry of Education and Culture work cooperatively to deliver the Teacher Emergency Package (TEP) to older students (10-17) who are entering school for the first time. Older students are provided with smaller classes (maximum 25 students) and more child-centered teaching methodology for a full year of schooling.

At the end of the TEP year, students take an exam. They can either pass into second or third grade or, if they fail, they must start in first grade. In 2002, more than 60 percent of TEP students passed into grades two or three (NRC 2003).

While the number of students who, in effect, must repeat first grade is similar to the number of repeaters in the formal system, the number of students who pass into third grade allows older students to advance more quickly through the formal system.
TEP has been active in Angola since 1995 and has been implemented in 12 provinces. In 2003, TEP was ongoing in ten provinces – Benguela, Bie, Cuando Cubango, Huambo, Huila, Kuanza-Sul, Uige, Luanda, Malange and Moxico. In 2002 there were approximately 20,000 TEP students (42 percent of whom were girls) taught by 812 teachers.

Non-formal education for adolescents

From 1999-2001, the Christian Children’s Fund (CCF) implemented a multi-province program focused on adolescent children which included mobilization and support for local youth groups. It fostered participation and leadership in community-designed projects, peer support through discussion groups and cross-gender discussion of issues such as HIV/AIDS. CCF’s war trauma programming also utilized drama for education and sensitization purposes which furthered the overall program focus on structuring normalizing activities for children and youth.

For 2003, CCF is also planning a reintegration program for war-affected adolescents in Huambo and Bie Provinces that will include a life skills component and some vocational skills training.

Provincial differences

As one would expect, access to educational opportunities varies greatly between and within Angola’s provinces. The government estimates that the coastal provinces, which were reasonably secure for the majority of the war, have the highest enrollment rates – all above 60 percent. The provinces that have been hit the hardest by the war (Huambo, Bie, Uige, Bengo, Cuando Cubango, Malange and Moxico) have gross enrollment rates of less than 40 percent (GRA 2002).

The disparity of educational opportunities becomes more pronounced in the higher grades. On a country level, 43 percent of all enrollments in the second level and 61 percent of enrollments in the third level were in Luanda in 2001. At the secondary level, 43 out of 71 secondary schools were located in the provinces of Luanda, Cabinda, Benguela, Huila and Namibe. Secondary schools in the interior provinces are extremely limited and those that do exist are primarily located in the provincial capitals (GRA 2000).
Girls

There are fewer girls than boys enrolled in school in all grades. In 2001, girls represented 46 percent, 45 percent and 48 percent of the total number of students in Levels 1, 2 and 3, respectively. At the provincial level, however, larger disparities exist. In Moxico province, for example, only 31 percent of the children enrolled in class 1 and only 26 percent in class 5 were girls. In contrast, girls made up 49 percent of the student body in Luanda in class 1 and 48 percent in class 5.

Girls are less likely to go to school for numerous reasons, including fears about their safety, especially if they travel a long distance to school; cultural preferences for boys’ education; and a lack of female teachers (UNICEF Girls’ education in Angola).

Internally displaced

During the war, the government reported estimates of over 4 million displaced people – roughly 50 percent of these were children under the age of 15 (Watchlist 2002). As of April 2003, almost 2 million people were still reported to be “displaced” (UN OCHA 2003) – as the continued existence of landmines and absence of services kept many people from returning to their homes. While most people fled to provincial capitals or to the coast, many IDPs took refuge in camps or transit centers. As of March 2003, there were still 280,000 IDPs living in these places (UN OCHA 2003).

During the war, IDPs in displaced camps had access to schools supported by UNICEF and NGOs. Despite this, many families still did not enroll their children as they depended on their labor for survival. Illness and hunger, along with a lack of qualified teachers, also contributed to the low attendance of IDPs (Birkeland and Gomes, 2001). Outside of camps, access to formal education for displaced children is exceptionally low, as most displaced families cannot afford the unofficial school fees that many teachers require.
Newly accessible areas

With the end of the war and the success of demining operations, remote areas that were inaccessible during the war are opening up. The U.S. Committee for Refugees (2002) quoted relief officials as estimating that possibly 800,000 people living in newly accessible areas had been mostly cut off from government services for many years. USCR (2002) reports that Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) recorded mortality figures “nearly four times greater than what is internationally accepted as the threshold for an emergency” among civilians in these areas. Rapid assessments in newly accessible areas have also revealed that seven out of 10 children did not have access to learning opportunities (UNICEF 2002c).

In 2002, in addition to efforts by the government, UNITA organized provisional primary schools for some 45,000 students and registered 2,300 teachers. UNICEF supported the schools by providing basic didactic material through national NGOs and churches. Unfortunately, the MEC was reluctant to formalize these schools and include the teachers in the national payroll for reasons of cost and because they were unsure of the quality of the teachers. As part of the 2003 “back-to-school” campaign, it is planned that some of these teachers will be integrated into the formal government system.

Ex-combatants and family members

As part of the ceasefire agreement, two types of gathering areas were set up: one for UNITA ex-combatants and the other for their families. The Ministry of Social Affairs and Reintegration (MINARS) oversaw both programs but invited UNICEF and NGOs to assist with services for the family members. People were settled into gathering areas beginning in June 2002. Poor sanitation and inadequate food at demobilization reception areas caused hundreds of deaths, and thousands reportedly abandoned the camps to look for food. An official of the UN Mission in Angola (UNMA) estimated that, at its worst, 10 to 12 rebels died in the camps each day (USCR 2002). The government began phasing out the gathering areas in October 2002. In December 2002, 435,000 people were still living at 38 gathering areas; and in June 2003 the camps were closed, even though a number of ex-UNITA soldiers were still living in them (IRIN-SA 2003).

Child friendly spaces (CFS) were set up in all of the family gathering areas under UNICEF and MINARS. One of the objectives for CFS was to prepare children for formal schools. Children participated in a variety of activities, including supervised games and sports, creative expression and basic literacy and numeracy. Small children were encouraged to work with shapes and colors as well as taught how to use pencils. School-age children were given tutorials according to their skill levels. In general, CFS were open for four hours a day, three days each week for the child activities. The CFS were also used for identification and registration of separated children, and other activities, such as vaccinations and supplemental feeding.

During the Women’s Commission’s field visit, we obtained information on the 33 CFS that were managed by the Christian Children’s Fund in 12 different gathering areas in Bie, Huambo and Benguela provinces. CCF registered 64,640 children (4-18) and reported that 33,022 children (51 percent) participated in learning activities (CCF 2003).
CCF trained 470 camp-based volunteers, many of whom were young adults, to set up and operate the CFS in the 12 gathering areas. Overall, 52 percent of the volunteers were men, though there were large differences between the gathering areas. For example, men made up only 29 percent of the volunteers in Huambo Province but 73 percent in Benguela.

Per our discussions with CCF, children who did not attend the learning activities included children from vulnerable groups (e.g., ex-combatants, abductees, separated children) and adolescents. Although adolescents were included in the target groups, the activities that were implemented were primarily focused on younger children under the age of 12. In addition, many of these children would have been without resources and would more likely have needed to work.

**Refugees and returnees**

During the war, thousands of Angolans fled to neighboring countries. As of September 2002, 186,000 Angolan refugees remained in Zambia, 185,000 in the Democratic Republic of Congo, 23,000 in Namibia, 18,000 in the Republic of Congo, 5,000 in South Africa and 750 in Botswana (UNHCR 2002b). With the end of conflict in most of Angola, refugees began to return, mostly to Moxico, Uige, Zaire and Cuando Cubango Provinces. UNHCR estimated that by March 2003, 120,000 Angolan refugees had repatriated spontaneously (that is, without organized assistance). UNHCR began its assisted repatriation program in June 2003. The goal of the program is to repatriate 150,000 refugees from the DRC and Zambia over a two-year period (UNHCR 2003).
Prior to the end of the conflict, the estimated UNHCR-assisted enrollment figures for Angolan refugees in DRC and Zambia (2001) were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Angolan refugees residing in:</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Estimated school-age (5-17)</th>
<th>Enrolled in UNHCR-assisted education</th>
<th>Estimated percent enrolled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>367,000</td>
<td>122,000</td>
<td>24,974</td>
<td>20 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>285,000</td>
<td>95,000</td>
<td>22,839</td>
<td>24 percent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNHCR 2002a.

When Angolan children and youth repatriate to Angola, they will face at least two obstacles to reintegrating into the Angolan school system. As refugees, many participated in education systems with different accreditation standards, since they followed either the curriculum of the Democratic Republic of Congo or of Zambia. These students may experience a delay in their integration into the Angolan system until their education as refugees is recognized by the government of Angola (UN 2002b).

In addition, many students – some of whom have spent their entire lives outside of Angola – will have difficulty integrating into the Angolan schools because they do not speak Portuguese. UNHCR education guidelines stipulate that the language of instruction for refugees “should be that of the country of origin” (UNHCR 2003b: 11), but this was not always the case for Angolan refugees. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, for example, Angolan refugees followed the francophone national curriculum, which was taught in French (INEE 2002). Refugee schools in Zambia, on the other hand, operated in either English or Portuguese – at times Portuguese was taught as a foreign language (UNHCR 2002c). In some refugee schools, the Zambian curriculum was followed so that students would be able to join Zambian Basic Schools when they reached Grade 5 (JRS n.d.). In 15 of the 20 small community schools supported by JRS, which enrolled approximately 1,000 students, Portuguese is the language of instruction, and for adults who do not speak Portuguese, JRS supports 15 Portuguese language centers in Meheba Camp in Zambia. These community schools and language centers will help ease the transition back to Angola for a few, but many children and adults will have to master a new language – Portuguese – upon their return to Angola.

**Student Achievement**

The goal of every education system is to improve the capacity of its students. At a basic level, the ability to produce literate citizens is key to any society’s development. In general, it is “agreed that at least four years of schooling are necessary for pupils to acquire the basic literacy and numeracy skills needed to become continuous learners. In other words, if a child drops out before entry into Grade 5, he or she will almost certainly regress to illiteracy, assuming literacy has been gained by that time” (UNICEF Education Initiatives: Basic Education). Of course four years of education is the absolute minimum and various factors, including poor school conditions, teacher quality and low attendance can negatively affect a student’s ability to achieve basic literacy. *In Angola, it is*
estimated that only 27 percent of students finish the fourth grade (GRA 2002) whereas in sub-Saharan Africa, 71 percent of pupils, on average, reach fifth grade (GRA 2000).

As noted earlier, only 19 percent of Angolan students are in grades 5-8. The low number of students in these higher primary grades is related both to the limited number of schools (see schools section below) and the poor efficiency (repetition and dropouts) that is inherent throughout the system. Beginning as early as grade 1, approximately 17 percent of students drop out of the Angolan education system. In addition, in 2001 approximately 30 percent of children failed grade 1 and needed to repeat it in 2002. High repetition rates increase the chance that children will ultimately drop out of school and create further access problems for the group of six-year-olds who should begin grade 1 in the following year. As noted above, the decrease in the number of hours that children actually attend school during the year due to the practice of shifting may be one reason for such a high failure rate.

Another reason may relate to both the quantity and quality of teachers in the Angolan system.

**Teachers**

During the war, the teacher population in Angola was greatly depleted—as a result both of conflict-induced displacement and of lack of investment on the part of the Angolan government. Despite overall population growth, the number of teachers in 1995/96 represented only two-thirds of the total number of teachers in 1981 (UNICEF 1999, cited in Johannessen 1999). The shortage of qualified teachers, along with the lack of schools, has forced the Provincial Ministries to turn back tens of thousands of students each year. In 2000, Angola employed 42,310 teachers (41 percent of whom were women) in Level 1; 8,749 (32 percent women) in Level 2 and 5,849 (26 percent women) in Level 3. Although national pupil-teacher ratios are a modest 27:1 for Level 1, 24:1 for Level 2 and 16:1 for Level 3, these numbers are not completely indicative of how many children teachers face in a classroom.
First, the number of teachers officially on the government’s teaching roll may not all be actively teaching. In all countries there are teachers listed on the payroll who are either not full-time teachers or who occupy administrative positions. The teaching roll in many post-conflict countries is also frequently complicated by teachers who:

- are teaching in different areas of the country from where they are registered
- are outside the country as refugees
- have given up teaching
- have died during the conflict

Therefore, it is necessary to review the teaching rolls to determine which teachers are active and where they are presently located in the country, as teacher rosters are frequently a source of corruption. “Ghost” teachers are often present which means that payment goes to someone who is not actually teaching. As Angola proceeds with its efforts to strengthen and enhance its education system, it will be necessary to thoroughly evaluate who is teaching where in the country and to make sure that the teaching rolls accurately reflect this.

The average student-teacher ratio in Angola also masks the fact that student-teacher ratios are lower in rural areas than in the larger cities. Because of the war, the majority of people fled the central provinces of Malange, Bie, Huambo and Cuanza Norte – the provinces that experienced some of the heaviest fighting. Many were displaced and resettled numerous times. It is estimated that 60 percent of the population now resides either in Luanda or in provincial and large municipal centers, compared to only 30 percent 20 years ago (UNICEF 2002d). As would be expected, student-teacher ratios for Level 1 in Luanda (49) and Namibe (43), for example, were higher than the national average in 2000.

Besides student-teacher ratios, other important factors to consider are class size and teacher absenteeism as they generally affect the number of students that the teacher is responsible for in his/her classroom. When teachers are absent and there is a shortage of teachers on the roll, the usual options are not to have a teacher for the day or to combine classes, which adds to already overcrowded conditions. Not surprisingly, in Luanda and
other provincial capitals, class sizes ranging from 60 to 90 are cited as commonplace (UNICEF Girls Education in Angola; Oxfam 2001; Watchlist 2002). It is easy to imagine the difficulty that even the most experienced teacher with a university education would experience with a classroom of 60-90 children of varying ages.

**Teacher quality**

The number of Angolan teachers with a university degree, however, is negligible (less than one percent in 2000). Nationwide reports indicate that many teachers have only completed eighth grade. In Uige province, due to the lack of qualified applicants, local administrators accepted people with only sixth grade education to teach in primary schools (Angola Press 2003d). In addition, in June 2003 the GRA reported that as many as 29,000 Angolan teachers did not have any form of pedagogical training (Angola Press 2003e).

Overall the actual portion of qualified, working teachers – that is those who meet the minimum requirements as set by the GRA – is extremely low. In 1998, the Angolan Ministry of Education and Culture found that only one-half of teachers in Luanda province had adequate skills to teach at their assigned grade level. In other provinces the percentage of unqualified teachers was much higher, with 88 percent of teachers in Cabinda and 93 percent in Huila unqualified. In Cuando-Cubango, none of 421 teachers were listed as qualified (GRA 2002).

Another factor affecting teacher quality and motivation is low and infrequent compensation. This has encouraged absenteeism, “unofficial” school fees and regular strikes.

In recent years, the GRA has increased teacher salaries greatly. In 1999 monthly salaries ranged between US $2 and $20 (Johannessen 1999). The range was changed to $20 to $150 in 2000 (Johannessen 1999); during our interviews we heard estimates of $100 to $150 per month in 2003.

Despite the recent salary increases, however, receiving the salary remains difficult. One NGO worker commented that payments were regularly six to eight months late. In addition, many teachers are still not on the government’s payroll. Teachers who have university or even secondary education often find better paying jobs in the private system or outside of the field. The result is that less qualified teachers, who cannot find better jobs, remain in the classroom.

**Addressing the shortage of qualified teachers**

With at least 2 million children out of school and overcrowded classrooms in urban areas, one of the biggest challenges that Angola faces in terms of providing access to education
for all of its children and youth is its lack of teachers. Assuming that a student-teacher ratio of 35:1-40:1 is desirable under the present circumstances, at a minimum, Angola would need the following number of new teachers to accommodate all of its children and youth:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presently in system</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
<td>57,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-teacher (s:t) ratio of 26:1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of additional students who could be accommodated by existing teachers, if teachers were moved around country. (Note: in practice, this would be a difficult assumption to implement as teachers cannot easily be moved from one place to another.)</td>
<td>495,000 (for s:t ratio of 35:1)</td>
<td>57,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>780,000 (for s:t ratio of 40:1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of additional teachers needed to accommodate the remaining children and youth who would still be out of school</td>
<td>1,505,000 (for s:t ratio of 35)</td>
<td>43,000 (for s:t ratio of 35:1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,220,000 (for s:t ratio of 40)</td>
<td>30,500 (for s:t ratio of 40:1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated annual cost of new teachers, estimated at $2,300 per year</td>
<td></td>
<td>70 to 99 million U.S. dollars per year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP et al. 2002 for students and teachers presently in the system and for estimated annual cost of teachers, including fringe benefits.

As part of its “Back to School” campaign, UNICEF and the Ministry of Education have announced that 29,000 teachers will be trained and added to the government payroll. The government has committed approximately U.S. $40 million for the hiring of these teachers (UNICEF 2003b). In order to train all of these new teachers, most of whom have only basic education skills, UNICEF estimates that it will cost more than U.S. $2 million. To date, UNICEF has received a little more than $500,000 for this effort. Addressing the teacher shortage will require additional funds devoted to education as well as creative strategies for recruiting, hiring and training thousands of new teachers. (See below for more related to funding education in Angola.)

**Teacher training**

Presently the GRA and several NGOs offer various training programs – both pre-service and in-service – for current and potential teachers. The government’s programs are generally two to four years of pre-service training whereas NGOs such as the NRC, Open Society Institute (OSI) and CCF primarily offer in-service training to quickly train new teachers or to improve the teaching skills and knowledge of existing teachers.
Government

The government of Angola currently has four different types of pre-service teacher training programs.

- After sixth grade, students can enter **Centro basico de formacao de professores** – a two-year training course that qualifies graduates to teach the first level of basic education.  

- Students who finish eighth grade can enter **Instituto medio normal de ensino** (IMNE), which serves – along with the Instituto medio technias de ensino – as Angola’s secondary education program. After a four-year program, graduates qualify to teach any of the three basic education levels.

- After completing tenth grade (usually in IMNE), students can attend **Instituto do Magisterio Primario** (IMAP) where, after two years, they can teach all levels of basic education (grades 1-8) and the first two years of secondary education.

- Finally, students who complete 12th grade (including those through IMNE or IMAP) can enter the university-level **Higher Institute of Education Science** (ISCED), which is the highest level of training for teachers that is available in Angola and is required to teach secondary education.

A quick glance at Angola’s various institutional teacher training structures shows a relatively flexible system that offers different and some moderately quick ways for Angola to train its teachers. Unfortunately, the organization of Angola’s secondary school system poses a serious structural problem with regard to teacher training. Because the teacher education schools are a main part of Angola’s very limited secondary system, they attract many individuals who have no intention of teaching but who want to use their degree as a way to gain access to the university level. Therefore, the majority of the system’s graduates do not become teachers (Johannessen 1999).

Another problem with the teacher training institutions is availability. As with the other schools in Angola, the teacher training schools are not widely available, as there are very few institutions and they are located mostly in urban and coastal areas. Also, like other schools, these institutions are often understaffed and under-equipped, which limits availability and reduces quality.
Teachers at Angola’s secondary schools have gone on strike to demand better pay and better equipment and supplies (Angola Press 2000; 2001a; 2002). In Malange province, information obtained by the Provincial Ministry of Education officials indicated a student-teacher ratio of roughly 100:1 for secondary schooling in 2002 (which includes one medio normal institute and one technical institute). Similarly, in April 2003 a medio normal institute in Luanda was reportedly unable to function due to a shortage of 53 teachers (Angola Press 2003f). Part of the reason for the shortage was 24 teachers who had recently stopped working because they were not receiving any salary. Although Angola’s official options for teacher training are well laid out, significant investment – and time—will be needed if these institutions are to train all of the teachers that will be necessary to ensure education for all of Angola’s children.

Development Aid from People to People (ADPP)

Development Aid from People to People (Ajuda de desenvolvimento de povo para povo - ADPP) is a Danish NGO that manages six pre-service, accredited teacher training institutions in five of Angola’s provinces (Huambo, Benguela (2), Cabinda, Luanda and Zaire). These schools – escolas de professores do futuro (ESF) (Schools for the teachers of the future) – provide an additional pre-service teacher training opportunity. The ESF program consists of 18 months of classroom study and practice, followed by an 11-month practicum, and two months of follow-up study and exams. ESFs specifically target students from rural areas who will agree to return home and teach in those areas after they finish the ESF program.

Most of the ESF students are young men (aged 20-22) from the interior provinces and all of them have graduated at least from Standard 10. The cost per student is roughly $3,000 for the entire two-and-a-half-year term. The majority of students receive government scholarships (15 from each province).

The ESF program concentrates on three themes: 1) teaching, 2) community development and 3) study. Students are expected to reach a high level of competence in the subjects that they will later be expected to teach. In addition, they are taught various teaching methods and help teach at local affiliated schools (orphanages) that are also run by ADPP. Students are also required to implement a community development project, which they develop and put into place during their practicum. During the practicum, students usually return to their home provinces to teach a full (11-month) school year. ADPP staff try to visit each student and, to the best of their abilities (depending on remoteness of the student’s post), monitor their progress. Unfortunately, because of the logistical difficulties in traveling to the provinces, some students complete their entire practicum without a monitoring visit.

Unlike GRA teacher training programs, ESFs have achieved a very high rate of success of graduating teachers. Since 1998, 465 teachers have graduated from ESFs (172 in 2002) (ADPP 2002). A 2002 survey carried out by ADPP to track their alumni found that 77 percent were working as teachers, presumably in rural areas. Other students were attending universities, working for ADPP at the ESFs or working at other professions (ADPP 2002).
**Open Society Institute (OSI)**

OSI supports in-service training for teachers, school directors and school inspectors/supervisors. They also train local trainers, who are mostly teachers themselves, who then train other teachers locally. The education delegation of the local municipality identifies participants to take part in the OSI training program. Once identified, these teachers must complete the OSI application process (which includes an exam) before they are admitted to the program – most of them have passed the eighth grade. Since 1998, OSI has trained some 3,607 teachers and 751 headmasters, local inspectors and local trainers.

OSI’s in-service program begins with a 10-day introductory course that follows a module. Trainees then spend three months in the field where they also obtain some monitoring, assessment and continued training by the national or local trainers. After the three months, teachers may participate in another 10-day workshop.

OSI’s goal is to train teachers in a participatory methodology, as teaching in Angola tends to be a very teacher-centered approach. Most trainings have taken place in Luanda, Kwanza Sul and Bengo provinces. In 2002, OSI began training teachers and trainers in Benguela, Mbaza Congo (Zaire) (with Save the Children Norway) and in Uige province (with Jesuit Refugee Service).

OSI has conducted several assessments of their teaching training programs. In general, they have found that the trainings have not been as successful as they would have liked because of the multiple obstacles faced by teachers, including: 1) poor school conditions (physical, e.g., lack of roof, desks, water), 2) the large number of students that teachers face in the classroom and 3) the low and infrequent salaries that teachers receive.

**Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC)**

NRC is responsible for the teacher training component of the Teacher Emergency Package (TEP). New TEP teachers receive a basic six-week introductory course prior to teaching and may also participate in a two-week capacity building course during the year. In addition to the teachers, TEP also employs teacher supervisors who receive an additional two-week training course. Supervisors and education assistants observe TEP teachers’ performance in the classroom and provide feedback and further in-service training as necessary.

In conjunction with UNICEF and the GRA’s “back-to-school” campaign, NRC has also been asked to provide in-service training for some of the 29,000 new teachers scheduled to be hired by the GRA. In May 2003, NRC conducted three-week teacher training courses for the new teachers in Malange and Bie provinces. As the “back-to-school” campaign is expanded into the remaining 16 provinces, NRC will assist with two-week training courses for approximately 20,000 new teachers.
Christian Children’s Fund (CCF)

Christian Children’s Fund (CCF) also supports some in-service teacher training (associated with ADPP). CCF trains staff in psychosocial understanding and responding to children affected by war, child protection and child rights.

Schools

Despite efforts by the Angolan government to rebuild schools, the continuing lack of space is another of Angola’s obstacles to providing access to primary education. The lack of primary schools not only increases the number of children who are denied a place, but through increased class sizes and shortening of school hours (by using shifts) the lack of space has undermined the quality of children’s education.

The school shortage is directly linked to the war and years of under-investment. The Ministry of Education and Culture reported in December 2001 that over 1,000 school buildings were destroyed during the war, while another report indicated 24,000 classrooms had been ruined (Angola Press 2001b). In 1993/94, the total number of schools for six of Angola’s provinces was only 528, a 35 percent decline from 1992/93 (808 schools) (INE and UNICEF 1997). In UNICEF’s 1996 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, the closure of schools was the most common reason cited by parents for children being out of school.

Major efforts by GRA and provincial authorities – supported by many foreign governments (the European Union, Brazil, Japan, Portugal), the UN (UNICEF, UNDP, WFP), NGOs (NRC, OSI) and private companies (Block Zero-affiliated oil companies) over the past few years have led to increased numbers of schools. In 2002, the government reported it had constructed 5,512 new classrooms countrywide (Angola Press 2001a).
In 2003, GRA is active in construction and rehabilitation of schools in Luanda, Malange, Huambo, Bie, Bengo and Lunda-Sul provinces (Angola Press 2003g).

Nevertheless the school crisis in Angola continues. In 2003, tens of thousands of children who registered for school were turned away for lack of classroom space. In Bengo Province, Angola Press reported that only 140 of the 247 schools were functional (Angola Press 2003h). Huambo (Angola Press 2003i) and Kwanza Sul (Angola Press 2003j) provinces also reported turning students away in 2003 because of the shortage of classrooms. Recent estimates suggest that Angola has some 4,500 public schools and 213 private schools (GRA 2002).

Secondary schools

The higher a student progresses in Angola’s education system, the less access to education they have. In 2000 there were a total of 71 public secondary schools in Angola and 37 private secondary schools (GRA 2002). Approximately 32 percent of all secondary schools in the country are located in Luanda province, and several provinces (i.e., Bengo, Cunene, Lunda Norte and Malange) have only two secondary schools (one normal (teacher education) and one technical). The extreme lack of secondary schools ends or puts on hold the education of thousands of those who somehow manage to reach this level.

Addressing the shortage of schools and classrooms

In many areas throughout this report, the issue of lack of schools and classrooms has been cited as a barrier to children’s access to education. While it is certainly true that the GRA and its partners should continue school construction efforts, it is also true that school buildings and permanent classrooms are not essential for children to have access to education. In emergency situations (and Angola is still an emergency situation), children can learn in open-air classrooms, in temporary classrooms or in other buildings such as churches or mosques or anywhere else where they will be safe and in the care of their...
teachers. If the priority is getting children into “school” quickly, the GRA must consider all available options and not refuse children their right to education simply because there are not enough physical classrooms.

Eventually, however, Angola will need enough schools and classrooms for the entire student population. Therefore, efforts at school construction and rehabilitation must continue. A school mapping exercise will be essential in order to assess the condition of existing schools and the location of schools throughout the country. Recent information provided by the Angolan National Institute of Statistics indicates that there are approximately 4,500 primary schools and 17,320 classrooms in Angola. If we use the target of 35-40 children in a classroom, Angola needs another 12,000-25,000 classrooms just to accommodate the 1.5 million children who are already enrolled in Levels 1-3. To accommodate the 2 million children and youth who are out of school, an additional 50,000-57,000 classrooms will be required, if schools operate on a single shift basis.

Currently, many of the overcrowded schools in Angola operate three shifts per day. As discussed above, the reduction in students’ hours of instruction likely has a significant impact on what and how much they learn during the school year. Therefore, the use of shifts must be considered not only in relation to space constraints but in relation to children’s learning as well. Angola needs a transitional strategy to move all schools toward the official policy related to hours of instruction. During the transition, it is likely that double shifts will be required for quite some time as this would still require the construction of approximately 32,000-40,000 new classrooms throughout the country. In the meantime, communities should use whatever space is available to them in order to ensure their children have the opportunity to go to school.

Public Expenditures in Angola – Is Education for All Achievable?

The challenge of meeting Education for All by 2015 is immense in Angola – more than 30,000 additional trained teachers must be added to the roll at an estimated annual cost of U.S. $70-99 million and more than 30,000 learning spaces must be made available. Is this achievable? Does Angola have the resources to provide education for all of its citizens?

Up to this point, Angola has clearly neglected the education of its citizens. From 1997-2001, Angola had the lowest average percentage (4.7 percent) of public expenditures in the education sector of all the SADC countries (16.7 percent) (UNDP, et al. 2002; GRA 2002). In 2001, Angola’s national education budget was approximately U.S. $281 million (or 6.4 percent of the IMF-calculated total expenditures of the government of Angola (UNDP, et al. 2002). The 2001 budget was allocated as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percent of budget – for Levels 1-3</th>
<th>Percent of budget overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salaries and benefits</td>
<td>90 percent</td>
<td>60 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goods and services (including teaching and learning materials)</td>
<td>3 percent</td>
<td>17 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital investments (such as construction of new schools and classrooms)</td>
<td>5 percent</td>
<td>6 percent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


If the budget for education in Angola had been based on the SADC average (16.7 percent of total expenditures), the education budget in 2002 would have been U.S. $733 million – U.S. $452 million more than it actually was. With even half that increase, Angola would have the resources to pay for all of its teachers and construct the necessary schools and classrooms in order to provide free primary education for all of Angola’s children.

**Role of the International Community**

Knowledge of the government’s vast economic resources and concern over government corruption have made many donors reluctant to provide assistance to Angola. Given the above very rough calculations, this reluctance is easy to understand. On the other hand, today in Angola over 2 million children do not have access to education in any form and almost 60 percent of the adult population cannot read or write. In addition, after more than 30 years of civil war, Angola has many other pressing problems such as revitalizing its health sector in order to provide basic health services to all of its citizens and decrease infant mortality; providing safe drinking water throughout the country; rebuilding the country’s infrastructure and revitalizing the country’s economic base, including its agricultural productivity which depends in part on major demining operations. The reconstruction of Angola is an immense task – one that does merit the support and involvement of the international community.

Unfortunately, the international community has not invested much in Angola’s education system. The revised 2003 Consolidated Inter-agency Appeal for Angola included education appeals of more than U.S. $10 million. Of this amount, slightly more than $500,000 – or only five percent – was received. Possible roles for the international community include the following:

- Continue to pressure the Angolan government and the oil companies to fully disclose all oil revenues and include them in the budget
- Continue to advocate for an increase in Angola’s education budget as a percentage of the total budget
- Provide direct support to the education sector in the form of:
  - teacher training
o provision of supplies, teaching and learning materials
o support to school construction efforts
o continued advocacy related to timely payment of teacher salaries and inclusion of all teachers on the government payroll
o provision of non-formal education opportunities to adolescents, such as skills and/or literacy training

With a concerted effort on the part of both the government of Angola and the international community, Angola can achieve education for all.
References


Richardson, Anna. 2001. Children Living with UNITA. A report prepared for UNICEF.


Endnotes

1 This report is a summary of information collected from various government offices, nongovernmental organizations and press reports. Information was supplemented by a visit to Angola in April/May of 2003 where the authors met with representatives from numerous NGOs, UN agencies and the government Ministry of Education and Culture.

2 Despite the cessation of war between MPLA and UNITA forces, the Front for the Liberation of the Cabinda Enclave (FLEC) continues an insurgency in the northern province of Cabinda (ICG 2003).

3 Since 1975 the population of Luanda has burgeoned from 700,000 people to an estimated 3 million (Radio Netherlands 2002).

4 In 1999, UNICEF called Angola “the worst place to be a child” based on various factors, including under-five mortality, malnutrition and school attendance.

5 In addition to the government (MPLA) system, UNITA oversaw a formal school system, which in the 1980s consisted of 1,000 schools, 5,000 teachers and 200,000 children in the areas under UNITA control – mostly in the southeast of Angola (Collelo 1989).

6 Richardson (2001) describes three zones of UNITA’s governance: the internal zone, the tax zone and the pillage zone. The interior zone was composed of individuals who, voluntarily or otherwise, were integrated into UNITA’s party structure. The tax zone consisted of rural areas under UNITA control that were never touched by the MPLA and hosted mostly peasant farmers that provided food, labor and members to the UNITA party. Finally, the pillage zone was made up of former tax zones where MPLA military or administration had reached and so were no longer seen as part of UNITA’s domain and responsibility (regarding services and protection) and thus subject to pillaging by UNITA.

7 Beginning in 2004, the system will be changed to consist of six years of primary education and six to seven years of secondary education. Secondary education will be divided into two cycles of three years each for the general track and three and four years for the technical/vocational track.

8 Unpublished Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) statistics.

9 Unpublished MEC statistics.

10 The net enrollment ratio represents the number of primary age children (aged 6-9) enrolled in primary school as a percentage of all primary age children.

11 The gross enrollment ratio for the first four grades is calculated as the total number of children in those grades divided by the number of children aged 6-9 (i.e., those that would be attending if they were progressing through the school system according to plan). The net enrollment ratio for the first four grades represents the total number of children aged 6-9 in those grades divided by the total number of children aged 6-9. The gross enrollment ratio is greater than the net enrollment ratio when over-age children are enrolled.

12 Unpublished MEC statistics.

13 Unpublished MEC statistics.

14 It is important to note the difference between girls’ enrollment as a percent of total enrollment and girls’ gross enrollment in primary and/or secondary school. While the percent girls’ enrollment can serve as a quick proxy indicator of gross enrollment, it is not the same unless the demographic distribution of boys and girls in a society is exactly equal to 50 percent. Since we do not have gross or net enrollment ratios by
gender, we are using the percentage girls’ enrollment as a signal of whether girls are under-represented in the Angolan school system. At the provincial level, this is surely the case.

15 Unpublished MEC statistics.

16 Beginning ages ranged from 2-5 in the different camps.

17 CCF also trained volunteers working for other agencies in other gathering areas.

18 Unpublished MEC statistics.

19 During the war, children’s hours of instruction each year were also affected by the intensity of the conflict. During active conflict periods, it is most likely that children were not able to attend school for the standard number of hours. Also, when families migrated, children’s schooling would have been disrupted for long periods.

20 Unpublished MEC statistics.

21 This was corroborated by unpublished MEC statistics which indicate that approximately 40 percent of Level 1-3 teachers had eight years of education or less. This is especially the case for the Level 1 teachers, 53 percent of whom have eight years or less of education.

22 Angola Press reports teacher strikes in each of the last three years (e.g., 8/8/00, 8/28/01 and 10/14/02).

23 These schools are scheduled to be phased out as planned changes in the education system are implemented. One planned change is to make completion of ninth grade education compulsory for teachers of all levels.

24 At the ESF we visited in Bengo, there was only one female student, for example.

25 Interview with OSI, May 2003.

26 Unpublished MEC statistics.

27 Unpublished MEC statistics.