Textbooks and School Library Provision in Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa
Textbooks and School Library Provision in Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa

Secondary Education in Africa (SEIA)
Africa Region Human Development Department

THE WORLD BANK
Washington, D.C.
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Foreword

Many African countries are undertaking important economic reforms, improving macroeconomic management, liberalizing markets and trade, and widening the space for private sector activity. Where such reforms have been sustained they produced economic growth and reduced poverty. However, Africa still faces serious development challenges in human development, notably in post-primary education. The World Bank incorporated this within its Africa Action Plan (AAP) by underscoring the fundamental importance of expanding not only primary but also secondary and higher education, and linking it to employment options for African youth.

The Education for All-Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) involves over 30 bilateral and international agencies and has made important strides. In the coming years, the key challenges are to consolidate progress towards universal primary education and expand secondary school access in response to economic and social demands. Secondary education and training are prerequisites for increased economic growth and social development. It promotes productive citizenship and healthy living for young adolescents. To be competitive labor markets in Africa need more graduates with “modern knowledge and better skills.” Asia and Latin America have shown these trends convincingly. However, expansion of post-primary education services while simultaneously improving its quality will require African countries to deliver these services more efficiently. Adoption of “innovative and best practices” from other Regions can help.

The “Secondary Education In Africa (SEIA)” study is part of the Africa Human Development Program that supports the Region’s Africa Action Plan. Its objective is to assist countries to develop sustainable strategies for expansion and quality improvement in secondary education. The study program produced eight thematic studies, and additional papers, which were discussed at the regional SEIA conferences in which 38 countries and all major development partners participated (Uganda 2003; Senegal 2005; Ghana 2007). The SEIA Synthesis Report (2007) is a summary overview and discussion of all studies. All SEIA studies were produced with the help of national country teams and international institutions for which financial trust fund support is gratefully acknowledged. Study reports are available on the SEIA website: www.worldbank.org/afr/seia.

This study is about secondary textbook and school library provision in Sub-Saharan Africa. It is based on research in Botswana, Cameroon, Cote d’Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Togo, existing recent country reports on textbook provision, and extensive desk research. There are considerable variations in Sub-Saharan African textbook requirements that are needed to meet secondary curriculum specifications. Also, there are significant differentials between and within countries in regards to the average price of recommended textbooks. Some countries do not have an approved textbooks list. This study discusses secondary textbook and school library availability in Africa, its cost and financing, and its distribution and publishing. The study objective is to analyze the issues and provide some options and strategies for improvement. I hope this report will make a timely and useful contribution.

Jacob Bregman
Lead Education Specialist and SEIA Task Team Leader
Africa Region Human Development (AFTHD)
The World Bank
Acknowledgments

The editorial team would like to express thanks and to acknowledge the contributions of the nine country contributors who provided much of the core data on which this research study is based. All are leading African secondary school publishers, booksellers or African educationists with a deep knowledge of their own national school systems. They not only undertook local research into current secondary school textbook and school library provision in their own countries but also provided fast and detailed responses to a wide range of follow-up queries as well.

Additionally, a number of leading African, UK, and French publishers submitted to semi-structured interviews on their views and experiences of secondary school textbooks and libraries in sub-Saharan Africa. Brian Jones of Evans Bros, Kern Roberts and Jenny Pares of Pearson, and Deborah Brierley and Rachel Arumugam of Harcourt were particularly helpful.

Vincent Bontoux took responsibility for research into francophone secondary textbook experiences. Amanda Buchan concentrated on secondary school library provision, David Foster on textbook requirements and textbook costs and affordability and Tania Bapuji researched distribution issues and undertook the web searches for relevant reports, project information and other required data. Thanks are also due to Dr. Rod Hicks for providing up-to-date information on secondary textbooks and school libraries in Somalia and to Andy Smart for providing the same for Ethiopia.

This paper was commissioned as part of the SEIA Study Program by the Human Development Department of the Africa Region (AFTHD) of the World Bank. Adriaan Verspoor (Senior Education Consultant) and Jacob Bregman (Lead Education Specialist, SEIA Team Leader, AFTHD) provided a great deal of helpful background information, support and guidance and a large dose of patience as well.
# Abbreviations

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABC</td>
<td>African Books Collective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADEA</td>
<td>Association for the Development of Education in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFCLIST</td>
<td>African Forum for Children’s Literacy in Science &amp; Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIF</td>
<td>Agence Internationale de la Francophonie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AKF</td>
<td>Aga Khan Foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APMLCI</td>
<td>Association for the Promotion of the Book Trade in Côte d’Ivoire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APE</td>
<td>Parents and Teachers Association (in francophone countries)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APNET</td>
<td>African Publishers Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASAL</td>
<td>Arid &amp; Semi-Arid Lands (in Kenya)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSP</td>
<td>African Social Science Programme (a U.S. initiative of the 1960s and 1970s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAM</td>
<td>Booksellers Association of Malawi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBC</td>
<td>Botswana Book Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BDCU</td>
<td>Book Development Council of Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEPS</td>
<td>Basic Education Policy Support (a USAID-funded project in Uganda)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BGL</td>
<td>Bureau of Ghana Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BNLS</td>
<td>Botswana National Library Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BODECU</td>
<td>Book Development Council of Uganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOG</td>
<td>Board of Governors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOPIA</td>
<td>Botswana Publishing Industry Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPAM</td>
<td>Book Publishers Association of Malawi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSBS</td>
<td>Book Scheme for Basic Schools (a DFID project in Ghana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAFED</td>
<td>Centre Africain de Formation à l’Édition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDD</td>
<td>Curriculum Development Division (of MoE in Botswana)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDSS</td>
<td>Community Day Secondary School (in Malawi)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEDA</td>
<td>Centre de Distribution et d’Éditions Africain (Côte d’Ivoire)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEPER</td>
<td>Centre d’Édition pour l’Enseignement et la Recherche (Cameroon)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF</td>
<td>Coopération française</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>Communauté française d’Afrique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFO</td>
<td>Chief Financial Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIDA</td>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIS</td>
<td>Chief Inspector of Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLAIM</td>
<td>Christian Literature Association in Malawi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COD</td>
<td>Cash on Delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMESA</td>
<td>Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRDD</td>
<td>Curriculum Research and Development Department (of the MoE in Ghana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>Conventional Secondary School (Malawi)</td>
</tr>
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<td>CUP</td>
<td>Chancellor University Press (Malawi)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CWO</td>
<td>Cash with Order</td>
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<td>DANIDA</td>
<td>Danish International Development Agency</td>
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<td>DDP</td>
<td>District Development Project</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>Distance Education Centre (Malawi, now replaced by CDSS)</td>
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<td>DEO</td>
<td>District Education Office(r)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DIMP</td>
<td>Decentralised Instructional Materials Procurement (Uganda)</td>
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<td>DIMPPP</td>
<td>Decentralised Instructional Materials Procurement Pilot Project (Uganda)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development (of the British Government)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOE</td>
<td>Director of Education (Kenya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DSE</td>
<td>Danish Support to Education (Danida pilot project in Malawi)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DSPS</td>
<td>Danish Support to Primary and Secondary (Danida project in Malawi)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DTP</td>
<td>Desk Top Publishing</td>
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<td>DUP</td>
<td>Dar es Salaam University Press</td>
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<tr>
<td>EACT</td>
<td>East African Co-operation Treaty</td>
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<td>EALB</td>
<td>East African Literature Bureau (defunct since 1970)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EAPH</td>
<td>East Africa Publishing House (Kenya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early Childhood Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
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<td>EdSAC</td>
<td>Education Sector Adjustment Credit (Ghana and Kenya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFAG</td>
<td>Education Funding Agencies Group (Uganda)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMAC</td>
<td>Educational Materials Approval Committee (Tanzania)</td>
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<td>EMAS</td>
<td>Educational Methods and Advisory Service (of the MoESC in Malawi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIS</td>
<td>Education Management Information System</td>
</tr>
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<td>ESIP</td>
<td>Education Sector Investment Programme (Uganda)</td>
</tr>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (Ghana)</td>
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<td>FPE</td>
<td>Free Primary Education</td>
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<td>FLT</td>
<td>French Language Teaching</td>
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<td>FUPE</td>
<td>Free Universal Primary Education</td>
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<td>GBPA</td>
<td>Ghana Book Publishers Association</td>
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<td>GBS</td>
<td>Ghana Book Supplies Ltd</td>
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<tr>
<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrollment Ratio</td>
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<td>GES</td>
<td>Ghana Education Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>GNP</td>
<td>Gross National Product</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoB</td>
<td>Government of Botswana</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoC</td>
<td>Government of Cameroon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GoCI</td>
<td>Government of Côte d’Ivoire</td>
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<tr>
<td>GOE</td>
<td><em>Grands Opérateurs Économiques</em> (Cameroon)</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoG</td>
<td>Government of Ghana</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoK</td>
<td>Government of Kenya</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoL</td>
<td>Government of Lesotho</td>
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<td>GoM</td>
<td>Government of Malawi</td>
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<tr>
<td>GoT</td>
<td>Government of Tanzania and Government of Togo</td>
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<td>GoU</td>
<td>Government of Uganda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>GPC</td>
<td>Ghana Printing Corporation</td>
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<tr>
<td>GPO</td>
<td>Government Purchase Order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRZ</td>
<td>Government of the Republic of Zambia</td>
</tr>
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<td>GUP</td>
<td>Ghana University Press</td>
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<td>HDI</td>
<td>Human Development Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HERP</td>
<td>Health &amp; Education Rehabilitation Project (Ghana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICB</td>
<td>International Competitive Bidding</td>
</tr>
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<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning (Paris)</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMU</td>
<td>Instructional Materials Unit (of the MoES in Uganda)</td>
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<tr>
<td>INRAP</td>
<td>Institut National de Recherche et d’Action pédagogiques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPM</td>
<td>International Professional Managers (see Botswana)</td>
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<tr>
<td>JICA</td>
<td>Japanese International Cooperation Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JKF</td>
<td>Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (Kenya)</td>
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<td>JSS</td>
<td>Junior Secondary School</td>
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<tr>
<td>KIE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>KLB</td>
<td>Kenya Literature Bureau</td>
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<tr>
<td>KNLS</td>
<td>Kenya National Library Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>KPA</td>
<td>Kenya Publishers Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSES</td>
<td>Kenya School Equipment Scheme (now defunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDC</td>
<td>Less Developed Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIMUSCO</td>
<td>Librairie des Mutuelles Scolaires du Togo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPO</td>
<td>Local Purchase Order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBS</td>
<td>Malawi Book Services (now defunct)</td>
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<td>MCDE</td>
<td>Malawi College of Distance Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>MIE</td>
<td>Malawi Institute of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoC</td>
<td>Ministry of Culture</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>MoES</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Sports (Uganda)</td>
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<td>MoESC</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Sport &amp; Culture (Malawi)</td>
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<td>MoEST</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Science &amp; Technology (Kenya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>MoF</td>
<td>Ministry of Finance</td>
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<td>MOF</td>
<td>Milton Obote Foundation (Uganda; now defunct)</td>
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<td>MoGYCD</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender, Youth and Community Development (Malawi)</td>
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<td>MoLG</td>
<td>Ministry of Local Government (Tanzania)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoLGL</td>
<td>Ministry of Local Government and Lands (Botswana)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRH</td>
<td>Maternal and Reproductive Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTEF</td>
<td>Mid-term Expenditure Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTER</td>
<td>Mid-term Expenditure Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MUPEC</td>
<td>Mutuelle des Personnels de l’Enseignement du Cameroun</td>
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<tr>
<td>NBTU</td>
<td>National Book Trust of Uganda</td>
</tr>
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<td>NCDC</td>
<td>National Curriculum Development Centre (of the MoES in Uganda)</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEI</td>
<td>Nouvelles Editions Ivoiriennes (Côte d’Ivoire)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-government Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIE</td>
<td>National Institute of Education (at Makerere University in Uganda)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLS</td>
<td>National Library Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NURP</td>
<td>Northern Uganda Reconstruction Project</td>
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</table>
OE  Opérateurs économiques (Cameroon)
OUP Oxford University Press
PABA Pan African Booksellers Association
PATA Publishers Association of Tanzania
PCU Project Co-ordination Unit(s) (Kenya)
PIF Project Investment Framework
PIU Project Implementation Unit (Uganda)
PMU Projects Management Unit (Ghana)
PoP Pockets of Poverty (Kenya)
PPP Pilot Project for Publishing (Tanzania)
PTA Parents and Teachers Association
RDE Royal Danish Embassy (Malawi and Uganda)
RNE Royal Netherlands Embassy (Kenya)
RSA Republic of South Africa
SALIPACI Société anonyme de Librairie et de Papeterie de Côte d’Ivoire
SBDC School Book Distribution Company (Malawi)
SEP Secondary Education Project (Malawi)
SIDA Swedish International Development Agency
SIL Sector Investment Loan
SLD Schools & Logistics Division (of the MoE in Ghana)
SNLP National Federation of Booksellers and Stationers (Cote d’Ivoire)
SSS Senior Secondary School
SSU School Supplies Unit (of the MoESC in Malawi)
STCF Save the Children Fund
SUPER Support for Ugandan Primary Education Reform (a USAID-funded project in Uganda)
SWAp Sector Wide Approach
TAB Textbook Approval Board (of the MoE in Tanzania)
TAC Teachers Advisory Centre (Kenya)
TAZARA Tanzania Zambia Railway
TBC Textbook Centre (a Kenyan bookseller)
TDC Teacher Development Centre (Malawi)
TDECD Textbook Development and Evaluation Committee (of MoE in Botswana)
TES Tanzania Elimu Supplies
TIE Tanzania Institute of Education
TPH Tanzania Publishing House
TPP Textbook Pilot Project (Uganda)
TRC Tanzania Railway Corporation
TRF Textbook Revolving Fund
TRS Textbook Rental Scheme
UBA Uganda Booksellers Association
UBE Universal Basic Education
UACE Uganda Advanced Certificate of Education
UCE Uganda Certificate of Education
UNEB Uganda National Examinations Board
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UoB</td>
<td>University of Botswana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPA</td>
<td>Uganda Publishers Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPABA</td>
<td>Uganda Publishers and Booksellers Association (now defunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPH</td>
<td>Uganda Publishing House (now defunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPT</td>
<td>Uganda Press Trust (now defunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USS</td>
<td>Uganda School Supplies (now defunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAT</td>
<td>Value Added Tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WAEC</td>
<td>West African Examinations Council</td>
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<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZEPH</td>
<td>Zambia Educational Publishing House</td>
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Executive Summary

Secondary Textbook Requirements and Costs

Most secondary curricula in Africa are designed with little or no consideration of the cost implications for either government or parents.

There are considerable variations in the textbook requirements needed to meet secondary curriculum specifications—from a low of 6 titles to a high of 14 titles for junior secondary in the 19 countries studied for this review.

In some countries where there are no national approved textbook lists there can be significant variations in basic textbook requirements between individual schools in the same country.

There are considerable differentials between countries in the average price of recommended/approved textbooks and basic reference books (dictionaries and atlases). These differentials can be extreme with average textbook prices four to five times greater in some countries than in others. Kenya and Tanzania seem to have the lowest average secondary textbook prices. Cote d’Ivoire, Cameroon, Lesotho, and Uganda have the highest among the countries studied for this review.

Secondary textbook prices can vary considerably within individual countries according to geographical location. This is caused by price markups and is typical in countries where parent purchase is the dominant method of secondary textbook financing.

In parent purchase situations, specified textbook requirements frequently have been devalued by unrealistic requirements, high prices, and poor availability. In a majority of countries, few students now even attempt to meet the requirements laid down by schools, except perhaps for language and Math textbooks. Equally few schools expect students to have textbooks outside the two dominant subjects considered by schools and students to be the high priority textbooks.

With the right policies and strategies there should be no reason in most countries why secondary textbook prices should exceed US$4-6. However, very small market size combined with a requirement for locally specific content and high specifications will always create more expensive books.

Secondary Textbook Financing

Parent contributions are the sole source of secondary textbook funding in 11 out of 19 countries surveyed. In three other countries parents were required to supplement inadequate government funding. Of the five countries where few if any parental contributions were evident, only one (Botswana) ensured high and reasonably effective levels of provision.

Parents are the dominant source of secondary education financing even in government schools in most countries. Typically parents may account for at least 70 percent of the total costs of secondary education in government schools. Government secondary schools rarely/never provide free education and the costs of sending students to government schools is often very similar to private schools, church schools and community schools of a similar standard.
Textbooks are potentially very significant parts of the parental cost burden. They are often the second largest required parental cost in JSS, and can be the largest required part of parental cost in SSS.

Textbooks are often the only major parental cost component that can be reduced while still allowing the student to attend school (although there are some elite secondary schools in most countries where possession of a full set of basic textbooks or full, upfront payment of an annual textbook and library fee is still a condition of acceptance and enrollment). As a result there is a growing tendency by a majority of parents to economise on the costs of textbook provision by parents. This leads to much less than desirable levels of textbook availability in many schools and thus a serious reduction in the quality of secondary education offered and achieved.

There are indications (no more) of a steadily decreasing parental willingness/ability to support secondary education textbook costs.

Textbook usage patterns in schools suggest that many teachers/students no longer know how to use textbooks to best effect. Current textbook usage methodologies may well undermine student/parent understanding of the benefits of textbooks, thus contributing to declining willingness to contribute.

Effective textbook financing for secondary schools needs to be: (a) affordable, (b) sustainable, and (c) predictable. Very few secondary education systems of those reviewed meet any of the three required criteria.

There is little or no evidence in any of the 19 countries reviewed of any systematic approach to, or consideration of, the full range of secondary textbook cost reduction strategies.

Textbook Rental Schemes are generally popular with parents and students and are easier to finance but are in decline in individual schools and are not being considered as part of the textbook provision system in very many of the surveyed countries, despite obvious advantages.

Effective secondhand textbook markets are an important source of low cost access to basic textbooks for a majority of students.

In many countries the secondhand textbook market blurs imperceptibly into markets for pirated and stolen books. Stealing government funded textbooks from state schools to sell at reduced prices to private schools is a widespread practice in many countries.

Reforms are urgently required in the secondary school systems of most African countries in order to: (a) reduce the number of textbooks and reference books required by secondary education curricula; (b) reduce the unit costs of textbooks; (c) increase the target book life thus increasing cost amortization and reducing annual textbook fees/budgets; (d) increase the financing allocated to textbook provision from either government or parents; (e) ensure that curricula change does not make expensive materials redundant too early or too often.

Secondary Textbook Availability

Only 1 out of 19 countries studied (Botswana) had adequate textbook provision at close to a 1:1 ratio for all subjects and all grades.

In the other 18 countries secondary textbooks were in seriously short supply for most secondary school students.

Textbook access was best for core subjects e.g. language (English, French, or Portuguese, as appropriate) plus Math and Kiswahili in East Africa.
Urban schools had better textbook supplies than rural schools. In urban areas access to textbooks in core subjects ranged from 20–40 percent of students. Access to non-core textbooks was very much worse and estimates of availability of non-core textbooks ranged from 1:8 (Uganda and Kenya) to 1:40 (Zambia) up to 1:100 (Mozambique).

In rural areas few students in any country (less than 5 percent was a typical estimate) had access even to core subject textbooks and non-core textbooks were very scarce indeed.

For most schools, and particularly in bottom-of-the-range private schools, the best that could be expected was a textbook in the hands of a teacher who could copy out the text onto the blackboard.

The most significant sources of subject information for students were: (a) copying from the blackboard, (b) teacher dictation, and (c) low-cost pamphlets, often in the form of notes plagiarized by teachers from textbooks and sold to students. These pamphlets are generally very poorly written and edited, and equally poorly produced, but they are affordable and are thus in demand. Cases were reported of teachers forcing students to buy teachers’ notes as a means of income supplement.

Countries with state-funded textbook supplies, even where they were inadequate, tended to be better supplied with secondary textbooks than countries without state funding, but there are exceptions.

Malawi’s experience with the Danida secondary textbook rental scheme seems to have been positive and encouraging with high levels of rental fee collection (85 percent) even four years after donor/government assistance and financial support were terminated.

Expensive imported books, particularly at senior secondary level are usually widely unaffordable even when they are on approved book lists.

**Approved Textbook Lists**

Approved textbook lists can be used to improve/maintain textbook quality and keep prices low and competitive.

Approved textbook lists can also be used to stimulate local secondary textbook publishing, but only if there is a reliable market in which to publish.

Despite the advantages of approved textbook lists only 12 out of 19 countries studied for this survey have national approved secondary textbook lists and only three countries utilize price as a factor in evaluation and award of approved status, and encourage competition by having a limitation on the number of approved titles.

The selection criteria for some of the approved lists are neither objective nor transparent. There are well-developed textbook evaluation methodologies and objective evaluation and selection criteria available and efforts should be made in all countries to widen the development of approved lists based on objective and transparent criteria.

Many countries are not aware of the potential benefits that well-constructed, approved textbook lists could achieve. In some countries (for example, Cameroon) the approved list is so wide that it does not serve any useful purpose as an aid to selection nor as a guarantee of curriculum conformity nor as a mechanism for encouraging realistic pricing.

**Distribution Issues**

A significant shift back to secondary textbook supply via private sector booksellers occurred in the past 10 years.
State publishing activity has declined sharply in the past 10 years. In 2006, 18 out of 19 countries surveyed had their secondary textbooks published by private sector publishers. Junior secondary textbooks are published increasingly for specific local markets.

School-based choice from a list of approved competing textbooks is also a growing trend in secondary textbook markets.

A number of determined efforts in Uganda, Kenya, Malawi, Zambia, and Tanzania have redeveloped primary and secondary textbook distribution strategies that consciously seek to support private sector educational bookselling on a national basis. In most countries in 2006 this process of network redevelopment is still only partial and most countries suffer from serious geographic gaps in private sector textbook distribution.

Only South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho, Kenya, Cote d'Ivoire, and perhaps Nigeria among the studied countries have bookselling capacity capable of providing genuinely national coverage.

The re-development of national bookselling networks is hindered by continued state intervention in some countries and by underfinancing with associated credit and stockholding problems in others.

Declining parental willingness/ability to purchase secondary textbooks is reported from most countries and is exacerbated by price markups over list prices that often already reflect developed countries’ purchasing power even before the local markup is applied. In these cases the prices are virtually unaffordable to all but the richest parents.

The viability of educational bookselling, particularly in rural areas, can sometimes be threatened by pavement booksellers, briefcase booksellers, and pirates. However, pavement booksellers concentrating on secondhand books (as opposed to illegal pirate editions) provide a valuable service in making low cost textbooks more widely available to students who would otherwise have to do without them.

In some countries, piracy tends to fuel the momentum towards supply direct to schools from publishers, which undermines the re-development of national bookseller networks.

National bookseller networks are widely perceived to be an important component in the gradual development of a reading society.

Secondary Textbook Authorship and Publishing

Local school book publishing is relatively undeveloped in francophone Africa. The only sector where a breakthrough in local publishing might have taken place is primary education.

In francophone countries, most secondary school textbooks are still published by French and Belgian publishers.

Regional secondary textbook publishing for francophone Africa has been developed by French publishers largely in response to donor efforts to encourage transnational regional curricula. Regional publishing at secondary level is much more extensive in francophone Africa than publishing specifically for national markets.

Regional textbook publishing has significant cost benefits in terms of longer print runs and lower unit costs, but can lack specific local relevance. Specific national publishing takes place largely for the social science subjects.

French and Belgian publishers have considerable competitive advantages over local publishers in publishing for regional markets because they have large back lists for adaptation, plentiful investment finance, and past experience and publishing skills.

Local authorship is frequently involved in adaptations and in specific national publishing.
Local educational publishing is relatively well developed in Cote d’Ivoire (although dominated by joint ventures with French publishers) and to a lesser extent in Senegal, Mali, and Cameroun. Significantly different donor policies towards textbook provision between francophone and anglophone countries probably have had a significant impact on the slower development of local publishing in francophone Africa. The fact that most francophone countries have smaller populations and lower GERs may also have been factors in inhibiting the development of local textbook publishing.

Local publishing development has been more pronounced in Anglophone Africa, largely because there has been a long tradition of British publishers opening local subsidiaries, and because liberalization policies started much earlier in anglophone than francophone Africa.

The trend towards regional publishing is much less pronounced in anglophone Africa than in francophone Africa because national educational systems are more diverse in their form and structure than in francophone countries, where similar systems and curricula operate across many countries and thus provide stronger and more secure support for regional initiatives.

Attempts at regionalizing and standardizing syllabuses and textbooks across countries took place in the 1960s and 1970s in anglophone Africa but were quickly replaced by national, country-specific publishing at secondary level. Regionalization and standardization in francophone countries started seriously in the 1990s and was strongly supported by donors.

Anglophone Africa has tended to develop national, country specific secondary school publishing, which is perhaps less economic in terms of prices, but is perceived to be more relevant in terms of content and accessibility to national publishing companies. However, Table 2 demonstrates that textbook prices in francophone countries tend to be higher than those in most Anglophone countries apart from Botswana and Lesotho (both countries where secondary textbooks written specifically for local conditions have to survive on very small print runs) and Uganda, where there is still relatively little locally specific secondary publishing and where a majority of the recommended textbooks are imported with locally marked-up prices.

A greater variety of types of school publishing houses exist in Anglophone countries. Clear evidence suggests that local publishing and local authorship can be rapidly developed so long as local publishing industries are provided with genuine access to a market, which is also financially viable, stable, and predictable.

**Secondary School Libraries**

Effective school libraries provide additional reading opportunities for students, which in turn improve reading skills, comprehension, and writing and clarity of expression, which in turn support student performance in all other curriculum subjects.

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1. Donors probably have more consistently supported state authorship, publishing, printing and distribution in francophone Africa and have taken less interest in devolved, demand-led textbook financing systems, school-based decisionmaking and properly constructed competitive approved textbook lists (all factors which support private sector publishing developments). Print dominated textbook procurement and the growth of regional secondary textbook publishing in francophone Africa have all tended to favor well-financed foreign companies with big back lists that can be used as a source of lower cost adaptations. Regional publishing tends to favor multinational publishers over small, emerging national publishers.
Effective school libraries should also provide training and experience in research and information access skills, which are both essential skills for quality performance in higher education and lifelong learning.

Of the 18 countries reviewed, only Botswana managed to achieve a basic level of secondary school library provision for all secondary schools. All other countries were characterized by the widespread absence of effective school libraries, except for a few elite and prestigious secondary schools from both the state aided and private sectors.

The most common problems affecting secondary school libraries in almost all countries were:

- Seriously inadequate funding, with little or no government financial support and only occasional donor support, which leaves most of the burden of library funding on parents, who are already overstretched with the other costs of secondary education. Because libraries are underfunded, they are of only limited value and interest to both students and teachers, and as a result they tend to be underused.
- Lack of adequate library rooms, which are usually converted classrooms with insufficient space, shelving, furniture, equipment, or security.
- Lack of finance to undertake regular library maintenance. Thus facilities tend to deteriorate rapidly.
- Where library stock exists it is generally old and often irrelevant to current curricula and teacher/student interests. More often than not there is virtually no appropriate stock available at all and there are rarely budgets for regular stock upgrading or replenishment.
- Heavy stock wear and tear, loss and damage caused by poor management, lack of security, pest and fungal damage, theft, and so forth.
- Lack of understanding by both teachers and students of the role and function of a school library, and thus a growing inability to use libraries properly even when they are well-established.
- Lack of trained school librarians and poor training and overloading of teacher librarians.
- A widespread lack of basic minimum standards for school library provision that can guide schools.
- A lack of commitment from either Ministries of Education or individual schools to the development and use of school libraries.
- The absence of clearly articulated secondary school library policies in a majority of countries.
- Poor library management systems. For overstretched and underpaid teachers the workload involved in selecting, ordering, receiving, cataloguing, managing loans and returns, re-shelving, repairs, and so forth is simply too much. Even when funds are available basic management systems are often not up to standard.

Many countries in both francophone and anglophone Africa complain about the prevalence of donated secondhand books in secondary school libraries. While these donations are welcomed in principle, they are often not central to the national curricula and often not attractive as reading books. There are complaints that the existence of secondhand donations provides governments with excuses not to fund school or even national library systems.
In many schools the concept of a school library no longer exists. The use of school libraries as a support to learning is no longer recognized by many schools, parents, and students as important.

In many countries the National Library Service through municipal and/or public libraries still provides a valuable service, particularly to secondary schools. A high proportion of public library users in most countries tend to be secondary school students trying to access limited core textbook collections.

Most secondary schools with functioning libraries manage by using a junior teacher to do extra work as a teacher librarian. It is rare that schools can afford to hire even a partly trained school librarian. Thus, school librarians frequently have little or even no training in library management and this has an adverse impact on the efficiency and use of the secondary school library.

School library stock selection is a problem, particularly in rural areas where good local booksellers are rare and there are no stock samples, catalogues, brochures, or even price information on which to base selection decisions. As a result many secondary schools with funding tend to order “blind” and many school library orders can be less than effective as a result.

Effective secondary school libraries require:

- Recognition of, and commitment to, the value and role of the school library by teachers, head teachers, inspectors, and the educational establishment.
- Regular sustained library budgets to support the above.
- A Ministry of Education School Library Policy to support the development and use of secondary libraries.
- Adequate stocks of books and other materials (CDs, DVDs, Video, journals, posters, and so forth, plus wherever possible access to the internet) which can be renewed regularly to keep information up to date and replace worn copies.
- Space to study in a quiet, clean, and well-lit environment.
- A qualified librarian to manage the library, to help with selection, searching, cataloguing, and so forth, and to train all students in the use of a library.
- A simple library management system for all schools to include fixed library periods for lending and selection, repairing books, and liaison between librarians and teachers.

Secondary school libraries need not be an additional cost burden on an already underfunded school system. Properly conceived and developed learning materials, which abandon traditional assumptions and focus on the cost benefits of good school library development, can actually be significantly cheaper and pedagogically more effective than existing approaches to textbook provision.

It should be noted that there is very little recent research evidence on the impact of secondary school libraries on student learning in African schools, largely because secondary school libraries in most schools in most countries throughout Africa have now fallen into the abyss and are of such poor quality through neglect and underfunding that they largely are ignored by both teachers and students, except for a minority of secondary schools where fiction and textbook loans to students are still maintained. However, early research evidence from the 1960s, when many secondary school libraries in Africa were often reasonably well-stocked and used, suggests the potential impact of good school libraries on learning outputs.
Résumé analytique

Caractéristiques requises et coûts des manuels du secondaire

En Afrique, la plupart des programmes du secondaire sont élaborés sans vraiment tenir compte des coûts pour les familles ou l’État.

Des variations considérables existent quant au nombre de manuels requis pour couvrir les spécifications des programmes secondaires - entre six et quatorze titres à l’entrée du premier cycle du secondaire dans les 19 pays considérés par la présente étude.

Dans certains pays où aucune liste de manuels n’est approuvée au niveau national, de grandes variations peuvent exister entre les écoles d’un même pays.

Le prix moyen des manuels approuvés/recommandés et des ouvrages de références de base (dictionnaires et atlas) peut connaître des différences considérables entre pays. Celles-ci peuvent être extrêmes, avec des prix moyens quatre à cinq fois plus élevés dans certains pays. Le Kenya et la Tanzanie semblent pratiquer les prix moyens les plus bas pour les manuels du secondaire. C’est en Côte d’Ivoire, au Cameroun, au Lesotho et en Ouganda que les prix les plus élevés ont été relevés dans le cadre de notre étude.

Les prix des manuels du secondaire peuvent varier considérablement au sein d’un même pays selon la situation géographique. Ces variations sont dues à des augmentations locales des prix fréquentes dans des pays où l’achat des manuels secondaires par les parents est le mode de financement dominant.

Lorsque les parents achètent eux-mêmes les manuels, les listes de manuels préconisées perdent très souvent de leur intérêt en raison de leur caractère irréaliste, des prix élevés et de la faible disponibilité, et dans la plupart des pays peu d’élèves essaient de répondre aux exigences des établissements, sauf peut-être en ce qui concerne les manuels de langue et de mathématiques. Parallèlement, peu d’établissements attendent des élèves qu’ils aient des manuels en dehors des deux matières dominantes, considérées comme hautement prioritaires par les écoles et les élèves.

Avec des politiques et stratégies adéquates, il ne devrait y avoir aucune raison dans la plupart des pays pour que le prix des manuels du secondaire dépasse 4 à 6 dollars EU. Cependant, la très petite taille du marché combinée à une exigence de contenus locaux particuliers et à un niveau élevé de spécifications aboutira toujours à des prix élevés pour les manuels.

Financement des manuels secondaires

La contribution des parents est l’unique source de financement des manuels du secondaire dans onze des dix-neuf pays étudiés. Dans trois autres, les familles doivent compléter un financement gouvernemental insuffisant. Dans les cinq pays où le financement parental est faible ou inexistant, un seul (le Botswana) assure un niveau d’approvisionnement élevé et raisonnablement efficace.

Dans la plupart des pays, les parents sont la principale source de financement, y compris dans les écoles publiques. En général, les familles assurent au moins 70 % du coût total de l’éducation secondaire dans un établissement public. Les établissements secondaires publics offrent rarement, voire jamais, une éducation gratuite et leur coût est souvent très proche de celui des établissements privés, religieux ou communautaires de niveau similaire.
Les manuels constituent potentiellement une partie importante des coûts supportés par les parents. Ils sont souvent la deuxième dépense parentale obligée au premier cycle secondaire, et peuvent être la plus importante au second.

Les manuels sont souvent la seule grande composante financière parentale qui peut être réduite sans empêcher les élèves de fréquenter l’école (même si, dans la plupart de ces pays, certains établissements secondaires d’élite continuent à imposer comme condition d’admission, la possession d’un jeu complet des manuels de base, ou le paiement intégral, d’avance, d’un forfait pour les manuels et la bibliothèque). C’est pourquoi les familles ont de plus en plus tendance à économiser sur le coût d’achat des manuels. Le niveau de disponibilité des manuels laisse ainsi plus qu’à désirer dans beaucoup d’établissements, et avec lui la qualité de l’éducation secondaire offerte et reçue.

Des signes (sans plus) indiquent une baisse régulière de la volonté/capacité des parents à supporter le coût des manuels scolaires du secondaire.

Les modes d’utilisation des manuels dans les écoles suggèrent que de nombreux enseignants/élèves ne savent plus utiliser les manuels de manière efficace. Pour les élèves/parents, la complexité des méthodologies d’utilisation des manuels courants rend leurs avantages difficiles à comprendre et contribue à ce déclin de leur volonté de contribuer à leur coût.

Le financement efficace des manuels du secondaire doit être (a) abordable ; (b) soutenable ; et (c) prédictible. Quasiment aucun des systèmes éducatifs étudiés n’observe ces critères.

Dans aucun des 19 pays observés n’a été utilisée ni même envisagée, une approche systématique de l’ensemble des stratégies de réduction des coûts des manuels du secondaire.

Les systèmes de location des manuels sont en général populaires auprès des parents et des élèves et sont plus faciles à financer. Ils sont cependant en déclin dans les établissements et ne sont pas considérés comme faisant partie du système d’approvisionnement des manuels dans bien des pays observés, malgré des avantages évidents.

Des marchés efficaces de manuels d’occasion sont une source importante d’accès à bas coût aux manuels de base pour une majorité d’élèves.

Dans de nombreux pays le marché des manuels d’occasion se fond imperceptiblement dans le marché des livres piratés et volés. Voler aux établissements publics des manuels financés par le gouvernement pour les revendre à prix réduit dans des écoles privées est devenu une pratique très répandue.

Il devient urgent de réformer les systèmes d’enseignement secondaire de la plupart des pays africains afin de (a) réduire le nombre de manuels et d’ouvrages de référence exigés par les programme du secondaire ; (b) réduire le coût unitaire des manuels ; (c) augmenter la durée de vie des livres cibles et ainsi accroître l’amortissement des coûts et réduire le budget/forfait annuel des manuels ; (d) augmenter le financement alloué à l’achat des manuels par le gouvernement ou les parents ; (e) s’assurer que l’évolution des programmes ne réclame pas de trop fréquentes et coûteuses mises à jour.

**Disponibilité des manuels du secondaire**

Un seul des 19 pays observés (le Botswana) fournissait les manuels de façon adéquate, avec un ratio proche de 1:1 pour toutes les matières et dans toutes les classes.

Dans les 18 autres pays, le manque de manuels du secondaire se faisait sérieusement sentir pour la plupart des élèves du secondaire.
L'accès aux manuels était meilleur pour les matières de base, c'est-à-dire la langue (anglais, français ou portugais selon les cas) plus les mathématiques et le Kiswahili en Afrique de l'Est.

Les établissements urbains étaient mieux fournis en manuels que les établissements ruraux. Dans les zones urbaines, l'accès des élèves aux manuels des matières de base allait de 20 % à 40 %. L'accès aux manuels des autres matières était bien pire, et l'estimation de leur disponibilité allait de 1:8 (Ouganda et Kenya) à 1:40 (Zambie), et jusqu'à 1:100 (Mozambique).

Quel que soit le pays, dans les zones rurales peu d'élèves (moins de 5 % en général) avaient accès aux manuels des matières de base, et l'accès aux manuels des autres matières était vraiment très rare.

Dans la plupart des établissements, et en particulier les établissements privés du bas de l'échelle, le meilleur qu'on pouvait espérer était un manuel pour le professeur, qui copiait éventuellement le texte au tableau.

Les plus importantes sources d’information pour les élèves étaient (a) la copie du tableau noir ; (b) la dictée du professeur ; (c) des syllabus à bas coût, consistant souvent en notes plagiarisées des manuels par les professeurs et revendues aux élèves. Ces syllabus sont en général très mal écrits et publiés mais ils sont abordables et par conséquent demandés. Des cas ont été rapportés de professeurs forçant les élèves à acheter ces notes pour se faire un revenu supplémentaire.

Les pays où la fourniture des manuels était financée par l’État, même là où elle était inadéquate, avaient tendance à être mieux fournis en manuels du secondaire que les pays sans financement d’État. Mais il y a des exceptions.

L’expérience du Malawi avec le système Danida de location des manuels du secondaire semble avoir été positive et encourageante, affichant de hauts niveaux de recettes de location (85 %) même quatre ans après que l’assistance du donateur/gouvernement ait pris fin.

Les livres chers importés, en particulier dans le deuxième cycle du secondaire, sont généralement inabordables même lorsqu’ils figurent sur les listes de livres approuvés.

Approbation des listes de manuels

L'approbation des listes de manuels peut s’avérer utile pour améliorer/maintenir la qualité et garder des prix bas et compétitifs.

Elle peut également être utilisée pour encourager et stimuler la publication locale de manuels scolaires, mais seulement là où un marché fiable existe pour ces publications.

Malgré les avantages de l’approbation des listes de manuels, seuls douze des 19 pays observés l’appliquent au secondaire. Seuls trois d’entre eux utilisent le prix comme facteur d’évaluation et d’approbation, et encouragent la compétition en limitant le nombre de titres approuvés.

Les critères de sélection de certaines des listes approuvées ne sont ni objectifs ni transparents. Il existe des méthodologies bien développées d’évaluation des manuels ainsi que des critères de sélection, et des efforts devraient être faits dans tous les pays pour favoriser le développement de listes approuvées basées sur des critères objectifs et transparents.

Beaucoup de pays ne sont pas conscients des avantages potentiels de l’approbation de listes de manuels bien construites. Dans certains pays (comme le Cameroun), la liste approuvée est si longue qu’elle n’a aucune utilité pour le choix ou la garantie de conformité au programme, ou en tant que mécanisme d’encouragement à des prix réalistes.
Problèmes de distribution

Un retour significatif vers la fourniture des manuels du secondaire via le secteur privé des librairies a été observé ces dix dernières années. La publication des manuels par l’État a nettement décliné ces dix dernières années. En 2006, dans 18 des 19 pays observés, les manuels du secondaire étaient publiés par des éditeurs du secteur privé et ceux du premier cycle sont de plus en plus publiés pour des marchés locaux spécifiques.

L’utilisation par les établissements de listes approuvées de manuels concurrentiels est également une tendance croissante sur le marché des manuels pour le secondaire. Des efforts conséquents ont été faits en Ouganda, Kenya, Malawi, Zambie et Tanzanie pour redévelopper des stratégies de distribution des manuels primaires et secondaires, soutenant en connaissance de cause le secteur privé de la librairie scolaire à l’échelle nationale. En 2006, ce processus de redéveloppement du réseau était encore partiel dans la plupart des pays et ceux-ci souffrent de lacunes géographiques sérieuses dans la distribution des manuels scolaires.

Parmi les pays observés, seuls l’Afrique du Sud, le Botswana, le Lesotho, le Kenya, la Côte d’Ivoire et peut-être le Nigeria disposent d’un réseau de librairies capable d’offrir d’emblée une couverture nationale.

Le redéveloppement des réseaux nationaux de librairies est entravé par les continuelles interventions de l’État dans certains pays, et dans d’autres par le manque de financement, avec les problèmes de crédit et d’actionnariat qui l’accompagnent.

Une baisse de la volonté/capacité des familles d’acheter les manuels du secondaire a été observée dans la plupart des pays. Elle est exacerbée par la hausse de prix reflétant déjà souvent le pouvoir d’achat des pays développés avant même l’application des augmentations locales. Dans ces cas, les prix sont absolument inabordables pour tous les parents, à l’exception des plus riches.

La viabilité des librairies scolaires, en particulier dans les zones rurales, peut parfois être menacée par les bouquinistes, les vendeurs au porte à porte et les pirates. Cependant, les bouquinistes spécialisés dans la vente des livres d’occasion (par opposition aux éditions pirates illégales) fournissent un service appréciable en rendant largement disponibles des manuels à bas coût pour des élèves qui autrement auraient dû s’en passer.

Dans certains pays, la piraterie tend à attiser la tendance vers une fourniture directe des établissements par les éditeurs, qui fait obstacle au redéveloppement de réseaux nationaux de librairies.

Les réseaux nationaux de librairies sont largement perçus comme une composante importante du développement graduel d’une société de lecteurs.

Édition et rédaction des manuels du secondaire

L’édition scolaire locale est relativement sous-développée en Afrique francophone et le seul secteur où elle a pu percer est celui de l’éducation primaire.

Dans les pays francophones la plupart des manuels du secondaire sont toujours publiés par des éditeurs français et belges.

L’édition régionale de manuels du secondaire pour l’Afrique francophone a été développée par des éditeurs français, en grande partie suite aux efforts de bailleurs de fonds.
visant à encourager les programmes transrégionaux. Les publications régionales au niveau du secondaire sont plus étendues au niveau de l’Afrique francophone que la publication pour des marchés nationaux spécifiques.

La publication régionale de manuels scolaires présente des avantages significatifs en termes de taille des tirages et de coût unitaire mais peut manquer de pertinence locale. Les publications spécifiquement nationales concernent en général les matières liées aux sciences sociales.

Les éditeurs français et belges ont un avantage comparatif considérable sur les éditeurs locaux en matière de publication pour les marchés régionaux parce qu’ils disposent d’importants catalogues de titres qui peuvent être adaptés, de suffisamment de poids financier pour investir, et d’une grande expérience et compétence.

La rédaction locale est souvent réservée à des adaptations et à des publications nationales spécifiques.

L’édition scolaire locale est relativement bien développée en Côte d’Ivoire (bien que dominée par des joint ventures avec des éditeurs français) et dans une moindre mesure au Sénégal, Mali et Cameroun. Les politiques très différentes appliquées par les bailleurs de fonds1 pour la fourniture des manuels scolaires dans les pays anglophones et francophones ont probablement eu un impact significatif sur développement ralenti de l’édition locale en Afrique francophone. Le fait que la plupart des pays francophones ont des populations plus réduites et des TBS plus bas peut également avoir contribué à inhiber le développement d’une édition scolaire locale.

Le développement de l’édition locale a été plus prononcé en Afrique anglophone, en grande partie à cause de la longue tradition d’ouverture de filiales locales des éditeurs anglais, et parce que les politiques de libéralisation y ont commencé bien plus tôt qu’en Afrique francophone.

La tendance au développement de l’édition régionale est beaucoup moins prononcée en Afrique anglophone qu’en Afrique francophone parce que les systèmes éducatifs nationaux sont plus différenciés en forme et en structure que dans les pays francophones, où des programmes et des systèmes similaires existent dans beaucoup de pays et offrent une plateforme plus solide et sûre aux initiatives régionales.


L’Afrique anglophone a plutôt développé une édition scolaire nationale, spécifique à chaque pays pour le secondaire, ce qui est sans doute moins économique en termes de prix mais est perçu comme plus pertinent en termes de contenu et d’accessibilité pour les éditeurs nationaux. Le Tableau 2 montre néanmoins que le prix des manuels en Afrique

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1. Les bailleurs de fonds ont probablement soutenu de manière plus cohérente les auteurs, éditeurs, imprimeurs et distributeurs publics en Afrique francophone et ont manifesté moins d’intérêt pour les systèmes de financement des manuels scolaires fondés sur la demande, pour la prise de décision au niveau des établissements, et pour l’approbation de listes de manuels bien construites et compétitives (des facteurs favorisant le développement d’un secteur privé de l’édition). Une fourniture des manuels dominée par la publication et la croissance de l’édition régionale des manuels du secondaire en Afrique francophone ont eu tendance à favoriser les entreprises étrangères bien financées, dotées de vastes catalogues de publications pouvant servir de source pour des adaptations à coût plus bas. L’édition régionale tend à favoriser les éditeurs multinationaux par rapport aux petits éditeurs nationaux émergents.
francophone tend à être plus élevé que dans la plupart des pays anglophones, à l’exception du Botswana et du Lesotho (deux pays où les manuels du secondaires, écrits spécifiquement pour les conditions locales, doivent survivre sur de très faibles tirages) et de l’Ouganda, où il y a encore relativement peu d’éditeurs locaux spécialisés dans les manuels du secondaire et où la plupart des manuels recommandés sont importés moyennant une augmentation locale des prix.

Il semble exister une plus grande variété de types d’éditeurs scolaires dans les pays anglophones.

Il est clairement démontré que la publication et la rédaction locales peuvent être rapidement développées, à condition qu’un réel accès à un marché financièrement viable, stable et prédictible soit offert aux maisons d’édition locales.

**Bibliothèques scolaires du secondaire**

Des bibliothèques scolaires efficaces fournissent des opportunités supplémentaires de lecture aux élèves, qui à leur tour développent des compétences de lecture et de compréhension, et améliorent leur écriture et leur clarté d’expression, développant ainsi une meilleure performance dans les autres matières du programme.

Des bibliothèques scolaires efficaces devraient également offrir une formation et une expérience pratique en matière de recherche et de techniques d’accès à l’information, qui sont des compétences essentielles pour des performances de qualité au niveau de l’éducation supérieure et de la formation tout au long de la vie.

Parmi les 19 pays observés, seul le Botswana est parvenu à un niveau de base pour l’approvisionnement des bibliothèques scolaires de tous les établissements secondaires. Tous les autres pays manquent de bibliothèques scolaires efficaces, sauf dans quelques établissements secondaires prestigieux et réservés à l’élite, tant publics que privés.

Les problèmes les plus fréquents affectant les bibliothèques scolaires du secondaire dans presque tous les pays étaient :

- Un financement très inadéquat, avec peu ou pas de soutien du gouvernement et un soutien occasionnel de bailleurs de fonds, qui laisse le plus lourd du financement des bibliothèques aux parents, déjà surchargés par les autres coûts de l’enseignement secondaire. Comme les bibliothèques sont sous-financées, leur valeur et intérêt pour les élèves et enseignants sont limités, et elles tendent en conséquence à être sous-utilisées.
- Le manque de salles adéquates pour les bibliothèques, qui sont en général des classes reconverties, pas assez spacieuses, sans rayonnages ni mobilier ni équipement ni sécurité.
- Le manque de financement pour un entretien régulier des bibliothèques, qui tendent dès lors à se dégrader rapidement.
- Là où des fonds de livres existent, ceux-ci sont généralement vieux et souvent inadaptés aux programmes actuels et aux intérêts des élèves/enseignants. Il n’y a bien trop souvent quasiment aucun fonds et rarement un budget pour la mise à jour ou le renouvellement du fonds.
- Une lourde dégradation du fonds, pertes et dommages dus à sa mauvaise gestion, à l’absence de sécurité, aux parasites et champignons, au vol, etc.
Le manque de compréhension, à la fois par les enseignants et les élèves, du rôle et de la fonction d’une bibliothèque scolaire, et donc une incapacité croissante à utiliser correctement les bibliothèques, mêmes quand elles sont bien tenues.

Le manque de bibliothécaires scolaires formés, la médiocre formation et la surcharge horaire des professeurs-bibliothécaires.

Le peu de diffusion des normes de base pour l’approvisionnement des bibliothèques permettant de guider les établissements.

Un manque d’implication des ministères de l’Éducation ou des écoles dans le développement et l’utilisation des bibliothèques scolaires.

L’absence de politiques clairement définies pour les bibliothèques scolaires dans la plupart des pays.

De médiocres systèmes de gestion des bibliothèques. Pour des professeurs surchargés et sous-payés, la charge de travail requise pour sélectionner, commander, réceptionner, cataloguer, gérer les emprunts et les retours, remettre en rayon, réparer etc. est simplement trop grande, et même lorsque des fonds sont disponibles, les systèmes de gestion ne sont souvent pas à la hauteur des normes.

Beaucoup de pays d’Afrique tant francophone qu’anglophone se plaignent de la prévalence des livres d’occasion offerts aux bibliothèques des établissements secondaires. Même si ces donations sont en principe bienvenues, elles sont souvent inadaptées aux programmes nationaux et n’engagent guère à la lecture. Certaines plaintes font état du fait que ces dons de livres d’occasion fournissent aux gouvernements une excuse pour ne pas financer les bibliothèques des écoles ni même des systèmes nationaux.

Dans de nombreux établissements, la notion de bibliothèque scolaire nationale n’existe plus et leur utilisation comme support d’apprentissage n’est plus considérée comme importante par beaucoup d’établissements, parents et élèves.

Dans de nombreux pays le Service national des bibliothèques fournit encore un service de valeur, en particulier aux établissements secondaires, à travers les bibliothèques municipales et/ou publiques. Dans presque tous les pays, une grande partie des usagers des bibliothèques publiques sont des élèves du secondaire cherchant à avoir accès à une collection limitée de manuels scolaires de base.

La plupart des établissements secondaires qui ont des bibliothèques en fonctionnement s’arrangent pour qu’un jeune enseignant assume, en supplément, le travail de bibliothécaire. Il est rare que des établissements puissent se permettre d’engager un bibliothécaire scolaire, même partiellement formé. Les bibliothécaires scolaires sont donc peu ou pas formés à la gestion d’une bibliothèque, ce qui a un impact négatif sur l’efficacité et l’utilisation des bibliothèques des établissements secondaires.

La sélection du fonds des bibliothèques scolaires est un problème, en particulier en zone rurale, où les bons libraires sont rares et où il n’existe pas de spécimens, de catalogues, de brochures ou même d’information sur les prix qui permettent d’étayer la sélection. En conséquence de nombreux établissements secondaires disposant de financements ont tendance à commander « à l’aveugle » et beaucoup des commandes effectuées pour les bibliothèques sont moins qu’efficaces.

Des bibliothèques efficaces au secondaire nécessitent :

- La reconnaissance de la valeur et du rôle des bibliothèques scolaires par les enseignants, directeurs, inspecteurs et instances éducatives, et l’engagement de ceux-ci en leur faveur.
- Des budgets réguliers et durables pour les supporter.
Une politique du ministère de l’Éducation en faveur des bibliothèques pour soutenir le développement et l’utilisation de celles-ci dans les établissements du secondaire.

Des fonds adéquats de livres et autres publications (CDs, DVD, vidéos, périodiques, posters etc. plus, partout où c’est possible, l’accès à internet) qui puisse être régulièrement renouvelé pour la mise à jour de l’information et le remplacement des copies usées.

De l’espace pour étudier dans un environnement calme, propre et bien éclairé.

Un bibliothécaire qualifié pour gérer la bibliothèque, aider à la sélection, à la recherche, au catalogage et former les élèves à l’utilisation d’une bibliothèque.

Un système de gestion de la bibliothèque simple dans tous les établissements, incluant des périodes fixes pour les prêts, la sélection et la réparation des livres, et des liens entre bibliothécaires et enseignants.

Les bibliothèques des établissements secondaires ne doivent pas représenter un fardeau supplémentaire pour un système scolaire déjà sous-financé. Un matériel didactique bien conçu et réalisé, qui abandonne les idées reçues et se concentre sur les avantages financiers d’un bon développement des bibliothèques scolaires, peut être significativement moins cher et pédagogiquement plus efficace que les approches existantes de fourniture de manuels.

Il faudrait noter qu’il existe très peu de recherches ou de documentation récentes sur l’impact des bibliothèques scolaires du secondaire sur l’apprentissage dans les écoles africaines, en grande partie parce que la plupart des bibliothèques des écoles secondaires sont aujourd’hui au plus bas dans presque tous les pays africains et sont d’une qualité si déplorable, à cause de la négligence et du manque de financement qu’elles sont en général ignorées des enseignants et des élèves, sauf dans une minorité d’établissements secondaires où les prêts d’ouvrages de fiction et de manuels aux élèves ont été maintenus. Cependant, des recherches antérieures effectuées dans les années 1960, lorsque de nombreuses bibliothèques scolaires africaines étaient plutôt bien pourvues et fréquentées, suggèrent un impact potentiel positif des bonnes bibliothèques scolaires sur la qualité de l’enseignement.
Introduction: Methodology and Constraints

Data for this research study was collected from the following sources:

- Specially commissioned research on current secondary textbook and school library provision undertaken in July/August 2006 by local country experts. The target countries were Botswana, Cameroon, Cote d’Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania and Togo.
- Structured interviews with leading British and French textbook and school library publishers with extensive experience of supply to Africa.
- Comments and information from specialist consultants currently working on secondary school textbook and library issues in Africa.
- Desk research and web searching. In addition to the main reports referred to above the web searches often uncovered relevant but only partial information, often as a by-product of studies on other aspects of secondary education in Africa.

The bibliography provides a selection of the most important reports and publications with significant and relevant data used in this research study.

The most important constraint in the conduct of the research was the lack of time. Because the research team was working to tight deadlines the ability to follow through on outstanding issues, to conduct followup enquiries and to seek more detailed explanations
of specific issues was always a problem. As a result, there are occasions when the general experience of the research team in secondary textbook and school library provision in Africa had to be used to hypothesise explanations where it wasn’t possible in the time available to establish clear cause and effect.

Although the examples contained in this report do not cover every African country, they do cover a sufficiently wide range of Anglophone, Francophone, and even Lusophone experiences to allow broad conclusions. Research concentrated on data and reports that were written after 2000/2001. In some cases, the situations described may have changed as a result of later interventions—either for the better or the worse. Wherever examples are quoted, the source and date are always provided.
PART 1

Secondary Textbooks
Textbook Requirements and Costs in Secondary Education

Table 1 provides basic data on current secondary textbook requirements and costs by grade level in 10 sub-Saharan countries.

Different Types of Secondary Education

Secondary education is variously defined in different African countries. The four Francophone countries included in this study operate a seven-year secondary system starting in the sixth year of schooling (grade level 6) after five years of primary education. By contrast, secondary education in Anglophone countries tends to be much more diverse. For example, Uganda has seven years of primary education followed by four years of junior secondary and two years of senior secondary school. Lesotho has eight years of primary education followed by five years of secondary education. The first three years are junior secondary and the last two years are senior secondary. In Table 1, in order to achieve a degree of comparability, these different systems have been organized according to the year of schooling (the grade level) in which secondary education takes place.

Variations in Secondary Textbook Requirements and Costs

It is clear that there are great variations in basic textbook requirements between different countries and in some cases, even within the same country.2 Thus in grade level 9, which

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2. Where individual schools are responsible for creating their own book lists there can be dramatic differences in the nature and cost of lists between schools. In some systems where secondary examinations involve a choice of subjects, some schools will select the minimum number of subjects to offer while others will offer several additional subjects, which increases the costs of the required book list. Even when there are national approved textbook lists there can be large price differentials between two competing textbooks offered for the same subject and grade level.
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Textbooks and School Library Provision in Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa

is the first year of secondary in Botswana, but the fourth year of secondary in many Francophone countries and the second year of secondary in Uganda, the textbook requirements implied by the national curricula range from a low of 6 basic titles in Tanzania and Togo to 9 basic titles in Botswana, 12 basic titles in Malawi, 13 titles in Cameroon, and 14 titles in Uganda. In 2006, the cost of a full set of textbooks to support the curriculum in the ninth year of schooling (based on prices in local booklists converted to US dollars at current exchange rates) varies from US$25.30 in Tanzania up to US$155.10 in Uganda. However, these figures are misleading in terms of direct comparisons. For example, the Tanzania textbook list doesn’t include dictionaries and atlases, whereas the Uganda, Cameroon, and Cote d’Ivoire textbooks lists do include these items. If a basic dictionary and atlas is added to the Tanzania grade 9 requirements, then the cost of a full set of textbooks would increase to around US$50 at current prices.

The booklists for grade levels 8, 9, and 10 for Cote d’Ivoire, which are the basis for the cost estimates in Table 1, is based only on textbooks. However the official approved textbook list also specifies activity books or consumable workbooks. In grade level 9, seven activity books are specified at a current cost of US$26.32. If these are added to the textbook requirement the cost of a set of required materials for students rises from US$61.10 to US$87.42.

In 2007 in Kadune State, Nigeria, the “Joining Instructions for Junior Secondary Schools” specify that all students must possess their own copies of the four core textbooks in English, Math, Social Studies, and Integrated Science. They are recommended to own their own copies of textbooks for Business Studies, Religious Education (either Christian or Islamic), Physical and Health Education, Local Language (Hausa or Igbo or Yoruba), Agricultural Science, Home Economics, Introductory Technology, and Fine Art. Kaduna State publishes its own list of approved and recommended textbooks selected from private sector submissions and based on an evaluation that specifies the following criteria:

- Adequate curriculum coverage
- High print quality
- Durability of text paper
- Attractive and durable binding
- Adequacy of riders and worked examples
- Adequacy, accuracy and clarity of illustrations
- Simplicity and clarity of language.

The approved list provides choice for schools and a range of prices. In JSS Grade 1 the following prices applied:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook Type</th>
<th>Price</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Textbook</td>
<td>US$4.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Workbook</td>
<td>US$3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math Textbook</td>
<td>US$4.61</td>
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3. Both Cameroon and Cote d’Ivoire include readers, novels, plays and poetry in their book lists.
4. In Uganda, each secondary school is responsible for creating its own book list. The number of required Ugandan titles specified in Table 1 has been derived from a scrutiny of 15 school book lists in order to create a typical book list. It includes a dictionary and an atlas. Some subjects require more than one textbook or reference book. Some schools specify supplementary books in addition to a core textbook without informing students that the book is supplementary.
On this basis the total compulsory cost of a set of four textbooks and workbooks for JSS 1 is US$32.69.\(^5\) A further eight subject textbooks are specified as recommended. Both Kano State and Kwara State operate broadly similar systems.

Another significant factor is the geographic instability of the prices. The secondary textbook prices quoted for Uganda were valid only in Kampala. Prices to the purchaser rose steadily with distance from the capital to take account of transportation charges and increased stock risk. In Tanzania, all booksellers are reported to apply price markups to the list prices even though delivery costs are paid by the publisher. Price markups over and above the prices specified in approved lists are common in many countries unless they are specifically prohibited as a condition of inclusion on an approved list (such as in Kenya and Malawi). Price markups can vary within a typical range of 10–25 percent but sometimes they can be very much more. In a majority of countries where parents are expected to purchase, parents from rural areas may have to travel considerable distances to purchase secondary school textbooks from booksellers located only in urban areas. This adds to the real cost of textbooks.

In senior secondary grades in some countries, textbooks which are purchased in the first year of the course are intended to last for the whole course. Thus in Grade D in Lesotho, a typical school book list for the first year of senior secondary would cost around US$285.00 if purchased in full. However, a typical book list for Grade E, the second year of senior secondary (grade level 13) contains only five textbooks at a total purchase cost of US$45.00. Similarly, in Cote d’Ivoire the book list at grade level 11 specifies 20 titles (including readers, a dictionary and an atlas) at an average cost of US$261.60 whereas the book list for the following Terminale year (grade level 12) contains only an additional five titles at a cost of US$65.80. The reason for the grade level discrepancies is that most of the core textbooks purchased in grade 11 contain two years work and are intended to last through grade level 12 as well.

Bearing all of the above in mind it is difficult to make direct country comparisons although there are clear differences between the relatively large numbers of titles specified for secondary schools in Kenya, Cameroon, Malawi, Uganda, and Cote d’Ivoire and countries at the other end of the scale (like Tanzania, Ghana, and Togo) which have relatively modest compulsory basic textbook requirements. In Botswana, where the number of specified textbooks is mid-range (nine for junior secondary years and seven for senior secondary years) the unit costs can be relatively high. In Botswana textbooks are financed by the Ministry of Education and not by parents. Botswana is also a relatively rich country, has high presentational and physical production specifications and requires that the majority of the textbooks are authored and published specifically for Botswana. This means low print runs, bearing in mind the small secondary school population in Botswana, and thus relatively high unit costs, which are reflected in high retail prices. The majority of parents

\(^5\) Converted into U.S. dollars from the Naira at N130 to US$1.
certainly couldn’t themselves afford to pay for the high-priced textbooks in Botswana. However, the government is now finding it difficult to maintain the high-level budgets required to supply expensive textbooks. As a result, specified budget allocations are beginning to slip.

### Average Textbook Prices and the Causes of Variation

Table 2 provides average unit textbook costs in U.S. dollars by grade levels in selected countries. This figure is achieved by dividing the average cost of a set of textbooks by the number of titles included in the set. On this basis it is clear that the highest average unit textbook costs occur in Lesotho, Uganda, and Botswana, whereas the lowest occur in Tanzania and Kenya. The differentials between the highest and the lowest are extreme with average recommended/prescribed secondary textbook costs in Uganda, Lesotho, and Uganda four to five times higher than the average unit textbook costs in Kenya and Tanzania. The reasons for the high textbook costs in Botswana already have been explained. The reasons for high textbook costs in Uganda and Lesotho are somewhat different. In Uganda there is no national approved textbook list and each individual school makes up its own textbook list. These are normally derived from the stock lists of Kampala booksellers. Very few schools have a clear idea of the full range of available titles and very few are aware of the strengths and weaknesses of any one textbook in relation to the demands of the curriculum or examination. Also, because most secondary schools in Uganda no longer buy books themselves for loan to students but expect parents to purchase the books for each individual student, there is little concern with price in the construction of the book list. Most schools don’t expect parents to buy the full book list or even a significant part of it. Thus for most schools, students and parents, the secondary school textbook list in a majority of African countries has become now a symbol rather than an expected reality. For secondary schools in remote areas or the down market private schools there is little expectation that any pupils will buy their own textbooks. As a result some extremely expensive imported books, often with very little local relevance to the curriculum, are included on the school book lists. In one school in Uganda, the recommended biology textbook for S5 and S6 was an undergraduate biology textbook at far too high a level for the UACE at a price of almost US$90. However, no student in the school had purchased this title and the school hadn’t purchased a copy for its own library despite the fact that this was one of the specified textbooks on the school book list. In such ways have recommended textbook lists tended to become devalued and therefore widely ignored. The textbook list referred to above, which was developed by Kaduna State, is altogether more realistic.

In Lesotho there is a national approved textbook list from which schools are expected to select their titles for their own individual school book lists. Yet, price is not a factor in the approval process for the national list though some of the textbooks on the official approved list have very expensive prices. Once again, because most schools no longer buy textbooks for loans to students there is little concern for price in the construction of individual school book lists. In both Uganda and Lesotho there is a wide variety of school-originated, recommended book lists. Some book lists are very large, often containing radically unsuitable titles and unrealistically expensive textbooks. Other book lists may be
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Botswana</th>
<th>Cameroon</th>
<th>Cote d’Ivoire</th>
<th>Ghana</th>
<th>Kenya</th>
<th>Lesotho</th>
<th>Malawi</th>
<th>Tanzania</th>
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<td>6</td>
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dominated by very old textbooks, which were used by teachers when they were at school, which reflect the fact that core school textbooks have not changed for many years. Other lists concentrate on examination textbooks only and ignore recommendations for textbooks for non-examination years. In some schools first-year students are recommended to buy the examination textbook only. In Uganda, it is not uncommon for a student to be recommended to use the same S4 textbooks throughout the four years of junior secondary as preparation for the UCE examination without access to any other books unless provided by the school. It is equally common for book lists to be given only to S1 and S5 students. One school book list recommended 13 different titles for use in senior secondary Geography alone and five different titles for use in senior secondary Biology. These were not considered to be alternatives. In many countries, in districts away from the capital city or main provincial towns, few schools produce any sort of recommended book lists. The majority of schools in rural and remote areas simply recognize that parent purchasing power is too limited for most parents to be able to consider buying any textbooks. Secondary textbooks in any case are not usually available for purchase locally.

Kenya probably has the lowest secondary textbook prices of the surveyed countries, largely because its national secondary textbook approval process and national approved textbook list gives great prominence to price in the evaluation and approval process. This is also true in Tanzania and in Ghana and Togo, although the textbook approval process works in different ways in each country. In these situations low prices achieve higher marks in evaluation schemes, providing a positive incentive for publishers to achieve good prices to get onto the approved textbook list. Failure to achieve approved list status can be very serious for both submitted books and for the publishers who fail. As a result, private sector publishers, both indigenous and multinational, tend to oppose approved textbook lists, which are compiled on a competitive basis in which price is just one of the factors in the evaluation process.

The Malawi situation is a combination of Botswana and Kenya. There is a textbook approved list, which was established in 1999 and is about to be revised in 2006/2007. The original evaluation and approval criteria combined content, curriculum conformity, presentational quality, durability,6 and price factors in order to achieve good books at good prices. Yet, Malawi still had only a relatively small secondary enrollment in 1999, particularly at the senior secondary level, and the requirement for new books to be developed to meet new local syllabus requirements resulted in increased unit costs.

Another factor which has an influence on the cost of secondary school textbook requirements is the physical production specification. Thus, in Ethiopia, secondary textbooks are specified on 58gsm newsprint or part mechanical paper with insubstantial covers and saddle-stitched or side-stitched bindings. These specifications will produce cheap initial prices but will not provide good book life, particularly in difficult environments, so that textbooks must be replaced and repurchased frequently—sometimes more than once in a school year. Where physical specifications are established at very low levels in order to achieve cheap prices, a typical pattern tends to emerge in which damaged and destroyed

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6. Because long book life is a critical factor in achieving amortized cost reductions, some approved list criteria require minimum physical production specifications to ensure that all titles on the approved list will have similar book life expectations. This is a strongly recommended approach.
textbooks are not replaced and pupil: textbook ratios deteriorate steadily throughout the school year. In Kenya, Lesotho, and Malawi and in most francophone countries physical specifications are very much higher than those of Ethiopia. Higher specifications lead to longer book life which reduces the annual amortized cost of provision. Good production specifications and long book life also create the possibility of secondhand markets, which can have a dramatic impact on the costs of provision to students. In general, higher level physical production specifications and a longer book life produce much lower annual amortized costs of textbook provision. Some secondary schools with high levels of book care and conservation can achieve very extended book life and thus very low annual costs of provision.  

In Uganda, despite the recent development of local secondary school textbook publishing for junior secondary, the majority of the textbooks recommended, particularly for senior secondary, are still UK-published textbooks, which have presentational and production standards designed for a UK/international market, which can afford much higher prices than the average Ugandan secondary school pupil. This is also true for many other countries in both anglophone and francophone Africa. The basic problem, of course, is that the still relatively small secondary roll numbers in most countries, particularly at senior secondary level, combined with widespread low parental purchasing power and a lack of sustainable government/donor funding for secondary textbooks doesn’t add up to a market, which is likely to attract investment in new title development for specific countries. Because there is a scarcity of local titles, particularly at senior secondary, which have been conceived and originated in the context of local conditions and local purchasing power, there is little alternative except to recommend imported textbooks. In some cases, where there are particularly popular imported textbooks (such as McKean’s Biology) the overseas publisher may create a special “tropical” edition, which is made available at lower, but still durable production specifications, and at significantly lower prices. However, this is still the exception rather than the rule. There are similar examples from French publishers also, and particularly where titles are particularly suitable for transnational curricula.

The 2005 High School sub-sector study in Zambia complained of the lack of secondary school textbooks written and designed specifically for the Zambian market at prices that were affordable in the Zambian context. However, Zambian secondary school syllabuses have not been changed significantly since the early 1980s and there is little government funding provided to secondary schools for textbook purchase. There is also no widespread tradition of parental textbook purchase and thus the realistic available market is too small and uncertain to attract serious commercial publisher interest and investment in new titles

7. Physical specifications comprise text paper and cover card/board, cover finish, binding style and sometimes book format. Presentational specifications normally comprise type font and size, number of colours, number and type of illustrations and sometimes book format. Book formats are sometimes included in physical specifications because large book sizes, particularly in landscape formats, are often considered to be not durable. Landscape and A4 formats are therefore often specifically excluded.

8. For example, King’s College Budu in Uganda had a number of textbook sets which were more than 20 years old. Each book had been re-bound and regularly repaired but the annual cost of provision was very low because the textbooks had been made to last for so many years. Of course, there is a down side to maintaining textbooks for very long periods because the content can become dated and irrelevant. A reasonable balance between cost and longevity is desirable and a target 6 year book life at secondary would seem to strike a reasonable balance.
written specifically for Zambia. Low level and unpredictable potential sales also militate against lower prices. The willingness of multinational, regional, and local publishers to invest in and develop secondary school textbooks specifically to satisfy local market conditions and specifications, if the market has been created and is considered to be secure, is clearly demonstrated in Nigeria, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, Ghana, Cote d’Ivoire, Cameroon, Botswana, and Togo.

The data provided above suggests that with the right policies and strategies there should be no reason in most countries why secondary textbook prices should exceed US$4-6. However, very small market size combined with a requirement for locally specific content and high specifications will always create more expensive books.
Secondary Textbook Financing

Sources of Finance for Secondary Textbooks

These are:

- **Government**: Usually via bulk procurements and distribution to schools, or less commonly via subsidies (either producer or consumer subsidies) or via purchase budgets provided to schools.
- **Donors**: Usually considered to be in support of, and therefore a variant of, government funding rather than a genuine alternative source of funding. However, NGO funding, often targeted on a district basis only, is a genuine additional funding source.
- **Parents**: Either through direct purchase or less commonly through rental fees or as a specified component of school fees (such as the traditional system in Lesotho, which is now falling into decline).
- **Sponsorship and Fundraising**: This has been utilized in Kenya via the “Harambee” system but is comparatively rare elsewhere. There are some examples in every country of company sponsorship of students in individual schools, usually in towns or villages associated with company activity.

These four basic sources of financing can be combined into mixed financing systems. A number of standard possibilities are listed below:

- Government funding for textbooks in rural areas; parental contributions in urban areas (Senegal).
- Government funding for “core” textbooks; parental funding for “non-core” textbooks.
Government funding for safety net supplies; parent funding for the rest (Uganda, Ghana).

Government/Donor funding for the provision of initial book stocks; government/parents replenish and maintain (Malawi and wherever textbook rental schemes and revolving funds are in the process of development).

Government provides subsidies to reduce costs to parents (Malawi from 1999 to 2002). If the subsidies are provided as supply-side subsidies aimed at parastatal publishers or printers, this system may distort competition (previous secondary textbook systems in Kenya).

Harambees from the community to purchase textbooks sets for the library to assist poorer parents (Kenya).

Mixed financing also occurs almost by accident where governments have taken responsibility for financing some secondary textbooks (Ghana, Tanzania, Zambia, Eritrea, Ethiopia) but fail to make adequate provision in practice. In these circumstances some level of parental funding may develop to fill some of the gaps in supply. The collapse of KSES in Kenya in 1988 led directly to widespread parental purchasing of basic textbooks, which in turn provided a market opportunity by which Kenyan private sector educational publishing was able to survive and prosper. There are indications, however, that parental willingness (or ability) to finance basic secondary textbook supplies is declining in many countries.

Of the 18 countries analysed in Table 7 (see Chapter 5), secondary textbooks were entirely financed by parents in 11 of the countries, were entirely financed by government in 5 countries (although not always adequately) and were part financed by government in 2 countries but with funding levels that required parents to intervene if they could afford it.

Producer versus Consumer Funding

The point at which government funding for secondary textbooks may be applied has significant implications for the local book trade.

Producer financing occurs when government (or donor) funding is provided to textbook suppliers (Publishers, Printers, Distributors). Consumer financing occurs when funding is provided to the Users (Schools, Parents). Producer financing often (but not always) creates supply-side provision systems, reinforces centralized choice, is frequently associated with monopolistic supply, and may act against competition and decentralization. In contrast, Consumer financing tends to support demand-side provision systems, decentralized choice of textbooks at the level of individual schools and competition. Parent purchase of textbooks and parental rental fees maintained in schools for purchasing replacement textbooks are examples of consumer financing. Budgets provided to schools for use in purchasing textbooks is also consumer funding.

Consumer funding for textbooks can be provided by governments/donors via:

- Financial support direct to school bank accounts, usually on a per capita basis
- Vouchers (Local Purchase Orders–LPOs)
- Coupons (for example, UNESCO coupons)
- Order Forms and Purchasing Power Budgets
- Matching Funds to schools to support and encourage parental contributions.
Principles of Effective Textbook Financing

Financing systems for teaching/learning materials should be:

- Affordable
- Sustainable
- Predictable

Affordability requires:

- Clear and consistent policies on funding (Who will pay?).
- A clear understanding (based on market research) of what government and/or parents can realistically and consistently be expected to contribute.
- A realistic curriculum and syllabus design, which has been costed so that year on year funding implications are clearly understood and accepted and are within the affordability parameters defined by market research.
- A minimum profile of learning and teaching materials needed to deliver the curriculum, which is also within agreed affordability limits.
- The application of cost reduction strategies if so required.

Sustainability implies:

- Reliable year on year funding always up to projected budget requirement.
- If parents are expected to contribute (for example, via annual rental fees) high rates of collection must be achieved.
- The consistent achievement of assumed book life targets (so that textbooks and materials do not wear out before replacements arrive, such as occurs in Somalia).
- The consistent achievement of low levels of loss and damage (thus good school storage, effective management systems, good school management, care and conservation, which in turn requires adequate training and effective management and supervision).

Predictability requires:

- Consistent policies which have been carefully researched, well designed and implemented without major changes over time so that MOE officials, teachers, students, and parents all understand how the system works.
- Full and regular consultation with all major players in the system, particularly if significant changes are planned or envisaged.

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9. Most secondary curricula in African countries are not constructed with any deliberate consideration of their downstream cost implications. Secondary schools in Uganda in 2003 commented that a proposed new secondary school curriculum, which required the introduction of new textbooks and a wholesale replacement of existing textbook sets, could not be implemented because no school could afford the cost of textbook replacement and new purchase. Frequent changes in curriculum requirements in Lesotho caused such significant textbook redundancies that secondary schools have widely abandoned purchasing textbooks for loan to students and have reverted to parent purchase because the schools could not afford the financial losses resulting from the curriculum changes and the changes in textbook lists.
Good lead times for any required inputs (for example, new textbooks for a new curriculum) or significant system changes.

- A distribution system that is accurate, reliable and (preferably) based on school level decisionmaking and management.

Few, if any, of the secondary systems reviewed—even those in receipt of significant donor support—could demonstrate very many of the above principles, or even a recognition that affordability, sustainability, and predictability were fundamental requirements for an effective supply of learning and teaching materials.

It should be noted that, if the books and materials supplied are not issued to pupils and are not used effectively, the application of all of the above principles will have no impact on learning outputs, and the effort and money will be wasted. School visits and country reports suggest that many teachers no longer know how to use textbooks and other learning and teaching materials in the classroom to the best effect. For many secondary teachers textbooks are now used solely to write material onto the blackboard for student copying, or as the basis for dictation for student copying. The use of textbooks to add value and to make student/teacher contact hours more effective is now widely in abeyance. More time and investment on usage training are required.10

**Textbook Cost Reduction Strategies**

A number of standard textbook cost reduction strategies could be considered in order to make textbook costs more affordable to either government or parents. These are:

- Fewer subjects and thus fewer textbooks (this requires a curriculum review).
- Reduce page extents (review syllabus content requirements).
- Turn textbooks into books of core content by shifting material into teachers’ guides (supplied at 1 book per class rather than 1 book per 1/2/3 students) or into library books (supplied in small multiples to school libraries rather than in class sets). This strategy will depend for its effectiveness on consistent library funding but it is clear that good school libraries and core content textbooks are potentially cheaper and more effective in terms of learning outputs than no school libraries and overlong textbooks (see Annex).
- Extend book life (review minimum physical production specifications).
- Book sharing and thus reduced book:pupil ratios.
- Reduce use of four colors in secondary textbooks.
- Reduce wastage in manufacturing, warehousing, distribution, school storage, and school usage.
- Use of textbook loan/rental systems.

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10. There are plenty of examples of textbook sets not being issued to students by teachers because this would require the teacher to undertake more lesson planning. Writing the single teachers’ copy of the textbook onto the blackboard or dictating the textbook are “easy” teaching options for many teachers, particularly untrained and underqualified teachers, because they are techniques that require zero preparation time.
Reduce page formats (large formats use more paper and are frequently less durable).

- Short-term rather than long-term student loans in order to reduce loss and damage.
- Greater control over input costs from publishers and printers (review evaluation and approval mechanisms and conditions to ensure that price is a significant factor in evaluation and approval and that pricing is monitored in parent purchase situations).
- Increased use of teachers’ guides.

Very few countries have explored the full range (or even a limited range) of the cost reduction possibilities available to them. Many textbook publishers would object to many of the above strategies on the grounds that they would reduce the market size and have an adverse impact on quality and profit margins. Affordable systems would attract more consistent funding from governments, donors, and parents, which would increase volume sales even if profit margins declined to some extent. The quality issue is real but it would be a challenge to the professional skills of both authors and publishers to achieve quality textbooks within narrower financial limits. The simple reality is that a significant majority of secondary school students have no textbooks. This seriously decreases the quality of education on offer and the value of the learning outputs achieved. A more rigorous approach to cost reduction strategies by both governments and donors could lead to more realistic (because more affordable) secondary textbook financing strategies and thus enlarged secondary textbook markets, which would benefit students, teachers, authors, publishers, and booksellers.

Textbook Rental Schemes and Textbook Revolving Funds

Textbook Rental Schemes

Textbook Rental Schemes (TRS) operate when schools loan textbooks to students at the beginning of the school year for a fee and collect the books back at the end of the year for re-use in subsequent years. In francophone countries, textbook loan schemes were once popular and widespread, and typically involved the student paying a deposit for the books at the beginning of the school year, which was partially returned to parents when textbooks were returned to schools in good condition at the end of the school year. In most francophone countries, the deposits were collected by schools and remitted to central Government, which used the collected funds to buy replacement copies for schools. Thus, the rental scheme and a rudimentary form of revolving fund were combined. These loan schemes started to collapse when textbook supplies could not keep up with the need for replacement (annual attrition rates in Cote d’Ivoire reached 70 percent as a result of poor production specifications and lack of control over distribution and classroom wastage) and when some governments reneged on the return of deposits. Parents saw no reason to pay deposits when textbook loans could no longer be guaranteed to students and when they no longer felt secure that their deposits would be returned.

A highly successful textbook rental scheme and revolving fund operated in Lesotho for primary school textbooks for many years from the early 1980s through to 2005, when it was closed as a result of government policy decisions to shift to free primary textbooks. However, the rental scheme/revolving fund concept had been so successful for primary
textbooks that a new scheme targeted for junior secondary textbooks was designed and then approved by the MOE in 2004. Junior secondary school textbooks were provided to students on a rental basis with the annual rental charge fixed at 20 percent of the cost price, based on a target book life of five years. Early comments on the scheme during the WB mid-term review in April 2006 suggested that:

The textbook rental scheme has proven successful in getting high quality textbooks delivered to schools on time. Further work is needed to perfect the system, particularly the collection and management of the rental fees.

School principals in Lesotho also reported increased secondary enrollment, which they attributed to increased textbook availability and reduced textbook costs resulting from the introduction of the textbook rental scheme. Ministry officials confirmed that in the past the lack of textbooks had been a major barrier to school attendance, and confirmed also that the introduction of the scheme appears to have had an impact on enrollment.

In 2000, Malawi introduced textbook rentals and school-based revolving funds for secondary schools with the support of a Danida-funded Education Project. The scheme was based on the provision of matching funds to schools paid for by Danida for an introductory period of 5 years only, against the collection of rental fees from parents/students. In the severely under-resourced Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSS) the matching funds were set at 100 percent of the rental fees collected by schools, whereas the Conventional Secondary Schools (CSS), which had previously received substantial textbook stocks from other donor funded projects, received only 20 percent matching funds. Rental fees were set nationally but individual secondary schools were responsible for collection and banking in school bank accounts and the secure maintenance of the accumulated fees. The scheme was designed in close consultation with the local publishing and bookselling associations and although there were a number of initial teething problems it had a very stimulating impact on both parts of the local book trade. It was originally planned that the matching fund support should be provided for 5 years, after which period schools would have accumulated sufficient funding to order their replacement requirements without requiring additional financial support. Unfortunately, donor support was terminated early in 2002 but the rental scheme has continued with reasonable effectiveness with no donor or MOE/GoM support simply because it provides cheaper textbook costs and improved access to textbooks to students. Matching fund schemes can be complex in design and implementation but the considerable impact of the scheme in Malawi and its continued survival, despite the early withdrawal of donor support and funding, deserves further study and evaluation as a potential way ahead for many countries suffering from severe textbook shortages.

11. Successful textbook rental schemes and revolving funds normally base rental fee calculations on estimated replacement cost rather than on actual procurement cost. Over a five-year book life, price inflation can be significant, particularly if there are currency devaluations, because the basic raw material of textbooks is paper, which is normally purchased in U.S. currency. Rental fees based on procurement cost may well, as a result, return insufficient funding to fully provide for replacement, which in turn leads to the deterioration in levels of supply and potential non-payment by parents/students.

12. The early termination of project support by Danida was for reasons completely unconnected with the textbook rental scheme and revolving fund, which had been previously evaluated as a highly successful intervention into the secondary education system.
shortages and low level parental affordability. The 2006 Malawi case study (Matawere 2006) commented:

In 2006 85 percent of secondary school students pay their textbook rental fees as part of the total secondary school fee. The 15 percent who don’t pay are those who cannot pay for any part of the school fees. The textbook rental system is working not too badly and the main problem faced is that many schools divert part of the textbook rental fees for other purposes. In 2005 there were 187,167 students enrolled in secondary education and each was required to pay M250 for their annual textbook rental. Assuming an 85 percent collection rate, this should have produced funds for textbook purchase of M39,772,987. In reality total sales from publishers were reported to be around M20 million, so that almost 50 percent of the collected rental fees cannot be accounted for.

It should be noted that the diversion of textbook rental fee income is a consequence of the general underfunding of school secondary schools in Malawi and is not a failure of the textbook rental system. Textbook rental fees represent a convenient pot of money which can be raided by school management to pay for other essential items of school expenditure, such as repairs and maintenance, food, computers, science equipment, and so forth. The effectiveness of the secondary textbook rental scheme in Malawi is demonstrated by the fact that parents continue to support it with annual contributions because it is cheaper and fairer than parent purchase and provides some level of student access to key learning aids. Better supervision of secondary school accounts would ensure the proper use of the accumulated textbook funds.

Botswana, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanzania, and Ghana (among other countries) currently operate some form of textbook loan schemes, although in the case of Ghana this is not comprehensive because of financing delays and in Tanzania school-based per capita funding for textbooks was introduced only in 2005 so the scheme is only in its embryonic stage.

In a number of Anglophone countries (Lesotho, Kenya, Uganda) textbook rental schemes were traditionally run by some individual secondary schools, but in the past 10 years schools have tended to terminate these schemes as a result of rising costs, declining parental ability to pay textbook fees, and an increasing tendency for sudden changes in approved book lists, which have left many secondary schools with large quantities of redundant textbooks and heavy financial losses. For example, many countries in East and Central Africa complain about sudden changes in literature set texts for examinations, which also cause financial losses to schools. In some countries (such as Uganda) the number of students taking literature examinations has declined as a direct result of frequent changes in the set texts, which a majority of secondary schools simply cannot afford to replace.

Many of the more prestigious secondary schools still attempt to maintain class sets of at least core subject texts (language, Math, science) for loan to students and include the cost of maintaining these sets in the school fees. Unfortunately, an increasing number of

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13. A textbook rental scheme implies that students/parents make financial contributions to borrow textbooks. A textbook loan scheme implies that no financial contribution is required in order to borrow textbooks.

14. There are no similar complaints from West Africa because literature set texts are controlled by the West African Exams Council (WAEC) rather than by national examination boards as in East and Central Africa.
schools now feel that they can no longer afford the investment costs or cope with the financial risks resulting from frequent curriculum changes. As a result, textbook loans/rentals appear to be on the decline, despite the fact that there is considerable evidence that rental schemes are strongly supported by parents where they are well-designed and managed. An increasing number of secondary schools now either create book lists for student/parent purchase or simply managing without textbooks.

Textbook rental schemes are usually preferred to parental purchasing systems by a majority of parents and students because: (a) the initial investment is much reduced; (b) there is greater equity in textbook access because parent purchase systems tend to result in textbooks for the rich and no textbooks for the poor, whereas textbook rental/loan schemes provide access to all students; and (c) the problems of poor textbook availability in rural and remote areas can be obviated if schools are responsible for procurement rather than parents.

**Textbook Revolving Funds**

A Textbook Revolving Fund (TRF) is a funding mechanism in which the annual expenditure on book purchases from a dedicated fund is balanced by the annual income into the fund from rental fees or from government contributions or from a mixture of both. TRFs are generally restricted to expenditure on specified items of teaching/learning materials. TRFs may be national, regional/district-based, or school-based. They may self-financing via parental contributions, or government-supported via percent subventions, matching funds, or support for the poorest.

Because a major cost element in books is paper and paper is generally purchased in the international market in U.S. currency, the potential loss of purchasing power resulting from currency fluctuations may be minimized by the use of U.S. dollar bank accounts. Well-established and tested techniques exist to operate and manage even multiple, school-based TRF bank accounts.

TRFs require good financial management in the annual review of rental fees, the maintenance of high levels of collection and the balancing of income against expenditure. Even in school-based TRFs there should be central decisionmaking on fee levels and supervision and checking of collection rates.

In recent years, there have been suggestions that textbook rental schemes and revolving funds are difficult to manage and operate. Certainly they require experienced and careful design, and they need plenty of training and supervision in the establishment period, and regular financial monitoring thereafter. Common problems include an unwillingness on the part of governments to approve annual rental fee increases to maintain purchasing power at an acceptable level, and a general decline in collection rates after the initial novelty has worn off. However, Lesotho managed to maintain its primary textbook rental scheme and revolving fund for well over 20 years and Malawi has maintained student textbook rental fee collection rates at over 85 percent despite receiving no donor/government financial support and no regular monitoring since the sudden withdrawal of the donor in 2002. It should also be noted that in recent years the concepts of the TRS and TRF have been quite widely and very successfully established in countries of the Former Soviet Union to solve the chronic shortages of textbooks that became evident after the breakup of the Soviet
Union in the early 1990s. Armenia has a model textbook rental scheme and revolving fund and there are also very successful schemes currently operating in Moldova and Uzbekistan.

Schemes where schools include rental fee charges as part of the general school fee and maintain textbook loan collections purchased from the school fees are simply a disguised form of a textbook rental scheme. Experience suggests that if parents and students are fully aware that a designated portion of the school fee is allocated to the purchase and maintenance of textbook sets for loan by students then there is likely to be greater motivation to pay the fee and greater interest in ensuring that schools do in fact provide the specified textbook loans. The example of Cote d'Ivoire quoted above, where an operational textbook rental scheme collapsed because of high attrition rates and the failure of government to return deposits is a clear example of what can go wrong. Nevertheless, well-designed and managed rental schemes and revolving funds probably provide the most cost effective method of textbook provision if also combined with other cost reduction strategies (see above).

The Importance of the Secondhand Textbook Market

Secondhand textbooks are an important means of providing low cost access to textbooks in any market where parent purchase is a significant factor. They can be organized by individual schools or by commercial booksellers (often called pavement or verandah booksellers). They flourish in Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, and Uganda, but not yet in Tanzania because parental involvement in the market is still in its infancy. They are pretty much absent in Somalia, Ethiopia, and Eritrea, where there is no tradition of parent purchase.

Secondhand book markets can be responsible for diversion of state supplies of books away from state secondary schools to the secondhand markets where many private school students come to buy their textbooks.

Piracy and Pamphlets

Sales of pirate editions of secondary textbooks are now developing rapidly in West Africa (in Nigeria and Cameroon in particular) reportedly organized from Chinese printers. In East Africa the production of low quality teachers’ notes with photocopied or plagiarized extracts from standard textbooks is also now widespread. Kenya has always attracted the publication of “crammers” (revision guides), which are often more popular than textbooks.

Textbooks as a Percentage of Secondary Education Costs:
A Case Study from Lesotho

In Lesotho, two schools, one government and one church school, provided access to their accounts, which were then simplified to demonstrate the variable contributions made by parents, government, and other income sources to the total operational costs of the schools concerned. Table 3 is the simplified representation of the church school accounts and Table 4 is the simplified representation of the accounts of the government school. All values are in Maluti (M).
Tables 3 and 4 demonstrate that parental contributions represented a significant contribution to the running and development costs of both GoL and other types of school, but that they are much more significant in Church (and Community Schools) than in GoL schools. This is because GoL subventions to GoL schools enable fees in GoL schools to be set at lower levels than in Church or Community Schools. However, when the total costs of education (including uniforms, stationery and textbooks) are calculated it is clear that parental contributions are by far the most important factor in both GoL and other types of school (70.2 percent for GoL schools and 74.6 percent for other types of schools). Nevertheless, as far as parents are concerned, it is likely that the main benefits of current GoL support to GoL schools are:

- Lower levels of school fees
- Higher levels of capital development funding.

The cost of required textbooks represented 28 percent of total school costs and 41 percent of parental costs in GoL schools and 23 percent of total school costs and 31 percent of parental costs in the church school. Of course, the real level of parental expenditure on

---

### Table 3. Simplified Accounts of a Church School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Value (M)</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Value (M)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Fees</td>
<td>811,200.00</td>
<td>Teachers’ salaries</td>
<td>840,200.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exam Fees</td>
<td>121,200.00</td>
<td>Other Salaries</td>
<td>82,450.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE Salary Contribution</td>
<td>709,750.00</td>
<td>Exam Fees payable to ECOL</td>
<td>121,210.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bursaries (mostly from GoL)</td>
<td>8,600.00</td>
<td>Gov’t Levy</td>
<td>17,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE Maintenance Grants</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Operational Costs</td>
<td>249,890.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE Capital Development Grants</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Capital Development</td>
<td>337,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Income</td>
<td>5,500.00</td>
<td>Contingency</td>
<td>8,500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Income</td>
<td>1,656,250.00</td>
<td>Total School Expenditure</td>
<td>1,656,250.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Contribution to Uniforms</td>
<td>434,000.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Contributions to Stationery</td>
<td>102,480.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential Parental Contributions to Textbooks*</td>
<td>644,140.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Educational Expenditure</td>
<td>2,836,870.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Contributions</td>
<td>2,113,020.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Contributions</td>
<td>718,350.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Contributions</td>
<td>5,500.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* This figure is a notional calculation based on the assuming that parents had bought the minimum required textbooks, which of course relatively few had managed to do.
Textbooks is overstated in this example because very few parents can afford to pay for the full costs of required textbooks.

**Textbooks as a Percentage of Secondary Education Costs: A Case Study from Uganda**

In Uganda, individual school operational budgets were collected from a number of different types of secondary schools (both private and government-aided, boarding and day schools) and were analyzed. The main points to note arising from the financial analysis were as follows:

- At the top end of the secondary school market, school boarding/tuition fees for government, grant-aided and private secondary schools seemed to be quite similar at around USh450,000 (US$260) per term or USh1,350,000 (US$780) per year. Day school fees were generally at around half of the boarding rate.
- The “average” government grant-aided secondary school and private school were also quite similar in fee structure with annual boarding/tuition fees of around Ush750,000 (US$430) and day fees once again at around half of the boarding amount. The difference between the fees of unaided schools and government aided schools was generally greater in this band than in the “top” band, simply because government grants represented a higher percentage of annual operating costs (the

| Table 4. Simplified Accounts of a Government of Lesotho (GoL) School |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| **Income**             | **Expenditure**         |
| **Item**               | **Value (M)**          | **Item**               | **Value (M)**          |
| School Fees            | 428,900.00             | Teachers’ salaries     | 882,469.00             |
| Exam Fees              | 156,302.00             | Other Salaries         | 114,002.00             |
| MOE Salary Contribution| 810,664.00             | Exam Fees payable to ECOL | 156,302.00            |
| Bursaries (mostly from GoL) | 30,000.00       | Gov’t Levy             | 24,100.00              |
| MOE Maintenance Grants | 68,000.00              | Operational Costs      | 284,110.00             |
| MOE Capital Development Grants | 48,000.00   | Capital Development    | 110,220.00             |
| Other Income           | 29,337.00              | Contingency            | —                      |
| Total Income           | 1,571,203.00           | Total School Expenditure | 1,571,503.00          |
|                        |                       | Parental Contribution to Uniforms | 597,680.00       |
|                        |                       | Parental Contributions to Stationery | 141,300.00       |
|                        |                       | Potential Parental Contributions to Textbooks | 906,168.00       |
|                        |                       | Total Educational Expenditure | 3,216,651.00     |
|                        |                       | Parental Contributions | 2,230,350.00         |
|                        |                       | Government Contributions | 956,664.00         |
|                        |                       | Other Contributions     | 29,337.00             |
per capita grants were the same but the level of annual operating costs were considerably less for the “middle” band schools).

The bottom end of the secondary school market appeared to be occupied almost entirely by private (non-aided) secondary schools charging annual boarding/tuition fees of around USh300,000 (US$170) and day fees of USh120-150,000 per year (US$80-85) or even less in some cases.

At the top end of the market, an analysis of annual school income sources and school budgets suggests that the combined government grant aid (salaries, maintenance grants, and development grants) amounts to no more than 10–15 percent of school operating budgets and that the rest of the required funding has to be raised via direct charges on parents. In most schools these are divided between “PTA Charges” and “BOG (Board of Governors) Charges.” There is a concern that the rapid expansion of secondary education, particularly in the non-assisted categories, could lead to a loss of MoES control over much of the secondary system. Basic inspection services are already severely overstretched, and genuine inspection, health, safety, and minimum quality assurance is now hardly possible, in a very real sense, for a large majority even of the government-aided secondary schools.

In the “average” secondary school category, government grant aid seems to provide 18–25 percent of school income for boarding schools and perhaps 25 to 30 percent for day schools.

A number of secondary schools in the “average” and “good” categories attempt to maintain either a basic collection of textbooks for core subjects at least—although this may amount to as few as one textbook per 10 students or even fewer in “non-core” subjects. Private schools at the bottom end of the market aspire to no more than one textbook per subject for the use of the teacher and they generally make no attempt to provide class sets or even loan access via a library. In the best secondary schools (grant-aided and private) there is usually an annual budget line for textbook sets and a library budget line to purchase a few loan copies for students to access for homework and private study via the school library. In general, textbook and library budgets combined very rarely amount to more than 1–2 percent of school annual expenditure in the best schools. In practical terms, very few schools spend enough to purchase more than one textbook per three students in a limited range of core subjects per year. Many schools attempt only to provide the most basic level of textbook and library provision out of fee income and some provide substantial book lists for students to purchase directly as additional extra-budgetary cost items. Very few students attempt to purchase more than one or two texts out of their own funds, usually in Math, English language or science subjects.

The level of government financial support, even for fully grant-aided secondary schools “owned” by the government, rarely, if ever, exceeds 25–30 percent of annual

15. Parents pay one fee per term but the fee is divided into a BOG allocation and a PTA allocation with different categories of expenditure coming under each. If only the statutory fee of USh4,000 and government grants went to the BOG and all other income was with the PTA, then the BOG would lose effective operational control of the school because all of the critical policy decisions based on financing would be with the PTA. Thus, Head teachers and the BOG strive to get as much as possible of the parental contributions paid under the BOG heading.
operating and development expenditure. In most cases for most students in government grant-aided schools the level of government financial support is probably less than 20 percent of annual expenditure. In the best schools, where there is an attempt to provide better facilities and conditions and where parental fees are higher as a result, the level of government financial support in the school accounts analysed varied from only 10 to 14 percent.

In these circumstances, where all secondary school students have to pay substantial fees for secondary education whether they attend government-aided or private schools, it can be argued that the distinction between government-aided and private secondary schools is slight. According to this view, all secondary school education in Uganda is essentially privately funded in the sense that the great majority of school expenditure in every school is carried by parents via school fees and extra-budgetary expenditure.

The inevitable consequence of this situation is that financial savings in schools are achieved by severe cutbacks in qualified staffing, boarding and classroom facilities, laboratories, libraries, textbook provision, equipment, and consumable supplies. Staff salaries, food, and the most basic maintenance become the ultimate priorities for a high proportion of secondary schools. Schools increasingly achieve savings by transferring the costs of secondary textbooks from the compulsory fee component of their funding to discretionary parental spending. As a result, the majority of students, even in the best schools, do not have access to all the books that they need in order to complete the specified curriculum. The quality of secondary education provided by the majority of lower-tier secondary schools is extremely poor as a result. In some schools the level of secondary education on offer is almost certainly not worth even the very reduced level of parental contributions in cost-benefit terms, but these schools are the only secondary schools that poor students can afford.

Table 5 demonstrates that none of the schools surveyed in Uganda had allocated textbook budgets sufficient to reach even the minimum levels of textbook requirement within normal textbook life expectancy, even with outstanding levels of book care and devotion (six to eight years of textbook life, or even longer, appears to be achievable by many secondary schools, although textbook condition is generally pretty poor after eight years of use). Three schools allocated no textbook budget at all. Of the others, School No. 2 would achieve the minimum requirements with its current textbook budget in just under 19 years and School No. 6 would achieve this position in just over 15 years, but only if they managed to avoid all wastage to current stock—and these are two elite schools with the best allocated textbook purchase budgets. School No. 8 will reach its minimum requirement at current levels of spending in 167 years. The mean figure for all 11 schools is 40 years to achieve minimum requirements against a reasonable average book life expectation of 8 years. Clearly, insufficient funding is available (or is allocated) to support even the most modest levels of provision.

It is clear from Table 5 that the only ways of closing the financing gap for basic textbook provision is either to dramatically increase annual textbook expenditure from school annual budgets/student contributions or to reduce unit textbook costs or to reduce the minimum textbook requirement. In reality, all of these objectives must be achieved if secondary schools are to achieve and sustain a minimum level of textbook availability to students.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>School Roll Number</th>
<th>Basic Textbook Requirement (assume 10 textbooks and 1:3 ratio)</th>
<th>School Annual Textbook Budget (US$)</th>
<th>Purchasing Power (Books/Year)</th>
<th>No of Years to Achieve Basic Textbook Requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>3666</td>
<td>1,700</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>4000</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>3333</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Never</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>6000</td>
<td>2285</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>1267</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>566</td>
<td>1887</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>1067</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7,236</td>
<td>24,120</td>
<td>8,985</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Textbook Financing in Francophone Countries

Secondary textbook financing in francophone Africa is always parent funded. No textbook rental schemes or revolving funds currently operate in francophone countries although a form of rental scheme used to exist in Togo, but terminated in the 1990s. As a result, a very large secondhand market exists, where the boundaries with pirated/stolen books are blurred. Most secondhand books are sold by informal booksellers (*Librairies par terre*), with minimum overheads, which normally only operate during “peak” times and are tolerated by the authorities. Without low-cost secondhand textbook supplies, most students in secondary schools would have no access to textbooks at all. Secondhand prices may be only 15–20 percent of the full price. Textbook condition under these circumstances is quite variable but a sensible purchaser would normally check to make sure that at least all the pages are present.
CHAPTER 3

Secondary Textbook Availability

Textbook Availability in Uganda (2002/03)

In Uganda in 2002 even the best and most prestigious secondary schools were seriously short of basic textbooks even in the core subjects of Math and English for UCE and UACE. Where textbook sets were available they were typically old (frequently between 6 and 20+ years of use) and although they were usually looked after with a remarkable degree of care and devotion, they were often in very poor condition. The most significant sources of subject information for students came from: (a) notes copied from the blackboard or dictated by teachers or (b) from cheaply produced pamphlets written by teachers based on their own lecture notes from university plus plagiarized or photocopied extracts from standard textbooks, which were sold to students by the teachers. These pamphlets often represented a significant salary supplement for secondary teachers and they were so popular that they were even stocked and sold by leading booksellers.

The lower-level private schools and the “average” government-aided secondary schools, probably the majority, had very few, if any, textbooks available for student use. The best that could be hoped for in most circumstances was that teachers would have their own copy of a basic subject textbook. None of the 35 schools visited—even the very expensive and prestigious schools—had adequate textbook supplies for most subjects. The average school had very poor textbook stocks. Many secondary schools, and particularly the private schools with very low fees catering for students who cannot afford any other kind of secondary education, usually have no access to any books. Poor levels of textbook provision were not the prerogative just of unaided schools. Government assisted schools were also generally severely underprovided.

The following case studies of secondary textbook and library provision have been reproduced from the Uganda study of instructional materials provision (Read and others 2002).
Case Study 1

This case involves a large (1100 students), long-established, prestigious, grant-aided religious foundation secondary school in Kampala with a good and rapidly increasing reputation for sound management and good exam results. Fees are USh300,000 (US$170) per term for boarders (the vast majority of students) and around USh130,000 (US$75) per term for day students. Approximately 3.0 percent of the annual school budget (USh3,000,000—US$1,700) is spent on textbooks and library stock every year.

The school maintains 1:1 textbook sets in Math and English Language for S1 to S6 but this needs some qualification. For example, there are 200 students in S1 but the school only has 60 English and Math textbooks for S1. However, the working day is carefully timetabled so that the four different streams of S1 students never have Math and English at the same time. The textbooks are issued at the beginning of each class and collected at the end and then passed on to the next class for re-use. In this way an effective 1:1 book:pupil ratio can be maintained during class time even though the actual ratio is really closer to 1:3.5. Approximately five copies of each textbook are maintained in the school library for homework use and homework is set at least one week in advance to give every student some chance to use the textbooks for reference. This style of use requires good school management skills, and sensitive and careful scheduling. However, there are many schools (probably the majority) who do not have these skills and thus cannot provide this level of access.

The current English and Math textbooks are six years old. When asked how long the textbooks were expected to last, the head teacher replied “forever.” Some of the textbooks have now been rebound twice and are still in relatively poor condition but all the pages are present (although the edges of many pages are taped to prevent damage). Loss and write-off rates are about 1–2 percent per year. The school purchases just a few replacement copies or top-up copies each year as roll numbers grow and books come to the end of their life or are lost or terminally damaged. The idea that the books might be made completely redundant by a new syllabus, and that completely new sets of textbooks would need to be purchased, was greeted with consternation and horror. The school would not have the financial resources to replace complete sets of books at one time. Thus, any kind of significant curriculum reform must be accompanied by substantial financial support to schools to replace the basic textbook sets.

In almost all other subjects, textbook:pupil ratios are between 1:10 and 1:20 for S1 to S4 and around 1:20 for S5 and S6. The Chemistry textbook set has original books that are over 20 years old, once again rebound many times and in pretty bad condition, but with most pages present and correct. Single copies or small multiple sets are purchased for the school library so that students can take turns to use them. Because of the need for fast turnover, all library book loans are for overnight only. In 1997 the literature examinations were changed but the school was not informed; there was a serious crisis because the students had studied the wrong literature texts.

The school library is very small with only 35 reading spaces for 860 students in the UCE section and 25 reading spaces for 240 students in the UACE section. Over the years the school has built up a good collection of fiction (largely 19th and 20th century English literature paperback reprints) and every student is required to read and review four fiction books per term. The school would like to have more contemporary African fiction but cannot find adequate stock in local booksellers even if it had the necessary purchase funds. A new and much larger
school library is the fifth priority in the school development plan and probably will take three years before it is completed. All students are required to buy their own copies of a Bible, a dictionary, and an atlas. No other book list is issued. The school accepts responsibility for the basic provision of all textbooks and library books required by the students.

**Case Study 2**

This case is one of the most prestigious and sought after grant-aided secondary schools in the country with an annual operational budget of around USh1.6 billion per year. Textbook and library budgets are allocated on a departmental basis rather than to the library and, as a result, the school finds it difficult to calculate exactly what percent of budget is spent on books and other instructional materials each year, but guesses that it might be around 3.5 percent (Ush5.6 million – US$3,200).

The school operates a practical 1:1 book:student ratio in Math and English Language for S1 to S4 and for English Literature set books in S5 and S6. All other subjects attempt to maintain a basic ratio of 1:3. Once again this is achieved by very careful scheduling so that a single textbook set can be used by three or four parallel streams. The actual ratio for Math and English Language is 1:3 or 4 and for other subjects is 1:9 or 10. Small multiple library sets and long homework/preparation lead times enable many students to use the library copies for private study; loans of three to five days are permitted. Library stock loss through theft averages around 10 percent per year. No borrowing of the basic class sets is permitted.

Some of the Science textbook sets are very old indeed. Physics and Chemistry both have a majority of textbooks which are close to 20 years old. Regular rebinding, careful management and conservation, and a piecemeal replacement policy enable basic textbook and library provision to be maintained to students. The school would be very concerned by any MoES curriculum policy that required the mass replacement of entire class sets.

The school library has only 40 reading spaces for 1200 students and is very old. A new library is in the process of construction funded by the school Development Fund. Library stock is generally very old and the school would like to be able to buy a lot more contemporary African fiction and a wider range of supplementary, curriculum extension books and materials for student research and private study, but they are not well stocked locally and most booksellers are reluctant to order without cash up front. The school is very reluctant to tie up its scarce cash resources in deposits with booksellers. The possibility of organizing joint buying trips to Nairobi in association with neighboring secondary schools has been considered, but has not been organized yet.

Book lists for S1 and S5 are issued but very few students buy their own texts. The book lists tend to reflect what is available locally rather than what is most required. Books are selected by departmental staff, largely without concern for price or affordability, and often on the basis of the books that teachers were familiar with when they were students. Thus older textbooks tend to be perpetuated in use.

**Case Study 3**

This case is a small privately owned (entrepreneurial) day secondary school in Masindi District with an enrollment of 200. Annual fees of Ush150,000 (US$85.00). There is no library and there are no textbook sets. The school has bought one copy of each basic textbook for the use of teachers. There are no other books in the school at all. The school issues a book list
but students never buy. Many students cannot even afford the fees and a number of students
perform labor in lieu of fees. There is no local bookshop, which stocks the textbooks on the
list and nowhere for parents to go, except Kampala, if they wanted to buy. The books on the
school book list are largely those used by the teachers when they were at school.

Case Study 4

This case covers a large privately-owned, unaided secondary school (charitable trust) in
the suburbs of Kampala with over 1000 students and annual fees of around USh1.2 million
(US$685) per year for boarders. There are very few textbooks in the school and although
there is a library it is virtually an empty room with very little stock. A book list is issued to
students but very few students buy any textbooks. Teachers have a copy of the textbook.
Informal pamphlets and teachers’ notes copied from the blackboard are the commonest
forms of instructional materials available in this expensive school.

Case Study 5

This case is a rural, government-aided (religious foundation) girls boarding school oper-
at ing up to S4 with an enrollment of 200. Fees are USh90,000 (US$50.00) per term. The
school has sets of Math books for S1 to S4 at a ratio of 1:2. For English Language there is
one teachers’ copy per class. There are one or two science textbooks per class. There are
no textbooks, even for teachers, in any other subject; teachers must rely on their own
school notes.

The library is a classroom with very few books, most of which are donations and are
mostly old and irrelevant. The MoES has supplied a few Science and Math books in the last
two years. There is no school budget allocation for textbooks and the library and the school
will only buy one or two books when it becomes absolutely necessary. Food and building
maintenance are the absolute budget priorities because fee rates are very low as a result of
low levels of parent affordability. A basic book list is issued to students, but few students,
if any, buy their own textbooks. No bookshop exists anywhere in the district stocks a
reasonable selection of secondary school textbooks.


A study of Instructional Materials provision in Junior Secondary Schools in Lesotho in
2003 provided detailed information on textbook availability (Read 2003). Table 6 provides
a summary of textbook availability in 11 surveyed schools. The data recorded in this table
is based on head teacher’ assessments of the level of student access to, or ownership of, basic
sets of core textbooks in their respective schools, supported by classroom inspections to
ensure that the estimates were an accurate reflection of the current situation in each school.

Of the schools surveyed only one considered that textbook availability in their school
was satisfactory. This school was one of the most prestigious and sought-after schools in
the country with high fee levels and an average of eight applicants for every student place.
Thus, the school could afford to insist on the full payment of textbook fees as a condition
for entry. Of the remaining schools, one categorized itself as having 30 percent of its students
with few or no books, seven as having more than 60 percent of the students with few or no
books, and two as having 95 percent of their students in this situation. Of the 6,330
students enrolled in the 11 schools, 3,393 (53.6 percent) were assessed as having little or no access to basic textbooks. All the surveyed schools were located in Maseru or in the lowlands where traditionally the best levels of textbook provision would be expected. A similar survey conducted in secondary schools in mountain areas would have produced far worse results in terms of student access to textbooks.

Ten out of 11 schools agreed that in the past five years (1998–2003) the levels of textbook availability had declined sharply, partly because most schools were no longer taking responsibility for textbook provision because of the increased risks of financial losses resulting from non-sales to parents or the non-payment of loan fees, but also because of the risk of expensive stock redundancies caused by too frequent changes in the approved book list. Because most secondary schools had opted out of textbook provision a majority of parents were no longer in a position to afford the recommended book lists. Several head teachers commented that school-based textbook rental schemes that had operated for perhaps 10 years had been discontinued to avoid financial risk, despite the fact that parents preferred the rental option because of the significant price reduction. Some schools commented that secondary textbook availability in bookshops was no longer as reliable as in the past and some booksellers agreed that there was increased pressure to be conservative in stocking levels because of increased risks of non-sales or of the removal of titles from the approved booklists without adequate warning. There was some degree of correlation between those schools that recommended modest and affordable book lists and better levels of textbook availability.

**Textbook Availability in Zambia (2002 and 2005)**

In 2002, a Danida Aide Memoire on secondary schools in Zambia noted that MOE supplies of textbooks and library books had been generally small scale and unreliable (Kiernan and Read 2002). All schools visited had complained that MOE-funded supplies had been completely inadequate for at least the past four years. Only one of six secondary schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Estimated % with few or no textbooks</th>
<th>Actual Number with few or no textbooks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>53.6%</td>
<td>3393</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
interviewed had a budget line for textbook/library purchases and the remaining five schools were thus entirely dependent for basic textbook provision on government, donors, or parents. Only two of the six schools issued a textbook list for student/parent purchase. Local publishers commented that secondary textbooks sales were an insignificant part of their annual turnover\(^{16}\). Most secondary schools had very poor supplies of essential textbooks and other learning materials and often the only available subject textbook was a copy held by the teacher. Schools generally try to invest at least in teachers’ copies of key textbooks. Student textbook sets are generally confined to titles that have been supplied by government\(^{17}\) and the textbook sets rarely have better than a 1:3 ratio. Most schools considered that the lack of textbooks was a serious constraint to quality and performance. It was also noted that there was an acute shortage of laboratory equipment, computers, consumable supplies (e.g. chemicals), desks, chairs, tables, cupboards etc. This situation was considered to be far worse in rural than in urban schools–but even urban schools complained of severe furniture and equipment problems.

The situation described above was broadly confirmed in July 2005 by a sub-sector study of High Schools in Zambia (Centre for International Development and Training 2005), which reported that:

> the current provision of textbooks at high schools is deplorable. Observation suggests that at its most generous the book:pupil ratio is around 1:4, but 1:40 is not uncommon. In many cases the only textbook is in the hands of the teacher who uses it as the basis for lessons . . . . There is an urgent need for an emergency “book flood” to help remedy the situation.

This study also noted that the current textbook list contained inappropriate titles and recommended the introduction of textbooks written and priced specially for Zambia. It also noted that “ . . . a significant number of high schools have no workshop, no home economics classroom and no library.” In fact 168 out of 319 high schools in Zambia had no school library at all in 2005.

### Textbook Availability in Mozambique (2000/2001)

A secondary textbook study in Mozambique conducted in December 2000 reported official estimates of textbook:pupil ratios in the core subjects of Portuguese and Math as between 1:4 and 1:6 (Bontox 2000). In other subjects textbook availability for students was very rare. In some urban schools small groups of students were provided with five or six textbooks on an annual loan basis and were required to organize usage and access among themselves. The size of these student groups was typically between 10 and 12 students. Secondary schools in rural areas revealed extremely low levels of textbook availability. A secondary school in Macia with an enrollment of 1500 students had a total of 100 textbooks covering all subjects for all grade levels. In other schools textbook:pupil ratios of anywhere

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16. Publishers and booksellers agreed that institutional purchases were limited to grant-aided schools and that Catholic schools purchased more than other denominations. Even Catholic school purchases were not generally in significant quantities.

17. Only one school (Kafue Boys Secondary School) of those schools interviewed claimed to have class sets of textbooks for most subjects in most grades, usually at a ratio of 1:3 or 1:2.
between 1:40 and 1:100 were standard. A number of Ministry of Education officials hypothesized that one of the problems in motivating students/parents to purchase their own textbooks was the lack of a clear understanding among teachers and students as to how textbooks should be used. Teachers typically copied large sections of available textbooks direct onto the blackboard for students to copy into their notebooks. In these circumstances, students often find it difficult to understand why they should buy their own copy of the textbook. It was also believed that parental purchase of textbooks was affected by lack of stocks in booksellers, particularly in rural areas. To test this out US$30,000 of secondary textbook stock was sent to a rural area at the beginning of the school year to encourage parental purchase. Not a single textbook sale was achieved as a result.

No other quantitative studies of secondary textbook availability in sub-Saharan Africa conducted within the past six years were identified by the research but the following notes on the situation in individual countries are based on case study reports and interviews with knowledgeable observers (MOE interviews, educational consultants, and publishers/booksellers).

Notes on Textbook Availability in Other Countries

In Nigeria textbooks are largely parent purchased although there are occasional bulk procurements of selected textbooks in some states. Textbook purchase tends to be concentrated on the core subjects of English and Math and it is estimated nationwide that perhaps 20 percent of all secondary school students have their own copies of textbooks in these two subject areas. A high proportion will be secondhand books where the condition of the textbooks is very variable but often very poor. Class teaching is often made far more difficult by the fact that not all students have copies of the same textbook or the same edition of the same textbook. There is also a growing sale of illegal pirated textbooks supplied to bookseller order from China. Outside the core subjects, levels of textbook ownership are much worse. Obviously there are considerable geographic variations and rural areas tend to be supplied worse than urban areas with low level private schools among the worst supplied of all. Many schools only have teachers’ copies of textbooks or may have no copies of textbooks even for teachers.

Secondary textbook provision in Kenya is also entirely parent funded. Good schools in urban areas may have 40 percent of their pupils with textbook ownership in core subjects (Math, English, and Kiswahili). In other subject areas it is estimated that the ratios vary between 1:8 and 1:10 in good schools in urban areas. Once again, there is a significant secondhand market for school textbooks. Some of the better and more prestigious state and state-aided secondary schools include textbook loan fees in their school fees menu and in these cases schools take some responsibility for ensuring that students get some level of access to the core texts. In rural areas core textbook ownership may be available to only 5 percent of the student population and ownership of other textbooks can be very rare or non-existent. In rural areas there are students who go through their entire secondary school life without ever using a textbook in any subject in any grade. In most secondary schools there is an attempt to ensure that at least one copy of a teachers’ book is available in all main subjects but in the lower-level private schools not even this is true. Regrettably, the majority of secondary school students are poor and unable to purchase the textbooks.
they require. Indeed, quite often, some parents are known to pool resources so they could provide the basic textbooks needed to see their children through secondary school. On joining form one, most schools require that students buy at least a dictionary, an atlas, a named story book, and a geometry set, but less than 50 percent of the students are able to afford even this low level of basic specification. The situation is far worse when it comes to textbooks. While schools are keen to purchase literature set books for form 3 and form 4, textbooks for all subjects are never enough to go around. Few schools are able to buy books from a central fund contributed to by the parents. The government offers no assistance to secondary schools. Currently, there is a growing demand from parents and teachers that the MOES should consider some form of assistance to secondary textbooks.

The European Union supplied textbooks in all subjects to Somalia at a ratio of 1:3 in 1998/1999. It was assumed the textbooks would have an effective classroom life of four years and thus replacement stock should have been provided in 2002/2003. In 2006 no replacement copies have been provided and textbook stocks in schools are deteriorating fast. There is no reliable information on the current level of textbook availability in schools but it is certainly now far worse than 1 book per 3 students. Loss, damage, theft, and so forth have significantly reduced textbook stocks. Although most schools have remnants of the original textbook stocks, there is great variation in the size and condition of these sets. Parental purchase of textbooks is not well established. The only bookshops stocking secondary textbooks are in Hargeisa and Mogadishu and most parents are not motivated to buy.

Since 2005 schools in Tanzania have received capitation grants to spend on textbooks and school library materials (US$8.00 per student per year). Although this has obviously had an impact on the availability of secondary textbook supplies, huge variations are reported in textbook:pupil ratios in different schools and in different parts of the country. These variations result from differences of opinion among school staff as to how capitation funds should be spent. In some schools there is a concentration on building up strong stocks of core textbooks, whereas in other schools funding is spread more evenly over all subjects. In some cases the concentration is entirely upon textbooks for examination forms. In others some of the funding is allocated to the development of school libraries. There are also suspicions that a proportion of the allocated funding is not used for learning and teaching materials at all but for other items of essential school expenditure. However, the capitation funding is only into its second year of operation and at least five years of funding will be required before reliable patterns of availability become more discernible.

Secondary textbook supply in Ghana is also supported by state funding, but in this case the Ministry of Education purchases in bulk and distributes to schools. There is no current estimate concerning textbook:student ratios either for core textbooks or for other textbooks and informed observers found it impossible to make an estimate of the current level of provision. However, there is widespread agreement that textbook provision is seriously inadequate and that there is either a need for more government funding or for more parental contributions.

18. The average cost of a secondary textbook in Tanzania is currently approximately US$4.00. Thus an annual capitation grant of US$8.00 if spent entirely on textbooks would be sufficient to purchase two textbooks per student per year. With a specified requirement of about 10 books per student to cover basic textbooks, dictionaries, atlases, and so forth, this level of capitation should be sufficient to provide for close to 1:1 textbook pupil ratios in all specified subjects on the assumption of a five-year book life.
In Malawi there has been occasional donor funding of secondary textbook supplies, largely to the established state Conventional Secondary Schools (CSS) but the dominant form of textbook provision is via student loans funded by textbook rental fees. Every school has a textbook fund bank account into which annual textbook rental fees are paid and the funds in this bank account are used to purchase textbook stocks for loans to students. There are concerns that these funds may be diverted for non-textbook purposes. It is currently estimated that 85 percent of students pay the textbook rental fees as part of their school fees. However, the government is unwilling to increase the rental fees on an annual basis to maintain parity with inflation and devaluation and as a result the purchasing power of the school textbook fund has declined sharply in the last four years. There are significant geographical variations in collection rates which tend to be higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Publishers and booksellers complain that schools divert textbook funds for non-textbook purposes. It is currently estimated that 25 percent of schools have made reasonable provision for core subjects in all secondary grades. In practice this means 1:4 or 1:3. The other 75 percent of schools is estimated to operate somewhere between 1:6 and 1:8 for core subjects (i.e. English and Math). Most other subjects at all levels survive on the basis of a few textbooks held in the library for overnight borrowing by students. There is no obvious piracy and the secondhand book market is not well developed. In general, private schools are not significantly better supplied than state or state-assisted schools and the lower level private schools often have very few textbooks.

Botswana aims at a target of 1 book per student for all secondary subjects at all secondary grades. Nine subjects are specified for lower secondary and seven for upper secondary. In addition there is a requirement for a dictionary and an atlas. Schools are provided with very generous capitation grants (officially US$65 per student per year at junior secondary and US$180 per student per year at senior secondary). Textbooks are loaned to students by the school and are collected at the end of each year. The 1:1 book:pupil ratio is probably achieved or close to being achieved in all main subjects for all grades in most schools. In addition funds remain to purchase stocks for supplementary, curriculum enrichment and reading books for school libraries. However, even in Botswana funding budgets are coming under pressure and annual capitation grants are not being met. In 2006 the senior secondary capitation grant for instructional materials was undersupplied by over 60 percent and by 15 percent for junior secondary purchases. The problems within the distribution system (see below) have, on occasion, resulted in an entire school order not being supplied or, more commonly, individual textbook titles not being supplied. In general, however, Botswana, along with South Africa, comes close to achieving target book:pupil ratios of 1:1 in all subjects at all secondary grade levels.

In Cote d’Ivoire free textbook provision at both primary and secondary has always been part of the political agenda of all parties. Attempts were made to initiate free textbook supply up to the 3ème level (grade level 9) as part of a government attempt to extend compulsory education through to this level. There were even some free books distributed, funded by the World Bank, but this policy was discontinued in 2002 for budgetary reasons. However, the initial World Bank funded supplies were used to introduce a textbook loan scheme. Unfortunately this failed because the physical production specifications of the textbooks were inadequate and the annual attrition rate reached 70 percent. As a result, parents failed to have their initial deposits returned and they refused to pay deposits the following year. An attempt at a similar type of loan scheme by the African Development
Bank in rural areas also failed for much the same reasons. Thus, textbook loan schemes are regarded with suspicion in Côte d’Ivoire. Without state/donor funded free textbook distribution, parental purchase from an approved textbook list is now the sole means of support for secondary textbook provision. The common pattern found elsewhere in Africa and described above is also established in Côte d’Ivoire. There is a concentration of parental funding on “core” textbooks, which usually means Math and French. Urban areas have better levels of textbook provision than rural areas. There is no hard information about current textbook:student ratios either in core subjects or in other subjects but it has been estimated that around 20–25 percent of students have access to core textbooks and that no more than 5–10 percent have access to other textbooks.

Secondary textbooks in both the French and English systems in Cameroun are entirely parent funded. The Ministry of Education has an evaluation process to establish an approved booklist and once books are on the booklist it is up to the publishers to travel to every school in the country to promote and market their titles. As in other countries purchasing power is considered to be much higher in urban than in rural areas and as a result both publishers and booksellers concentrate their promotional efforts in the urban areas and tend to neglect the rural areas. In junior secondary average textbook costs are reasonable (typically between US$4-8) and there has been a significant development in local publishing to supply junior secondary textbooks written specifically for the Cameroonian market. At senior secondary level most books are imported from France and prices are much higher. Prices of imported books range from US$17.50 to US$35. These prices are completely beyond the reach of the vast majority of parents in Cameroun. As a result there has been a strong growth in the secondhand book market and pirated textbooks are not uncommon, particularly in the Anglophone part of the country. Average book:pupil ratios have not been estimated but it is clear that core textbooks at junior secondary are reasonably widely available (perhaps 40 percent of the student population). However, non core textbooks in junior secondary and virtually all senior secondary textbooks are in serious short supply.

In Togo from 1995 a World Bank project procured new textbooks for the junior secondary system. A competitive evaluation was established and books were selected from private sector submissions on a combination of educational, presentational, and price criteria. Up until 1990 governments purchased textbooks and provided them to students against the payment of a deposit. If the books were returned in good condition at the end of the year the student received half the deposit back, if the books were lost or damaged, the deposit remained with the school. Books were purchased from local booksellers by the school but paid for by the treasury against a signed delivery receipt. Unfortunately, in recent years, parental affordability has declined, deposits have not been repaid and most secondary schools now are seriously short of books. Because of the decline of the loan system state-funded supplies are now in abeyance, and parents themselves now have to buy textbooks. The Togo case study estimates that the average textbook:student ratio is now 1:8. However, the Ministry of Education does ensure that teachers have at least one copy of each subject textbook.

In Rwanda, secondary education has not been part of donor priorities in the post-1994 reconstruction phase. However, there have been occasional secondary textbook procurements by Mineduc, usually supported through donor funding and delivered to schools free of charge. Thus, in 2001 approximately 30,000 copies of each of three French language textbooks were purchased and delivered free with funding from Cooperation Française.
In 2002 Cooperation also procured 800 Math and Biology textbooks as teacher resources. In 2003 the African Development Bank funded the procurement of 48,000 secondary agriculture books as part of a project to upgrade agriculture in secondary education. In April 2006 Cooperation Belgique launched a bid to procure 7,700 Biology textbooks to be used as educational resources by teachers. One of the components of the World Bank’s Human Resources Development Project is to strengthen the education sectors’ response in the HIV/AIDS awareness campaign. There is a provision for a US$500,000 credit line in this area to be used for both primary and secondary. DFID has just funded the first secondary publishing bid in Rwanda. In September 2006, Mineduc advertised a publishing bid for an S1 physics and chemistry textbook, with a French and English version. Outside the interventions listed above, all textbooks have to be funded by parents. Because there is no predictable and reliable secondary textbook market, there is no local secondary textbook publishing, and thus the textbooks used in schools tend to be imported books at high prices relative to local purchasing power. Apart from the high end private schools in Kigali most parents, whether their children are in the private or the public sector cannot afford to buy secondary textbooks. Thus, in most schools in the country, textbooks are generally only in the hands of teachers who encourage children to copy from the blackboard or to take dictation.

In francophone Africa Senegal is widely regarded as the best-supplied country for secondary textbooks. Secondary textbooks are parent-funded and published by a mixed bag of French and Senegalese private sector publishers and the state. Most approved textbooks are published by a small group of two or three French publishers and the proportion of locally supplied textbooks is very small and largely reserved for national language texts. Estimates of core textbook (French and Math) availability in secondary schools in Senegal range from 1:4 to 1:10. Many believe that 1:10 as a national average is probably closer to the truth. Obviously there are big geographic variations, particularly between rural and urban levels of provision.
CHAPTER 4

Approved Textbook Lists

Approved Secondary Textbook Lists

Approved textbook lists are typical of countries where there is school-based choice of the textbook to be used. Out of the 19 countries listed in Table 7, 12 have national approved secondary textbook lists (Botswana, Cameroon, Cote d’Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Tanzania, Togo, and Zambia). Of these 12 countries, only three (Kenya, Malawi and Tanzania) have price as a significant factor in the evaluation and award of approved status. Of these three, only one (Malawi) has price monitoring to ensure that supply is at agreed prices, although the approved textbook list and prices are circulated so widely in Kenya that most schools know the approved prices and are in a position to insist. Price markups over and above list price are reported to be common in Tanzania.

Of the 12 countries with approved textbook lists, only 3 (Ghana, Kenya, Malawi) have a limitation on the number of titles that can be included on the list (three titles per subject and grade level for Ghana and Malawi; and six titles per subject and grade level for Kenya).

A typical set of evaluation criteria would include:

- Conformity with curriculum requirements
- Presentation and attractiveness
- Factual accuracy
- Accessibility of Language
- Gender, Religious, Racial equity
- Price.

19. Nigeria has a mixed system with some states having state approved textbook lists. There is no federal approved secondary textbook list.
Durability should generally be assured by having minimum physical production standards as mandatory for all approved textbooks, but this is by no means universal.

A minority of francophone countries (Cameroon, Cote d’Ivoire, Togo) have national recommended book lists, but the scope is usually so wide that they probably do not help schools choose a relevant title, or to help the secondary system as a whole to lower its purchasing costs for secondary textbooks. The Cameroon book list is revised every year, whereas the Togolese list has been static for 10 years. At the end of the day, textbooks are chosen from among the lists of metropolitan (chiefly French, but also Belgian in Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of Congo) publishers. This is made easier by the fact that secondary curricula still bear the mark of the former colonial power. Some countries, such as Djibouti, even prepare their secondary students to take the French baccalaureat.

Recommended book lists often are selected according to criteria that are far from being transparent, which opens the door to obvious corrupt practices. Textbooks are then selected by individual schools.

The DFID-funded secondary textbook bid in Rwanda for S1 physics and chemistry books in both French and English, referred to above, is a very rare event in francophone Africa that might pave the way for a new approach to authoring and publishing secondary books, which might in turn keep prices down and create more local publishing involvement.

Some other governments, such as Senegal, try to monitor their textbook policy through Textbook Management Committees (see Annex A).

**Rationale for Approved Textbook Lists**

Publishers claim that open competition and deregulation (no approved lists or open-ended lists) keep textbook prices low and quality high. At the same time, the Kenya research indicated clearly that the low textbook prices in Kenya were linked to some considerable degree to the fact that price was marked as a key factor in a competitive evaluation. If there had been no price factor there would have been no incentive for publishers to consider offering their keenest prices. If there had been an open-ended list with no limit on the number of approved titles, then there would have been no competition to achieve approved status. In addition, limited lists of approved titles lead to bigger sales for approved titles and thus longer print runs and lower prices.

All other countries with approved textbook lists have more or less subjective textbook evaluation and award systems, where the criteria for evaluation and selection are often not clear to the submitting publishers.

In Rwanda and Uganda there are no national approved textbook lists (except for literature set texts for examinations) and each school thus has the responsibility to create their own lists, which are often of very poor quality. Ghana has an approved list of three titles per subject and grade but the MOE selects only one title for its bulk purchases and distribution to schools. Because schools need to top up the official supplies, they could use parental funding to buy the other approved titles but obviously schools will tend to purchase the same titles that have already been supplied free by the MOE. In this way the government purchase decision can easily distort competition by strongly influencing school selection decisions. This is not inevitable. Uganda primary schools have competing, alternative approved textbooks and the government provides funding for school-based choice by
providing schools with a budget and an official order form on which schools can order books on an annual basis up to their per capita budget ceiling. The orders are returned to the Instructional Materials Unit for consolidation and ordering so that bulk sales discounts are available even though individual schools have made their own selection decisions. A separate tender for distribution services to districts is also organized by the MOES. This kind of system would support genuine school-based choice at secondary level in any country.

Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Sierra Leone, and Somalia all have monopoly supply systems. Eritrea is the only country out of the 19 in Table 7 that still operates state textbook publishing at the secondary level. The other four countries select private sector titles either through bidding or direct selection and negotiation and supply selected titles direct to schools.

Approved textbook lists (particularly if they are price sensitive and limited) can be used to encourage good textbook quality and lower prices if the evaluation criteria are carefully developed and if publishers are provided with good lead times to develop their submissions. Approved textbook lists can be used to stimulate the local publication of secondary school textbooks but this will only happen if there is a market that is perceived to be big enough and reliable enough to justify the initial investment. A new secondary textbook series for junior secondary could cost between US$50,000–100,000 in development and origination costs and publishers have to feel that there is a market to justify this investment.
CHAPTER 5

Distribution Issues for Secondary Textbooks

Current Patterns of Secondary Textbook Distribution

Table 7 summarizes some of the key characteristics of secondary school textbook and school library distribution in 19 sub-Saharan African countries. It is significant that in 2006, 13 out of the 19 countries have secondary textbook supply firmly in the hands of the private sector book trade, and 14 out of the 19 countries have policies that allow schools to take the selection decisions on the textbooks that they wish to use, often from a pre-selected approved or recommended list. Eighteen out of 19 countries now have their secondary textbooks published by private sector publishers; only Eritrea among the 19 countries continues with state textbook publishing at secondary level. It is probable that the days of monopoly state textbook publishing and parastatal textbook distribution systems are now disappearing from a majority of African secondary school systems.

State control over textbook distribution frequently destroyed or seriously damaged the existing private sector book wholesalers and retailers while not providing a reasonable alternative textbook service to schools. This is perhaps the most tragic aspect of the state domination of textbook distribution in Africa over the past 40 years.

(Read, Denning, and Bontoux 2001)

Traditional Problems with State Textbook Distribution

In the past, state organized textbook and learning materials distribution suffered from a number of common problems at both secondary and primary levels. Because the main purpose of state textbook distribution was to serve the primary school system, secondary distribution frequently suffered as a result of the shortcomings of the primary system.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Financed by</th>
<th>Approved or Recommended Book List</th>
<th>Textbooks Published by</th>
<th>Selected by</th>
<th>Supplied by</th>
<th>Strengths/Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| BOTSWANA      | Government  | Yes                               | Private sector         | Schools     | Booksellers | ■ Late payments from government  
■ Unreliable supply from some booksellers  
■ Declining value of MOE support budgets for textbooks and libraries |
| CAMEROON      | Parents     | Yes. No limit on number of approved titles. | Private Sector (mostly overseas publishers) | Schools     | Booksellers | ■ Geographic gaps in distribution network  
■ Corruption is reported to be a big issue  
■ Good national road and bookseller network |
| COTE D'IVOIRE | Schools/Parents | Yes                              | Private Sector         | Schools     | Booksellers | ■ No developed national bookshop network  
■ Monopoly textbook supply with no school choice  
■ No government support for private sector educational publishing or bookselling |
| DJIBOUTI      | Parents since 2003 | No                               | Private Sector (entirely overseas publishers) | Schools     | Publishers supply to Central Government, which consolidates and supplies via Districts to schools |
| ERITREA       | Government  | No. Monopoly supply.              | Ministry of Education  | No choice.  | Ministry of Education via District Education Offices | ■ Poor physical specs have adverse impact on book life  
■ Distribution process from publishers to schools can be delayed for months  
■ Textbooks closely linked to satellite delivery of TV lessons for all core subjects for grades 9-12 |
<p>| ETHIOPIA      | Dominantly government, although there is a parent textbook contribution of US$-6 per year for Grades 11-12. | No. Monopoly supply after selection following a tender. | Private sector publishers, but copyrights have to be given to GoE as a condition of purchase | No choice | Mixed system by regions. Some regions arrange central collection; others sub-contract collection. Schools have to collect from Woreda offices. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Approval Process</th>
<th>Government / School</th>
<th>Booksellers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Officially Government, but allocated budgets are insufficient and parents try to supplement whenever possible. Private school market is parent funded.</td>
<td>Approved list of 3 books per subject and grade but MOE only purchases one book for supply to schools. Other books rely on parental purchases.</td>
<td>Private sector</td>
<td>Publishers supply to regional warehouses, which deliver to districts and schools for government purchases and through book trade for parental purchases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Schools/parents</td>
<td>Yes. Approved list has 6 titles per subject per grade but no MOE monitoring because MOE does not fund secondary textbooks. Nevertheless, schools tend to buy from the “Orange Book.” The list also includes readers, dictionaries and atlases.</td>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>Schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Corruption is reported to be an issue in the selection and purchase of secondary textbooks and library materials.
- Book trade associations need better dialogue with MOE.
- Private sector booksellers are undeveloped outside main urban centers.
- Booksellers tend to mark up on published prices—around 15%.
- Big geographic differentials in access to textbooks.
- School libraries neglected because there is insufficient funding for textbooks. But reported MOE sole source purchase from one publisher of library materials worth US$28 million over 5 years seems to have been abandoned after unfavorable press coverage.
- Highly developed national bookseller network capable of supplying all districts.
- National publisher and bookseller associations work well together and have an established dialogue with MOE.
- Most secondary textbooks are locally published specifically for Kenyan syllabuses.
- Approval process selects individual textbooks rather than series, which publishers feel is a weakness.
- Student access to textbooks varies widely from urban to rural and remote areas.
- Some indigenous piracy of secondary textbooks.
- Big secondhand market.
- Big market for revision crammers.
- Library sales are insignificant.

(Continued)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Financed by</th>
<th>Approved or Recommended Book List</th>
<th>Textbooks Published by</th>
<th>Selected by</th>
<th>Supplied by</th>
<th>Strengths/Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| LESOTHO   | Schools/Parents           | Lists developed by each school. No national list. | Private sector         | Schools     | Booksellers | ■ Well developed national bookseller network to supply secondary school textbooks  
■ Plans to introduce textbook rental scheme and textbook revolving fund for Junior Secondary  
■ High cost of secondary textbooks to parents  
■ Wide differentials between access to textbooks from school to school |
| MALAWI    | Schools/Parents           | National approved list            | Private sector         | Schools     | Booksellers | ■ School based textbook revolving funds established by donor funded project reduce annual costs of textbooks to parents by using textbook loans and amortized costs  
■ Conscious MOE policy to re-establish national private sector bookseller network |
| NIGERIA   | Parents. There is some GoN bulk purchase for armed forces schools. | Mixed system. Some states have approved lists, some buy single prescriptions direct from publishers at high discounts, some allow schools to make up their own book lists. | Private Sector | Generally via booksellers, but publishers sometimes supply direct to states or to individual schools | | | ■ Well developed national bookshop network covering most states  
■ Big geographic differentials in student access to textbooks. Estimated at 20% for core textbooks (English and Math) in urban areas; much less for other subjects and in rural/remote areas.  
■ Secondary school library market has been increasing slowly over past 5 years  
■ Piracy from India and China is increasing problem  
■ Big secondhand market  
■ Big market for revision crammers |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Authority</th>
<th>Booksellers</th>
<th>Retail Channel</th>
<th>Distribution Model</th>
<th>Issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RWANDA</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>Booksellers</td>
<td>Very low level parent affordability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIERRA LEONE</td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>No choice</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>No tradition of textbook purchase by parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOMALIA</td>
<td>In 2000 EU funded</td>
<td>No approved list.</td>
<td>UK and Kenya private sector publishers</td>
<td>NGO funded and organized distribution</td>
<td>Poor physical productions specs leading to short book life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>basic supplies of</td>
<td>Textbooks selected by donor/MOE and purchased in bulk.</td>
<td>No choice</td>
<td></td>
<td>Slow replacement by donors so that textbooks now widely in short supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>secondary school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Only private schools use local booksellers and schools/parents travel to booksellers in Mogadishu or Hargeisa to buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>textbooks to schools at 1 ratio of 3 students per book. These were scheduled to be replaced in 2004 but nothing received yet. Possible that cost sharing will be introduced for secondary textbooks. System still dependent on donor funding support.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TANZANIA</td>
<td>Government via school capitation grants provided by WB since 2005 but these are not considered to be sufficient for adequate textbook supplies.</td>
<td>Yes—but no limit on titles that can be approved. Submissions can be made on a quarterly basis.</td>
<td>Private Sector since 2004 when TIE textbook publishing for secondary was terminated</td>
<td>Schools Booksellers to schools direct or sometimes via District Stores if districts consolidate on behalf of schools</td>
<td>Bookseller coverage is OK in urban areas but more problematic in rural areas</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor credit ratings of many booksellers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Price markups in rural or remote areas</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Piracy is a growing problem in secondary; organized through Dubai and Mauritius.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Financed by</td>
<td>Approved or Recommended Book List</td>
<td>Textbooks Published by</td>
<td>Selected by</td>
<td>Supplied by</td>
</tr>
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<td>------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOGO</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Yes, but in most cases only one title selected. Only Physics and Biology/Geology/Technology have 2 competing titles on the approved list.</td>
<td>Private Sector (mostly overseas)</td>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>Booksellers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UGANDA</td>
<td>Parents with occasional bulk purchases from the MOES (worth on average about US$2 million per year) which are spread too thinly to have any impact.</td>
<td>Individual Schools develop their own lists. No national list.</td>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>Booksellers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ZAMBIA

Theoretically GRZ provides funding for secondary textbooks but funding is unpredictable and inadequate so parents have to purchase where they can.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Private Sector</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Government for occasional centralized procurements. Otherwise, local booksellers.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is an approved secondary textbook list but it is widely considered to be out of date and contains inappropriate titles.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Secondary curricula over 20 years old and urgently in need of review
- Long delays in GRZ procurement procedures
- Inefficient state supply systems leading to hold-ups between districts and schools
- Inexperienced booksellers outside Lusaka and a few main centers
- Serious underfunding of textbooks by MOE/GRZ
In 2001, the main problems of state textbook distribution (both primary and secondary) were perceived to be (Read, Denning, and Bontoux 2001):

- Consistent underfunding of required learning and teaching materials acquisition budgets (insufficient funding to purchase the required quantity of materials)
- Consistent underfunding of the annual operational budgets for distribution (insufficient funding to pay for proper warehousing, management and movement; this was particularly significant in stock movements from District down to school level)
- Inadequate accounting practices and consequent financial problems (a number of state distribution companies were heavily indebted and collapsed)
- Poor or poorly maintained facilities (warehousing and transportation)
- Poor management information (lack of good information on school locations, student numbers and textbook and materials needs)
- Lack of staff trained and experienced in book distribution
- Lack of basic systems of inventory control and stock movement control (thus stock losses were often very high but could only rarely be traced)
- Poor security and high levels of stock loss
- Inequity of service to urban, rural and remote locations (urban schools and schools in District HQs were frequently better supplied than rural and remote school)
- Low levels of service to schools (for example, inaccurate supply was rarely corrected).

There were a number of countries where the private sector book trade was protected to some extent by continuing parent purchase of textbooks at secondary level.

In both Kenya and Ghana the failure of the state distribution companies to perform adequately created a market loophole, which enabled the commercial book trade to survive. It is axiomatic that if the state controls the income from the critical textbook market, then there is little other market available for the private book trade sector. In Africa, most national bookshop networks depend absolutely on the income from textbook sales. If there is no income, because the system is controlled by the state then there is unlikely to be a national bookshop network. (Read, Denning, and Bontoux 2001)

Re-creating National Bookseller Networks

When state textbook distribution was terminated, there was often no commercial bookseller network remaining in existence to take on the essential distribution role on a national basis. One of the features of textbook distribution in Africa over the past ten years has been the attempt in some countries, by both governments and donors, to create conditions that would actively support the redevelopment of national private sector bookseller coverage. Good examples of this policy development can be found in the De-centralised Instructional Materials Procurement Pilot Project (DIMPPP) in Uganda, decentralized textbook ordering and supply in Zambia, the secondary textbook rental scheme and revolving fund in Malawi and decentralized textbook supply in Tanzania.

A detailed and systematic analysis of the strengths and weaknesses, successes and problems of these attempts to re-create the conditions for successful national private sector learning and teaching materials supply would be important in guiding future strategy initiatives in this critical education sub-sector.
Rebuilding national retail bookselling networks in all African countries will be a relatively slow process and there will almost always be pockets of poverty and remoteness which will not attract the interest of private sector suppliers who need to operate profitably to survive and offer service. It is important therefore to develop interim strategies that provide efficient services to secondary schools while not operating to prevent the re-emergence of the private sector.

One of the biggest problems in many countries is simply knowing what is available to purchase. This situation can be rapidly addressed by creating national (or state level in the case of large countries such as Nigeria) approved book lists based on objective and transparent evaluation criteria, where price is a significant scoring factor in evaluation and where price increases are limited to inflation levels for the period of contracted approved status. If, in addition, a condition of approved status is the provision of free sample copies to agreed sample copy rooms in District HQs then the most fundamental problems can be alleviated quickly.

School order forms can also be used (see above) to order books. These can be based on budget allocations from the MOE if there is a degree of state financial support available, or the orders can be accompanied by bank cheques drawn on a school account if parental contributions to schools are the basis of provision. An MOE department can quickly and easily set up a simple computerised order consolidation system to break school orders down into bulk order quantities so that all school orders achieve maximum quantity discounts and a sub-contracted distribution tender can be arranged to deliver books direct to secondary schools (most secondary schools tend to be relatively near to road networks—even in remote areas). If school participation in such a system is voluntary rather than compulsory then schools can withdraw and order from any private sector bookseller at any time who can offer and deliver better levels of price and service.

Francophone countries in Africa benefit from a relatively small geographical size and good road networks with few natural obstacles. Secondary textbook supply in francophone countries has always been channelled through booksellers with the result that the bookshop network is relatively dense and healthy, especially those backed by the Catholic authorities. However, there is a lack of decentralized up country bookshops: in the absence of any voucher system or mixed financing system, shopkeepers set up shop where the money is, and this is seldom in rural areas. The most advanced bookseller network is in Côte d’Ivoire (more than 170 active school booksellers), which has been plagued by a civil war since 2002, leading to a de facto partition of the country. As a result, textbook distribution in the Northern part of the country has suffered greatly. Togo has also suffered from disruptive political problems, which have adversely affected textbook distribution.

The re-establishment of private sector involvement in textbook and library supply to secondary schools has not solved all of the fundamental distribution and supply problems. It has had a beneficial impact on some of the problems endemic in state systems but has certainly not resolved all of the issues listed above and in some cases has created new issues. The current common problems in private sector textbook and library supply systems are summarized below.

**Current Secondary Textbook Distribution Issues**

Many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, still in the process of recovery from four decades of state textbook distribution systems have incomplete national bookseller coverage which leaves some areas without textbook supply services (Cameroon, Gambia, Ghana, Sierra
Leone, Togo, Uganda). As a result there is a tendency for booksellers to concentrate their sales activities on urban areas where purchasing power is greater and where the costs of sales are much lower in comparison to the problems of reaching rural and remote areas. National bookselling is certainly capable of responding to rural and remote supply situations if a market genuinely exists. The specialist booksellers that emerged to serve Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASAL) in Kenya during the RNE decentralized primary textbook pilot projects and the successor free primary textbook supply projects funded by the WB and DFID clearly demonstrate the ability of the Kenyan book trade to respond quickly and effectively if a market opportunity exists. However, in any country financial decisions to concentrate on urban supply have their dangers because it was precisely for this reason in the 1960s that many state and parastatal textbook companies were established to provide the national coverage that private sector booksellers sometimes failed to provide. Ghana, Uganda, and Cameroon are reported to be examples where booksellers have tended to concentrate on easier urban markets.

The impact of state supply on private sector bookselling is still evident in the minority of countries that continue to supply through state channels. These include Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Sierra Leone, and Somalia. In all of these countries there is effective monopoly textbook supply through state operations and private sector bookseller growth is inhibited as a result. In Djibouti and Ghana there is competition and choice in secondary textbooks, but the state still buys some secondary textbook stocks in bulk and uses state facilities to distribute them, thus inhibiting the re-establishment of a national bookseller network. It can be argued, reasonably, that in many cases state-organized textbook supply was necessary because of the collapse of the private sector network after years of war and violence. This is certainly true of some countries, but policy consideration needs to be given to the creation of opportunities for genuine bookseller growth as has happened in Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia.

Where state facilities are used the basic infrastructure is often in poor condition. In Ghana, MOE-owned regional and district stores are often in poor condition and are often not weatherproof or secure. Book losses can be an issue and there are delays in the supply chain caused by lack of funds to transport books to schools at district level.

The newly emerging private sector book trade tends to be underfinanced and credit problems are common. Schools and parents rarely wish to pay in advance for their textbooks and publishers are equally unwilling to provide substantial credit to many of their bookseller customers. Where, as in Botswana, the state via regional offices has to pay for the books ordered by the schools, there are often long delays in payment, which simply worsens the already difficult financing problems. Secondary textbook publishers in Botswana complain that they lose orders as a result of underfinanced booksellers exacerbated by long payment delays. Credit and payment problems between schools, booksellers, and publishers are common in many of the newly-emerging private bookseller systems. In these circumstances, there is a great temptation for better financed publishers to bypass booksellers to supply the schools directly. In Botswana this is not possible because a supplier is required to supply at least two thirds of a school order and it is unlikely in a competitive situation that any one publisher will dominate a school order to this extent. In Kenya, the Kenya Publishers Association (KPA) has long maintained a policy of strong support to booksellers and this is at least part of the reason for the strength of the Kenya wholesale and retail book trade with over 2,000 active booksellers nationwide. In Malawi the
publishers and booksellers are in constant debate over direct supply problems. In general the publishers try to support booksellers but the temptation is always there to go direct to schools in situations where the bookseller is inexperienced or underfunded. Publishers’ direct supply also is reported to be an issue in both Nigeria and Ghana.

Closely associated with bookseller credit problems is the problem of stock holding. Few booksellers, particularly in rural areas, can afford to maintain large stocks of books, and particularly of library books. Thus schools often have difficulty in knowing what is available. They are rarely able to inspect sample copies as the basis for decisionmaking and ordering. In many countries schools rely on catalogues, price lists and brochures as the basis for selection decisions. Attempts have been made in Malawi at secondary level and in Uganda at primary level to make registration as an official bookseller conditional upon booksellers holding sample stock, but with mixed success.

Price markups are a problem as one of the factors in textbook price inflation. Tanzania, Uganda, and Ghana were particularly noted in this context, but price markups are common in most countries where the costs of up-country supply are high and there are risks in even modest stock holding. High prices relative to low disposable parental incomes are a critical component of the decline in parent purchasing of textbooks.

Secondhand textbook sales are an important component of low-cost textbook supplies to students, but they have an impact on the viability of many booksellers. In some countries, conventional booksellers have attempted to get involved in secondhand sales, but in general secondhand book sales are dominated by pavement booksellers (*Librairies par terre* in francophone countries) who can afford to supply at the lowest prices because they have very low overheads. Briefcase booksellers (booksellers who seek school orders by operating solely out of a briefcase without any premises or stock, and often with variable credit records) fall into the same category of threat to the conventional book trade. Briefcase booksellers win school supply contracts because they can offer bigger discounts to schools by operating on minimum overhead. They are not trusted often by publishers. However, if they succeed in capturing school orders, publishers must choose between losing orders or supplying credit to an organization with no fixed abode and no visible assets. Booksellers, of course, lose market share as a result. Finally, the redevelopment of private sector bookselling has fueled the resurgence of secondary textbook piracy. This is often supplied through the conventional book trade with pirates taking stock orders (no credit) for supply to school booksellers. In Nigeria this is reported to be organized from China. Quality is good and prices are low and the threat to publishers sales only fuels their desire to supply direct to schools.
Secondary Textbook Authorship and Publishing

Secondary School Textbook Publishing in Francophone Africa

Local school textbook publishing is still a rarity in francophone Africa, where probably 90 percent of books used in schools are still published by metropolitan publishers based in France and Belgium. The only exceptions would be Côte d’Ivoire (but NEI and CEDA are partly owned by French publishers) and Mali with Donnya Publishers. Cameroon estimates that 30 percent of educational publishing from primary through secondary to tertiary is now undertaken by local publishers. Where local publishing exists it is mostly active in the primary sector because market size provides more incentive and more security.

French publishers maintain dedicated lists and prices for their African markets. Even though the costs are maintained as low as possible, the final average price for a secondary school textbook hovers around US$10, which is well beyond what an average African family can afford. If local publications are specified (as opposed to simply purchasing imported titles off the shelf) then the easy adaptation of a core back list title into a number of specific country variants gives French and Belgian publishers a competitive edge over local publishers who must originate competing titles from scratch (both more expensive and more time consuming). Adaptations will usually include local inspectors, curriculum officials, and/or high ranking officials in the adaptation team.

Local publishers not only lack the back list and the investment finance to compete head to head with multinationals, they also are often short of textbook publishing experience and basic publishing skills, at least in the early days of development. As an example, in April 2005, a workshop was organized in Yaoundé by Cameroon educational publishers in order to think about the means they could use to improve their market share in their own domestic market. They concluded that their own lack of
professionalism was partly to blame because:

- Authors were not rigorous enough,
- The books were not professionally copy-edited and were full of typos and factual mistakes,
- There was little editorial supervision or quality control,
- Binding, paper, and cover quality were poor, and
- Prices were too high.

One unnamed publisher present at the meeting commented that “Cameroonian textbooks were so bad that teachers are ashamed to advise their students to refer to their textbooks.”20

In Rwanda, virtually all secondary textbooks are still published either in France, Belgium, or the UK (for anglophone schools) without local adaptation. The only titles escaping this general rule are the *Tronc commun* French language textbooks originated via Mineduc and printed by Imprisco. Copyright ownership is a sensitive issue in Rwanda, which is a signatory of the Bern Convention on Copyright. A few years ago a co-publication between the NCDC and a French publisher triggered a controversy over copyright ownership, which has not yet been resolved. In September 2006, Mineduc requested support to develop a new contract *pro forma* to govern working relationships between Mineduc and commercial publishers whereby it required that the copyrights remain within NCDC, even though the overwhelming majority of materials had been developed by the private sector publishers. This kind of contractual requirement is not in the best interests of either the development of good textbooks or the development of a local educational publishing capacity in Rwanda, because since it operates as a major disincentive to private sector publishing investment. There are better ways to achieve a sensible degree of price restraint, such as the contractual specifications in the Uganda competitive primary textbook bids, which require price increases to be in line with inflation during the period of approved status, but which leave copyright and publishing rights firmly in the hands of the authors and private sector publishers, thus encouraging further investment and local capacity development.

In Togo, most secondary textbook titles also are published by multinationals. Many of the textbooks are published for the francophone African region but not specifically for Togo. Togolese authors have participated in the authorship teams of the multinationals. For example:

- La Géographie 3 Togo, was written by a team of 4 Togolese educationists and published by Hatier.
- The Physics series Gria, although Panafrican in concept, has a Togolese version adapted by the Togo National Science Coordinator.
- The Math series CIAM is published for the whole of Francophone Africa by Edicef (a French publisher) and was developed from attempts by *Coopération Française* in the 1990s to harmonise all Math curricula in francophone African countries.

Regional publishing has significant cost benefits because it extends print runs and reduces unit costs, but it does mean that the textbooks tend to lack specific local relevance. Regional publishing also compensates for the much lower enrollment figures in individual

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francophone countries: it takes three or four West African francophone countries together to match the number of secondary students in, say, Uganda. Regional publishing is therefore preferred to the use of textbooks originally designed for Europe.

In Cameroon, local publishing in both French and English is beginning. The three dominant French publishers are Edicef (a branch of Hachette), Hatier (also owned now by Hachette), and Interforum Diffusion Internationale (a branch of Editis). All publish mostly pan-African editions. In the mid-1990s the Government of Cameroon attempted to develop local textbook publishing capacity by creating a parastatal publisher (CEPER) and offering equity to foreign publishers. CEPER received substantial subsidies from Agence Internationale de la Francophonie but only one French publisher, Nathan (now part of IDI), took up the equity offer. Management disagreements, missed publication dates, and corruption scandals have left CEPER in 2006, according to one reported commentator, as a “debt-ridden empty shell with no credibility whatsoever.”

However, other local Cameroon publishers have thrived and are contributing to the textbook market. The most significant are Les Classiques camerounais, founded in 2000 with a minority shareholding from a Catholic French Publisher Les Classiques africains–Saint Paul, which has a number of its titles on the approved secondary school list. Les Editions Clé Yaoundé, specializing in fiction and social sciences, also has titles on the approved secondary school list. Afrédit is the youngest of the local publishers. It was founded in 2004 and is a subsidiary of Afriland Bank, a major banking and financial group. It has published an officially approved civics text for 5th and 6th grades and co-publishes with foreign publishers.

Cote d’Ivoire has the most local publishing of any of the francophone countries, but the two dominant local publishing companies both have substantial French publisher equity. Centre d’Edition et de Diffusion Africaine (CEDA) is a joint venture between the government (20 percent), Hatier (40 percent), Hurtubise (a Quebec publisher with 9 percent), and the remaining 31 percent is scattered between individual shareholders. Nouvelle Editions Ivoriéennes (NEI) was created in 1972 to fill the void created by the collapse of NEA, which was jointly owned by the governments of Cote d’Ivoire, Senegal, and Togo. The current equity mix of NEI is EDICEF (28.8 percent), GoCI (20 percent), EDIPRESSE (15 percent) and miscellaneous private investors (36.2 percent). Other local textbook publishers include EDILIS (founded in 1992) and Editions Eburnie (founded in 2002). CEDA and NEI are, however, the dominant local publishers.

Secondary School Textbook Publishing in Anglophone Africa

Local publishing development is much more pronounced in anglophone Africa than in francophone Africa. Strong local publishing industries publishing school books for domestic markets exist in South Africa, Zimbabwe (although the local book industry has suffered badly in recent years), Kenya, and Nigeria. South Africa and Kenya both have developing export interests, largely to neighboring countries, although South Africa has aspirations to become a publishing force throughout the continent. In addition there are developing local publishing industries in Uganda (largely based upon primary publishing), Tanzania (primary and secondary), and Malawi (largely secondary). Local publishing is also strong in Botswana and to a lesser extent in Lesotho and there are important local publishers also in Zambia and Ghana. Ethiopia is possibly in the early stages of local private sector publishing
development although no final decisions have been taken by government at the time of writing. However, there are now two significant local private sector educational publishers operating in the country, although it is uncertain how separate they are from government. Local publishing in most of Anglophone Africa was constrained for many years by the dominance of state publishing. Because of the lack of a significant general market, publishing in most African countries is entirely dependent on the primary and secondary textbook markets. When these are reserved for state publishers there is no viable market to support the growth of private sector publishing. This, in turn, has an impact on the development of local fiction and general publishing and a knock-on impact on the development of a reading society. With the advent of market liberalization policies from the mid-1990s onwards there was a rapid growth in local publishing in many Anglophone markets. In Uganda, for example, new liberalization policies which enabled private sector access to the core primary school market stimulated a very rapid growth in local publishing. In the 10-year period between 1993 and 2003, the local publishing industry developed from the dominance of two multinationals in the early 1990s to 14 locally-based publishers all submitting bids for primary textbook approved status. Growth in local publishing was so significant in Uganda that the Cycle 8 bid awarded in 2003 resulted in more than 60 percent of the contracts going to local or regional publishing companies with no connection to multinational companies. A competition in Malawi for secondary approved textbook status in 1998 resulted in the emergence of 8 local publishers. CLAIM (Christian Literature Association in Malawi) achieved approved book status in junior secondary math and Chancellor University Press achieved approved textbook status in science. The liberalization of school publishing in Tanzania, first at primary, but since 2005 also at secondary, has also resulted in the growth of local publishing. The conclusion to be drawn is that if a reliable market exists local publishing can develop to service it, even in direct competition with multinationals. The market does not necessarily have to be large. The critical factor is predictability. If publishers are confident that funding will be available, from whatever source, year after year then local publishing will emerge to serve that market. This is perhaps most clearly demonstrated in Botswana where a tiny but reliable and reasonably predictable secondary school sector has five competing approved textbooks in some secondary subjects.

There are a number of reasons for the faster development of local publishing industries in Anglophone countries. These are:

- **Historically, UK publishing houses moved faster to establish branches or subsidiary companies in African countries.** For example, OUP and Macmillan opened branches in South Africa in the early years of the 20th Century. OUP, Longman, Macmillan, Heinemann, and a number of other UK publishing companies were quick to open subsidiary companies and to hire local staff in a number of countries immediately after independence in the 1960s. Most of the major UK companies had branches and subsidiary companies operational in at least Kenya, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, and South Africa by the end of the 1960s. These local companies of the multinationals provided a source of training and experience. Eventually entrepreneurial local staff members left the multinational subsidiaries and established their own companies. When this happened there were trained staff available who could be hired in as editors, designers and marketing people to support local company development.
Moves towards market liberalization took place at least a decade earlier in most Anglophone countries than they did in Francophone countries. Thus, the opportunities for the expansion of local publishing have had a significantly longer head start in Anglophone countries.

There has been more support from governments, particularly for secondary textbooks, in Anglophone than in Francophone countries. In almost all Francophone countries secondary textbooks are the responsibility of the parents. In many Anglophone countries state finances are used to support secondary education textbooks to some degree. This support has been provided in various ways. In Botswana schools are provided with generous capitation grants and make their own decisions on the textbooks that they wish to buy. The generous capitation grants not only support local publishing but also enable a strongly competitive bookselling trade to develop even though annual sales are relatively small. Tanzania similarly provides capitation to support secondary textbooks in state schools, although the level of per capita support is only one eighth of that provided to schools in Botswana. In Malawi state support took the form of matching fund contributions to rental fees collected from parents. In Zambia and Ghana the state purchases a proportion of the required secondary textbooks in bulk and provides them to the schools. Monopoly textbook publishing systems exist in Sierra Leone, Ethiopia and Somalia but the monopoly textbooks are purchased from private sector publishers. Even though state support is often inadequate to fulfil market demand it nevertheless provides support, even though occasional, for local publishing.

There is some evidence to suggest that donor support in anglophone countries has been more supportive of the private sector book trade than it has in francophone Africa. For example, there are no recent examples in anglophone Africa of donors trying to support the forced transfer of private sector textbook copyrights as happened in 1997 in Togo and is happening now in Rwanda. The rapid growth in private sector secondary education in the past 10 years has supported secondary textbook publishing development in a number of both anglophone and francophone countries.

Perhaps the biggest problem with the provision of state/donor support for secondary textbooks is its unreliability. All publishing houses require regular turnover in order to invest in and develop trained staff. Occasional and unpredictable procurements funded by governments or donors militate against this. The majority of publishers, and particularly those without easy access to finance, simply cannot afford to maintain expensive editorial and design staff during times when turnover is low or non-existent. This is one of the main reasons why publishing skills development is often seriously inhibited in many local publishing industries. Real problems can be caused for local educational publishers when “Big Bang” donor projects are based on large, fast-disbursing procurments early in a project with nothing significant coming later. Local publishers, usually short on cheap and adequate financing and with minimum levels of experienced staff are required to respond quickly to multiple textbook opportunities in order to submit bids against regional and multinational publishers who have the finance and the experienced staffing pool and a back list of titles for adaptation. Having raised the investment and employed the staff they have little prospect of regular recurrent turnover and thus have
no alternative but to lay off staff until the next fast-moving “Big Bang.” If donor projects could be designed so that all materials developers had reasonable warning of new textbook procurements and if procurements could be spread out over a reasonable time scale with sensible sustainability components, then local publishing development would cease to be a problem.

While anglophone African countries do have some regional textbooks, regional textbook publishing is much less pronounced than it is in francophone Africa. In anglophone Africa, the publication of country-specific courses is the norm. The extent of national course development is an indication of the strength and depth of local publishing industries. Thus in Kenya, the secondary approved textbook list has a maximum of six courses for each subject and grade. These six were chosen as the best evaluated titles from a competition where between 10 and 14 publishers participated. Malawi, a much smaller country, has a secondary approved textbook list with a maximum of three courses per subject and grade level. Once again, many of the subjects had six or more publishers submitting proposals for evaluation. In Botswana, a country with a very small secondary population, some subjects have up to five textbooks approved for school based choice. Inevitably, the tendency toward national course publishing and the strength of the competition has reduced print runs and increased competitive risk, which has had an impact on unit costs and average prices.

One of the reasons for the development of regional courses in francophone Africa was the attempt in the 1990s to standardize curricula in francophone countries which was strongly supported by the French government and other donors. A similar move to standardize syllabuses in anglophone Africa took place in the 1960s and 1970s particularly supported by UNESCO and USAID. This resulted in courses like Entebbe Math, the U.S. National Science Foundation African Science Project, and the Social Sciences for Africa Project. Although they achieved some early success these pan-african courses were fairly rapidly replaced by courses published for specific syllabuses in individual countries. Once again, part of the reason for the differences between francophone and anglophone publishing profiles is the diversity of anglophone education systems and curricula and the uniformity of the francophone systems. All four of the francophone countries studied as part of this survey have five years of primary followed by six years of secondary. Thus, some degree of syllabus standardization is possible. By comparison, in East Africa, Kenya has an English medium system with eight years of primary followed by four years of secondary. Uganda has an English medium system comprising seven years of primary, four years of junior secondary and two years of senior secondary. Tanzania has a Swahili primary system and an English medium secondary system with eight years of primary and four years of secondary. Obviously, in these circumstances, it is much more difficult to develop regional curricula and regional textbook publishing simply because of the differences in educational structures. In the 1970s there was an even more ambitious attempt to develop common curricula and textbooks via the European Union (then the EEC) funded Mano River Union which attempted to achieve standardization between a French derived system (Guinea), an American influenced system (Liberia) and an English influenced system (Sierra Leone). Inevitably, it was doomed to failure and no significant progress was achieved on the standardized curriculum or the common core textbooks.

National publishing industries in anglophone Africa do not now typically exhibit the joint ventures between governments and metropolitan publishers that have been
characteristic in some francophone African countries. Publishing industries in anglophone Africa comprise the whole range of possibilities from local branches and subsidiaries of multinational companies, joint ventures between multinationals and local companies, agency agreements between multinationals and local publishers, companies with 100 percent local equity, ex-parastatals, existing parastatals, university presses, and church presses. There is probably much more variety in the form of participation in the publishing industries of anglophone countries. In many of these countries, the multinational publishers are no longer dominant. Thus, in Kenya, only one of the multinationals, Oxford University Press, holds a leading position in local textbook publishing. OUP is challenged by locally-owned publishers such as East African Publishing House (EAPH) and Longhorn and by parastatal publishers—such as Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB) and the Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (JKF)—which now no longer have any market advantages and operate on the basis of a level playing field. Other multinationals are active in the market but are not regarded as in the front rank in terms of share of the secondary market. On the other hand, different publishers occupy dominant positions in Nigeria via local companies. In Nigeria, the local branch of Evans Brothers bought out the parent company in London. In the 1980s, Longman sold off its Kenyan company to local interests, which now operates as Longhorn. At about the same time Heinemann also sold its Kenyan company, which now operates as the East African Publishing House (EAPH). There have been similar transfers of equity to local interests in francophone Africa. Cameroon’s Afredit has bought out the Paris-based Servedit and Les Classiques africains are now owned by a Mauritian printer.

The dominance of country-specific publishing at both primary and secondary level in Anglophone Africa has encouraged the growth of local authorship. As in francophone Africa, local authorship is largely derived from national curriculum development agencies and the inspectorate.

**Individual Country Situations**

In Malawi secondary schools were using largely imported books until the introduction of the new curriculum in 1999 and the launch of the secondary textbook rental scheme which provided matching funds to schools against textbook rental fee collections. The Ministry of Education launched a competition to approve three textbooks for each subject and grade level at secondary from which schools would then be able to choose. As a result publishers were provided with an opportunity to enter the secondary textbook market for the first time backed by the financial security of textbook rental fees, the newly established textbook revolving fund and matching funds from Danida. For the first time, publishers had to find authors and develop textbook publishing skills and this had to be done against tight deadlines. Most of the publishers were the local offices of multinationals but a number of genuinely local publishers emerged including CLAIM, Chancellor University Press and Dzuka (previously a textbook publishing house owned by ex-President Dr Hastings Banda).

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21. In the 1960s, immediately after independence, there were a number of state/private sector joint venture publishing companies established in anglophone countries. These included Ghana Publishing House, Tanzania Publishing House and Zimbabwe Publishing House. In all cases the foreign equity component was relatively short-lived and these companies transformed themselves into state or parastatal publishing houses.
Because there had been no developed local authorship in the country previously (primary textbooks were published by the Malawi Institute of Education and secondary textbooks were imported) publishers had to explain contracts, copyright, royalties, and so forth to new authors who had never before encountered these concepts. The multinational publishers brought in editorial support and provided design services to their local offices but the purely local publishers had to cope by themselves. Under the circumstances it is surprising that they performed as well as they did and managed to achieve a number of important adoptions. Authors certainly appreciated being contracted by private publishers. When curriculum staff had worked for the government they were paid only small fees. Curriculum staff who authored for local private sector publishers and achieved substantial sales received significant royalties. Malawi has an underdeveloped printing industry with low quality and relatively high cost. Multinationals with their worldwide contacts were able to buy printing at good prices; local publishers didn’t have these advantages and were forced to use local Malawian printers, most of whom had had no previous experience of producing textbooks to the standards specified in the competition. Most of the Malawian publishers had no trained production staff to manage the printing process and in some cases publishers were penalised because they delivered stocks that were not up to the standards required. In some cases the publishers had no idea that printers were using cover card and text which were below specification. One of the key components of the higher prices of printing in Malawi was the duty on paper imports that Malawian printers had to pay. Imported finished textbooks are exempted from the payment of import duties as a result of Malawi’s ratification of the Florence Agreement and the Nairobi Protocols on the free flow of books and information. The printing industry is currently lobbying government to waive the duty on imported paper. This is a common theme in most African countries.

In Tanzania local secondary school authorship and publishing were minimal before the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP). Up to 2004, all secondary school books were developed by the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) on a monopoly basis. The books were state published and supplied as part of a government programme for all government and community secondary schools in agreed quantities. Little or no funding was made available to schools to buy any other books which might be relevant to the curriculum. When TIE’s monopoly on secondary school textbook development was terminated and their developed manuscripts were offered to the private sector the secondary school market became available for Tanzanian publishing for the first time. Once again, the most obvious beneficiaries were multinational publishers through their local offices or partners in Tanzania. A number of Kenyan based publishers also opened branches in Tanzania, some offering Kenyan books off the shelf and some attempting to adapt to meet Tanzanian curriculum requirements. Once again 100 percent locally owned publishers were at a disadvantage because they lacked previous experience and access to publishing skills, had no back list from which cheap adaptations could be developed and lacked investment finance. There were problems, for example, in using local designers who were not familiar with standard graphics software and local publishers also had problems sourcing illustrations because there were no picture libraries available locally and it proved difficult to obtain photographs, maps and other information from government departments. Nevertheless, the market has now been opened up to local publishing and with time there is an expectation that local publishing will be able to develop the experience to take advantage of the opportunities. In the meantime, the multinationals and the new Kenyan
publishers based in Tanzania are employing local staff, providing training and creating the expert pool from which other Tanzanian publishers eventually will benefit. Dar es Salaam University Press, Readit Books Ltd, Tanzanian Publishing House (the old parastatal), Ruvu Publishers, and Nyambari Nyanguine Publishers are among local publishing houses who have benefited from the recent change in policy. Once again, government support to secondary school purchase via annual capitation grants for textbooks has provided the security which enables new publishing to invest.

In Ghana new government policy requires that all government purchases of secondary school textbooks must be made either from local publishers or partnerships between multinationals and local publishers. This policy aims to develop local capacity in both policy and production. There is an approved book list from which government will select titles to buy in bulk for delivery to schools. Unfortunately, government purchases are unpredictable and are rarely in sufficient quantities to satisfy need.

In Kenya there is a powerful local publishing industry comprising both local and multinational publishers and regional publishers. For example, the development of the market liberalization policy in Uganda stimulated the rapid growth of the Ugandan publishing industry and some of these local companies, for example Monitor, have now taken an interest in publishing for the Kenyan market as well. South African publishers have also taken an interest in publishing for Kenya. Kenyan publishing was saved in the 1980s by the collapse of KSES, which enabled Kenyan publishers to get direct access to the secondary school market, and by the liberalization of primary school publishing when JKF and KPA, although still government parastatal publishers, were required to operate on a level playing field against commercial publishers with no priority in government funded supply. Secondary textbooks have never been funded by government but the market is sufficiently large and the national bookselling infrastructure has such comprehensive coverage that a thriving secondary school publishing industry survives on the basis of parental purchase alone. Most authors are drawn from the Ministry of Education, from the Kenya Institute of Education, examination markers, teacher trainers and classroom teachers of good reputation with track records of producing high grades at national examinations. In general, books authored by locals are preferred by teachers to those written by outsiders. Local publications are considered to be more oriented to the local market and the language used by local authors tends to be more familiar to teachers. Imported books are still used in some subjects at senior secondary level.

In Uganda there has been a rapid development of local publishing as a result of the market liberalization programme aimed at primary textbook supply. There is relatively little publishing for the secondary market largely because it is completely unsupported by the government apart from occasional bulk procurements. One or two textbooks (such as junior secondary math) have been developed locally because they were supported by government bulk purchase.

In Botswana a combination of very generous per capita grants for secondary school students, a requirement for national publishing and the availability of experienced textbook publishers both from the UK and from South Africa has led to a strong local publishing industry based on small secondary school student numbers. Most of the core texts in junior secondary are written by local authors or authors with local experience. However, outside expertise is provided in terms of series editors and advisors, mostly from South African publishing houses or the South African branches of multinationals. At senior secondary,
due to the lower numbers per subject and competition with international publications, local publishing has been less developed. For the few local publications at this level there is a stronger presence of international authors. The local publishing industry has a strong multinational presence. Heinemann (now Harcourt), Longman (now Pearson) and Macmillan all have a strong local presence and have a majority of listings on the prescription list. There is also a strong presence of non resident publishers. The list of local publishers with no links to outside companies is slowly growing with four of these showing significant recent growth. One of the latest entrants to the market is Collegium Publishers.

The experience of Anglophone countries demonstrates clearly that if market opportunities are provided and there is some financial support to protect investments then local publishing and authorship can develop very rapidly. In the early stages multinational publishers will tend to have significant advantages through their local branches and companies but it is worth noting that the multinational publishers employ local staff and train them and that this provides the pool of expertise from which local publishing can benefit and grow.
PART II

Secondary School Libraries
CHAPTER 7

Secondary School Libraries in Sub-Saharan Africa

At the secondary level, the key outputs that can be expected from effective school libraries are: (a) the development of improved reading and comprehension skills, which also underpin performance in all other curriculum subjects; and (b) the ability to access required information and to research and read around curriculum subjects. These are essential skills in the information age and these skills elsewhere in the world increasingly form the basis for secondary school methodologies that emphasize student-centered learning and individual student responsibility for their own learning. The lack of adequate provision for secondary school libraries is therefore a serious issue for secondary education in Africa, which should be providing the basic information, research and problem solving skills so that students can take full advantage of the opportunities offered by higher and further education and thus be able to operate effectively as lifelong learners.

Secondary School Library Provision

In Togo there are very few secondary schools with a library or a resource center, although there may be a room containing a few textbooks or novels, which is called a library. In Cameroon, secondary school libraries are reported to be virtually non-existent. In Rwanda, secondary school libraries have not been a high priority for donors or the government in the rebuilding of the education system following the 1994 genocide. In Cote d’Ivoire, as a result of the economic crisis of the 1990s the government decided to transform secondary school libraries into classrooms. As a result, 70 percent of school libraries were converted and only 10 percent of secondary schools currently have a school library.

Mali, Burkina Faso, and Senegal are all reported to have received some donor assistance to develop school libraries but most francophone countries have poorly developed secondary school library provision. The basic school library problems in francophone countries are:
Seriously inadequate funding, with little or no government financial support and only occasional donor support, which leaves most of the burden of library funding on parents who are already overstretched with the other costs of secondary education.

- Lack of adequate library premises, which are usually just converted classrooms with insufficient space, shelving, furniture, equipment or security.
- Lack of finance to undertake regular maintenance. Thus facilities tend to deteriorate rapidly.
- Where library stock exists it is generally old and often irrelevant to current curricula and teacher/student interests. More often than not there is virtually no appropriate stock available at all and there are rarely budgets for stock upgrading or replenishment.
- Heavy stock wear and tear, theft, loss and damage etc caused by poor security, pest and fungal damage, theft, and so forth.
- Lack of understanding by both teachers and students of the role and function of a school library and thus a growing inability to use libraries properly even if they are well-established.
- Lack of trained school librarians and poor training and overloading of teacher librarians.
- Poor library management systems. For overstretched and underpaid teachers the workload involved in selecting, ordering, receiving, cataloguing, managing loans and returns, re-shelving, repairs, and so forth is simply too much and even when funds are available basic management systems are often not up to standard.

The situation in Anglophone Africa is broadly similar. In Lesotho, 160 out of 250 secondary schools have no functioning school library. In Kenya, only a few well-established and prestigious secondary schools (both government and private) maintain effective school libraries. In rural secondary schools, there are very few school libraries. In Tanzania, recent research by the Tanzania Library Association found that in the Coast Region textbook stores were called school libraries. In Malawi, most secondary school libraries are reported to be in bad shape, despite the work of the Danida textbook rental scheme, which was based on the rapid development of secondary school libraries. Before the Danida project provided schools with matching funds for textbooks and school library purchases schools had to be able to demonstrate that they had an operational school library with sufficient shelving, basic student study spaces and adequate security to keep books safe, accessible and well-used. Schools were provided with basic specifications and standards for school libraries and were provided with grants to construct or improve a room into a basic school library. A teacher had to operate as a school librarian and was provided with basic training and a school library management handbook, which provided guidance in the operation of simple library management systems. Unfortunately, with the withdrawal of donor and GoM financial support in 2002 there is now insufficient funding even for textbooks so that reading books and curriculum support materials are no longer ordered, existing stocks are not being replenished and the library rooms are not being maintained.

In 2002 in Uganda out of 35 secondary schools visited across seven districts, nearly half had no library and of those that had a library room, many were only store rooms for a wide variety of goods, including maize and cement. Almost none had any adequate study space. In Uganda, as in many other sub-Saharan countries, because schools are seriously short of
basic textbooks, little priority is given to the development of school library stocks of appropriate fiction, supplementary curriculum support materials, and basic reference books. The wide range of contemporary African fiction for teenagers that has emerged over the past 25 years is absent in any quantity from almost every secondary school in Uganda; this is widely reported from a majority of school libraries in other countries. Fiction, where it does exist, is often old stocks of reprints of abridged classic 19th and 20th century English literature. As a result few schools have anything like a conventional library. This has two consequences:

a) Most students read very little, largely because there is very little of interest available to read.22 This lack of basic reading is a matter of considerable concern to many secondary school heads and teachers and must have an adverse impact on the development of comprehension, subject mastery in other subjects and in basic skills such as vocabulary acquisition and clear writing.

b) Secondary school graduates have no practice in the application of basic library skills. Thus, a large majority of students do not know how to use library catalogues or to access basic reference books and do not know how to research the information that they need. When they progress to higher education they have no skills or previous background in research or information access. This situation was confirmed at Makerere University where faculty staff and librarians reported in 2002 that a majority of students often cannot even use a book index and have serious problems with using the University and faculty libraries.

Of the countries reviewed for this study only Botswana had a good basic secondary school library system in all schools. All Government secondary schools in Botswana have libraries as part of the school infrastructure. Every secondary school has a designated librarian who is either a trained teacher or a full-time trained librarian. For the 27 Government Senior Secondary Schools, 13 have qualified Librarians seconded from the Botswana National Library Service (BNLS). The rest have Teacher Librarians who in theory are given a lower teaching load so as to make time for library management. The latter receive professional support from BNLS. BNLS has also appointed a coordinator for the 206 Community Junior Secondary School Libraries and they provide assistance to the teacher librarians through regular visits and cluster workshops.

Botswana also provides a dedicated school library budget, which used to be based on a per capita allocation of about P30.00 (US$5.00) for both Junior and Senior Secondary students. At present there is no established per capita allocation and as a result spending

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22. In Malawi in 2001 a CDSS (one of the poorer versions of secondary education in Malawi) was provided with a stock of 200 different reading books for its school library in the form of modern novels with an African background and context specially written for teenagers. The teacher librarian conducted a baseline survey in which he concluded that no junior secondary school student could recall previously reading a novel. After six months the same students were regularly borrowing and reading one novel a week and some of the students were borrowing two or more per week. All teachers commented on the rapid improvement in standards of English comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, clarity of expression and student self-confidence in both reading and written work, which benefited their performance in all secondary school subjects.
on school library materials is declining. Recent sampling suggests that the current junior secondary library budget is around P10.00 (US$1.67) per head, while for senior secondary it was about P16.00 (US$2.67). On average a JSS in Botswana has an annual school library budget (in addition to the textbook budget) of about of P7,000.00 (US$1,170).\textsuperscript{23} For Senior Secondary the average budget is about P30,000 (US$5,000) per year. Though the official book list provides suggestions for all subjects, the library stock in most schools is primarily made up of fiction (about 70 percent); the rest of the stock comprises reference and supplementary books to support the curriculum. Obviously, the school library situation in Botswana is not typical of secondary school libraries in most other African countries.

### Financing Secondary School Libraries

The overwhelming characteristic of most secondary school library provision throughout Africa is underfunding, which in most countries amounts to little or no funding at all. Because libraries are underfunded, they are of only limited value and interest to both students and teachers and as a result they tend to be underused. Thus, they have little priority in either national or school budgets. With the exception of Botswana, no other school system of those reviewed for this study—in either anglophone or francophone Africa—provides consistent, predictable, year on year funding for school libraries. Some systems provide occasional supplies of readers, dictionaries, atlases, or occasionally an encyclopaedia. Yet, these are only rarely provided to every secondary school and they are almost never provided on a reliable, recurrent basis. Similarly, there are occasional donor-supported secondary school library initiatives. Thus, in Tanzania the ESDP has allocated US$2.8 million for secondary school library support. In Rwanda, the African Development Bank is providing funding to secondary school libraries as part of its Upgrading Secondary Education Project. Both of these projects are providing support to selected schools rather than to the entire system. There are no examples of consistent policies and predictable funding for the development of secondary school library systems—and the private school sector, which is rapidly becoming the main vehicle for secondary education provision in many countries, is left out of both government and donor funding initiatives. Even where schools have a library budget (from whatever source) the money is often used as an emergency source of funding for overhead and operational expenses and is frequently diverted away from library expenditure.

### Other Characteristics of Secondary School Libraries

Very few sub-Saharan countries have articulated basic standards for secondary school libraries as guidelines for funding by either Ministries of Education or individual schools. In Tanzania, a functioning school library is required by every private school applying for certification and registration, but the requirement appears to have no teeth and it is reported that so long as a school has a sign on a classroom door that identifies it as the

\textsuperscript{23} This is based on an average school enrollment and an allocation of P10.00 per student.
library, no other checking is undertaken. The lack of national standards for secondary school libraries means that neither private nor state schools need meet minimum criteria for secondary school libraries.

Many countries in both francophone and anglophone Africa complain about the prevalence of donated secondhand books in secondary school libraries. While these donations are welcomed in principle they are often not central to the national curricula and often not attractive as reading books. More than one country complains that the existence of donations provides governments with excuses not to fund school or even national library systems. In smaller school libraries they can also take up valuable storage space. Thus, contributors from Togo, Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, and Malawi all comment adversely on the impact of secondhand book donations.

Where library stock exists (and this is only in a minority of secondary schools in most countries) it usually consists of some combination of the following stock categories:

- Textbook sets, which are shared between students, depending on the pupil textbook ratio of the school.
- Donated secondhand books of variable relevance (see above).
- Pamphlets. These are “cribs” or leaflets on how to pass the exams, often written by the teachers and sold to schools and students. They are usually very cheaply produced and often have many factual, grammatical, and spelling errors.
- Old books, sometimes dating back to the colonial era. There are still in some school libraries readable hardbacks, reference, fiction, and classic French and English texts; and some schools use these to improve reading. It is not uncommon for students who have access to reading books to be set annual reading targets and to be required to write reviews of the books that they have read.
- Magazines or comics, usually donated. Magazines and journals are rarely provided by any donor funded project because they require on-going subscriptions and therefore recurrent funding.

Stock is often very old and librarians scarcely ever throw any books away. Library “weeding” does not take place, because the school never knows when it will next get a chance to buy new stock. Often, new books are hoarded and kept locked up for fear they will get spoiled.

In many schools the concept of a school library no longer exists because for many teachers and students a library is seen as simply the place where the school textbooks are stored. The Kenya contributor commented that many teachers no longer know how to use a school library and Malawi reported that a majority of teachers and students no longer understood the difference textbooks, reference books, and supplementary books.

Study and reading spaces typically are very inadequate, which is a big handicap to students who have nowhere else to study, and where homes are often crowded and badly lit. Borrowing policies vary. In some countries students can borrow, but there are usually too few copies to go around and because of the risk of damage and theft, schools are understandably often unwilling to lend or try to impose strict penalties for loss or damage, which in turn makes students wary of borrowing because of the prevalence of peer group theft of school books. In many schools with an existing library it is often no longer used as a library. It may be used as a storeroom for textbooks, equipment, supplies, building materials, and
even bicycles. As student numbers continue to increase so the pressure on space increases and often the library is sacrificed to use as another classroom.

**Linkages to National Library Systems**

In some countries the National Library Service survives (often on the basis of donations, sometimes with donor project funding) and continues to support schools. In Tanzania, Kenya, Malawi, Botswana, and many other countries the National Library Services lend books to schools, train librarians, and in some cases run mobile libraries. The scale of coverage is, however, generally small. Kenya, for example, has two mobile libraries (one motorized and one camel-backed for use in Arid and Semi-Arid Lands) providing school loans to cover the whole country. In reality, only a very few schools can benefit.

In many countries the National Library and municipal or public libraries still provide a valuable service, which provides a source of books and information additional to school libraries. In Togo 80 percent of public library users are secondary school students and this would be a common pattern in many countries.

It is noticeable that in francophone Africa libraries are often funded through the Ministry of Culture and there is a good deal of library support from France, through various projects run by the French cultural centers. In Rwanda Coopération française is financing a project to support public reading with a budget of €2 million over four years. It is sponsored by the Ministry of Culture and supports the development of a dozen public libraries and multimedia centers in the main towns and cities, all supplied with state of the art equipment and security. Stock avoids textbooks and concentrates on fiction (African and French authors), comics, children’s books, dictionaries and magazine subscriptions. Even though these libraries are not part of the education system the majority of users are primary and secondary school students. In Togo there is a substantial network of 67 public libraries, with books supplied by donors and with trained librarians. Also in Togo Coopération française is funding a public reading project with a budget of €1 million. About half of the budget purchases books and the rest is allocated to librarianship training, creative writing workshops, and subsidies to publishers for local children’s book publishing.

Funding from the UK for public library development has often been provided through the British Council.

**School Library Management**

Libraries at secondary school should be staffed by a qualified librarian but the library profession is now badly paid and not prestigious, and funding to pay for a qualified librarian is rarely available. A report from Namibia in 2002 mentions the “poor public image and low salaries of librarians in the public sector.”

Most secondary schools with functioning libraries manage by using a junior teacher to do extra work as a teacher librarian. It is rare that schools can afford to hire even a partly-trained school librarian. Thus, school librarians frequently have little or even no training in library management or book maintenance and repair. The low level of library management

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24. Projet d’appui à la lecture publique.
also means that very frequently there is no period in the school day when students can do more than quickly take or return a book. Time to browse or read in the library is impossible if no library period is built into the school day, or after school. The use of the library is often restricted to using it for class reading when a teacher is sick. Poor library systems also lead to excessive stock loss and damage.

As librarians are usually low down in the school hierarchy, they tend to have little influence in the school and are in no position to defend the needs of their library if cuts are made to library budgets or a library is taken over for a classroom.

Distribution Issues

Publishers generally report fairly small sales to school libraries, although the more prestigious private schools are often the biggest buyers. It is a selling point for a private school to be able to advertise an operational library.

Because libraries order few books, distribution is frequently a problem as booksellers do not want to deliver small quantities, particularly when the order may comprise many titles in small order quantities. As a result, library distribution is frequently combined with textbook supply. This is a practice which Botswana publishers are trying to terminate because they see combined textbook and library orders as a means of diverting library budgets into textbook purchases.

School library stock selection is a problem, particularly in rural areas where good local booksellers are rare and there are no stock samples, catalogues, brochures or even price information on which to base selection decisions. As a result many secondary schools order “blind” and many school library orders are less than effective as a result. In Malawi, the Danida project worked with local publishers to organize an annual series of regional book exhibitions to which all schools were invited. These exhibitions contained not just the approved textbook series, but also readers, reference books and supplementary materials to assist schools in making up their textbook and library orders. These regional book fairs were much appreciated and strongly supported by schools and DEOs and have become a regular feature of the sales and promotional efforts of local publishers.

School Library Policy Issues

Secondary school libraries should provide supplementary information to encourage student research and wider reading plus leisure reading materials to support the active development of a reading habit. Active reading improves comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, reading fluency, and ease and clarity of expression. It improves performance in all other subject areas. School libraries should provide basic training to all students in using libraries and in developing at least basic information access and research skills.

The achievement of these objectives requires:

- Recognition of, and commitment to, the value and central role of the school library by teachers and head teachers, inspectors, the educational establishment, parents and students.
- Regular sustained library budgets (for stock, management and maintenance) to support the above.
A Ministry of Education School Library Policy and clear, realistic minimum school library standards to support the rapid development of effective school libraries.

- Adequate stocks of books and other materials (CDs, DVDs, journals, posters, and so forth, plus wherever possible access to the internet) which can be renewed regularly to keep information up to date and replace worn out copies.
- Space to study in a quiet, clean and well lit environment.
- A qualified librarian or well-trained teacher librarian to manage the library, to help with selection, searching, cataloguing, and so forth, and to train all students in the use of a library.
- Regular support, backup, and monitoring from the inspectorate and the active involvement wherever possible of national library services.
- A simple library management system to include fixed library periods for lending and selection, repairing books, and liaison with teachers for all schools.

School libraries could range in type from custom-designed central school libraries with multi-media resources, to classroom libraries, to loaned book boxes and mobile library supplies. The type of library required depends on the country, the buildings, the experience of teachers and librarians, and the available budget and its sustainability.

School Library Cost Implications

Almost all of the available print investment for teaching and learning resources in most African countries is currently concentrated on the provision of basic textbooks. As a result of this approach there is little investment finance left over to support genuine library publications (both print and electronic) for students and to initiate a policy of library development in support of new learning objectives. This approach, in which the textbook contains everything, is expensive and is not necessarily an effective use of available financial resources. In the context of changing curriculum objectives it is also a self-defeating strategy because it actively prevents the realization of the wider curriculum goals of developing active student participation in, and responsibility for, their own learning.

An alternative approach is to publish fewer and less compendious basic textbooks (to develop the concept of textbooks as core learning guides) and to spread the cost savings on to alternative learning materials (topic books, curriculum support materials, reference books, remedial books for students with some learning difficulties, extension materials for elite students, supplementary software in the form of learning objects). A wide range of additional learning materials could be provided to every school, which would actually be cheaper than the current approach because the topic books and supplementary materials supplied to school libraries would not have to be supplied on the basis of 1:1 book:pupil ratios, as is currently the case with textbooks. Rather they could be supplied at ratios of 1:10, with significant cost savings.

A shift towards fewer and somewhat shorter textbooks with an emphasis on guiding students towards independent learning rather than the provision of a dense mass of facts and exercises, in close association with a much greater emphasis on the publication of well-targeted extension, remedial and library materials would strongly support the pedagogic principles of student centered learning and the development of reading (the basis of all
education). If properly planned, designed and implemented, it would actually be considerably cheaper than the current system of monolithic textbook production.

It is clear from Box 1 that significant changes in the nature of teaching and learning materials provision could be achieved at little extra recurrent cost simply by shifting away from high content compendious textbooks to “core” textbooks targeted at the majority student population, supported by carefully designed extension and supplementary materials.

All of these supplementary materials could be supplied to every school in the country without a significant increase in current budgets.

Good libraries empower. Using their resources can unfetter our imaginations; disclose hitherto unrealized worlds; promote knowledge; induce pleasure; make us laugh; impart insights; challenge our preconceptions; assuage fears; prick our conscience; inflame our sensibilities; and provide professional refreshment. What we learn from good books and other resources becomes part of us. . . . before pupils become independent users of information they need to learn which resources to choose, how to find and select information and how to make the best use of it. They also need to be helped to make effective use of a wider range of resources and information available through the new technologies. Never has the necessity been greater

**Box 1: Example of Alternative Page Requirements**

Compare the paper usage (and thus the cost) of 10 Grade 8 textbooks each with a hypothetical average page extent of 250 pages printed in editions of 100,000 copies each. The total page extent required is 250,000,000 pages. A hypothetical alternative approach could be as follows:

- 10 Grade 8 textbooks each of 200 pages (a 20 percent reduction in extent) in print runs of 100,000 copies for the “core student” = 200,000,000 pages
- 10 extension books (1 to support each textbook) for the 10 percent of elite students, each containing 96 pages but printed in editions of 10,000 copies (1 book per “elite” student) = 96,000,000 pages
- 50 library topic books each of 64 pages printed in editions of 10,000 copies (1 book per 10 students) and based on specified curriculum topics, which will provide opportunities for further individual reading and research by the students = 320,000,000 pages

In this alternative approach the elite student would actually receive more content with the core textbooks + the extension textbooks (2000 + 960 pages = 2960 pages compared with the 2500 pages of the original textbook), but the overall page and paper requirement and thus the total cost is very much reduced because the extension material only goes to those students who require it, and not to the majority of students who can’t easily cope with the demands of enlarged content.

Average students would receive textbooks more geared to their needs in terms of content and the required pace of work. Teachers would be able to take more time to ensure reinforcement and consolidation because the content requirement has been reduced. Thus, better results will be achieved with the majority of the students while fast track, elite students are more capable of working by themselves.

All students receive an injection of new supplementary materials and reading materials in an upgraded school library, which will actively support student reading and research and thus active and student-centered learning. There will be an increased demand for authorship and thus a potential boost to local publishing and printing.

The total page requirement of the alternative approach is 241,600,000 pages compared to the existing comprehensive textbook requirement of 250,000,000 pages but a far wider range of learning resources have been provided which caters for the average student in the basic textbook, the elite student in the extension materials, and all students in the provision of a new generation of library books which can be used to encourage active research and learning for all students.
for young people to develop sufficient confidence to discriminate wisely—between the average, the mediocre and the best—and to demand and use the best.

Good school libraries don’t happen by chance. The best are developed rationally; frequently by the whole community . . . The proper provision and cost effective use of learning resources is cardinal to promoting enhanced classroom achievement and high educational standards. For a school not to invest time and energy in promoting its learning resources is to disadvantage its own pupils.

(Robertson 1992)
In 2002, at the request of donors and the Ugandan MOES, a comprehensive proposal for affordable and sustainable provision of secondary school textbooks and libraries was developed on the basis of extensive field research and presented during a three-day workshop in Kampala. Although the proposals were well-received they have never been implemented and thus the longer-term implementation issues have never been tested. Nevertheless, all of the individual components of the proposal have been successfully implemented in individual African countries Lesotho and Malawi for revolving fund and rental scheme methodologies and Kenya and Uganda for competitive textbook approval systems) and elsewhere in the world (particularly in the Former Soviet Union where sustainable textbook provision models of the kind proposed for consideration in Uganda have operated very successfully and for many years now in Armenia, Moldova, and Uzbekistan).

The Uganda proposal incorporated all of the recommendations and proposals for affordable and sustainable secondary school textbook and school library provision that have emerged in the preceding chapters. An abridged form of the Uganda proposal is provided below as a possible model for what might be achievable in many African countries in the future.

25. For example, the textbook scheme in Armenia was launched in 1997. Every child in every grade now has a copy of every textbook funded by affordable rental fees with very high collection rates and in 2007 there was a balance in the revolving fund account of US$12 million for the purchase of replacement copies. Armenia is now fully sustainable in textbook provision and there is no longer a government budget line for textbooks. In 2008 the textbook concept will be expanded to cover school library provision. In Uzbekistan, the textbook revolving fund balance is projected to exceed US$50 million by the of 2007.
Table 8. Cost of Basic Textbook Provision at One School in Uganda for S1 to S6 (2002)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>No of Textbook Titles Req’d</th>
<th>Cost of 1 Full Set of (USh)</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>No of Textbook Sets Req’d^a</th>
<th>Total Cost (USh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>210,000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>34</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>210,000</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6,090,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>360,000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1,440,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>360,000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2,880,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1,540,000</td>
<td>445</td>
<td></td>
<td>33,350,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aBased on one textbook per three pupils plus one teachers’ copy.

The Ugandan Textbook and School Library Proposal

The cost of basic secondary textbook provision in Uganda in 2002 based on a ratio of one textbook per three students in every subject at every grade level is calculated in Table 8.

Using the same principles exhibited in Table 8, Table 9 attempts to make a national calculation of core textbook provision based on the current enrollment figures.

On the basis of Table 9, an initial investment of Ush39.543 billion (approximately US$22.6 million at 2002 exchange rates) would be required to provide basic textbook provision for the 2001 roll numbers.

Table 9. National Cost of Basic Textbook Provision for S1 to S6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>No of Textbook Titles Req’d</th>
<th>Cost of 1 Full Set of (USh)</th>
<th>Number of Students^a</th>
<th>No of Textbook Sets Req’d^a</th>
<th>Total Cost (USh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>210,000</td>
<td>152,484</td>
<td>52,100</td>
<td>10,941,000,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>210,000</td>
<td>129,544</td>
<td>42,210</td>
<td>8,864,100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>106,169</td>
<td>36,275</td>
<td>7,255,000,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>85,507</td>
<td>29,215</td>
<td>5,843,000,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>360,000</td>
<td>24,564</td>
<td>8,395</td>
<td>3,022,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>360,000</td>
<td>29,402</td>
<td>10,050</td>
<td>3,618,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1,540,000</td>
<td>527,670</td>
<td></td>
<td>39,543,300,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aGrade-level enrollments are derived from Table 5 and are total enrollments, not just enrollments for GoU-assisted schools.

^bBased on one copy of each textbook per three pupils plus one teachers’ copy for each of 40 pupils.
The following points should, however, be noted:

- The cost estimates in this section cover only the provision of core textbooks: they do not include any reference books, supplementary reading materials, or other library titles.
- The possibility of reduced needs by multiple textbook use in parallel classes (that is, making one set of textbooks available to more than one class by careful timetabling) has not been accounted.

In order to simplify future cost calculations, Table 10 provides the unit costs of provision for S1 to S4 and for S5 to S6. Once again, as a means of simplification, the unit costs have been calculated for all UCE students and then for all UACE students separately.

The Unit Cost per student for the purchase of basic supplies of new textbooks to support a new curriculum (on the basis of one textbook per three students for each required subject per grade level plus a contribution to the costs of teacher copies) is therefore:

- USh69,460 (US$40.00) for S1 to S4
- USh123,042 (US$70.00) for S5 to S6.

**Textbook Rental Schemes**

The kind of investment in textbooks illustrated in Table 10 is likely to prove daunting, and probably impossible, for a majority of secondary school students. At the same time, the support costs involved in establishing, maintaining and replacing core textbook stocks will be very high for government. Also, at a time of very high growth in secondary roll numbers, the cost burden of GoU/donor support for basic textbook provision will also grow very rapidly and could easily become insupportable. Some form of cost reduction is therefore urgently required if basic instructional materials support is to be provided to the secondary sector, which is already demonstrating signs of serious decline in standards.

The most obvious form of cost reduction is the development of school textbook banks financed by annual student rental fees. This enables the initial costs of supply to be amortized over the period of assumed book life (six years in Uganda?), provided only that financial support is available for the initial costs of investment. Textbook rental fees are normally calculated to take into account the likely costs of annual loss and damage replacement and the cost of full stock replacement at the end of the normal period of book life. To ensure that funds are sufficient for replacement an inflation allocation is also built into the calculation.

A typical annual rental formula is provided below for S1 to S4 and for S5 to S6. The formulas are based on the following assumptions:

- Unit Cost of Textbook Sets = see Table 10
- Annual Loss and Damage Allocation = Assume 5% pro tem
- Average Annual Inflation Rate = Assume 10%
- Book Life = 6 years
- Average Annual Enrollment Growth Rate = 15%

On the basis of the rental fee formula described above, all secondary school students could contribute to the full costs of a sustainable system of basic textbook provision. Such a
system would be based on maximum cost amortization through the use of a rental scheme, which would provide permanent loan access to all required textbooks for all subjects at all grade levels. The annual per student fee would be approximately equal to the current average cost of purchase of one textbook for UCE and one textbook for UACE. The rental fee would cover the costs of loss/damage and full stock replacement after six years and would include an annual allowance for inflation. Enrollment growth rate would be covered by additional rental fees each year from new entrants, which would enable top-up copies to be purchased.

Other factors to be noted in the development of a national textbook rental fee system are:

- The scheme should be run by each individual school so that rental fees contributed by students are maintained in each school and are accountable to students and parents by each school.
- The rental scheme should be operated out of a separate bank account so that accumulated funds are not mixed with other school funding.
- The scheme should be combined with the introduction of a national approved book list based on a national evaluation and approval methodology, which includes price as a significant evaluation criterion and establishes minimum mandatory physical specifications in order to achieve downward pressure on prices.
- Only books on the approved list could be purchased using funding from the rental scheme.

### Table 10. Unit Costs per Student of Basic Textbook Provision (including the cost of provision of teachers’ copies)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms</th>
<th>Total Number of Students</th>
<th>Total Cost of Basic Provision (USh)</th>
<th>Unit Cost Per Student (USh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1 – S4</td>
<td>473,704</td>
<td>32,903,100,000</td>
<td>69,460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5 – S6</td>
<td>53,966</td>
<td>6,640,100,000</td>
<td>123,042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Box 2: Typical Annual Rental Fee Formula

\[
\text{Annual Rental Fee} = \frac{\text{Unit Cost of Textbook Set} \times \text{Loss/Damage rate} \times \text{Inflation Allocation} \times \text{Enrollment Growth Allowance}}{\text{Assumed Book Life}}
\]

For S1-S4 the annual rental fee = \(\frac{\$40 \times 1.05 \times 1.1 \times 1.15}{6}\) = $8.85 per student per year (USh15,500)

For S5-S6 the annual rental fee = \(\frac{\$70 \times 1.05 \times 1.1 \times 1.15}{6}\) = $15.50 per student per year (USh27,125)

*It should be noted that reduced book:pupil ratios and additional copies for teachers are already included in the Unit Cost calculations (see Tables 9 and 10).
The scheme could be introduced one grade level at a time over a 6 year period in phase with the introduction of a new curriculum in order to reduce the costs of initial investment.

The rental scheme is only operational if there is initial GoU/donor investment support to provide full initial stocks so that students are motivated to pay because they know that the payment will guarantee them access to all the textbooks that they need.

Regular inspection and supervision will be essential to ensure proper use of funding.

Rental fees should be set nationally and reviewed annually to make sure that the basic assumptions in the calculation of the fees remain valid.

Textbook loans to students from the library or book bank should be short term (3–5 days) to ensure that all students get the opportunity to use the textbooks and to prevent loss and damage.26

Special library training and management systems would need to be developed to support the secondary school textbook rental scheme.

**Other Forms of Textbook Cost Reduction**

Two other concepts could be added to the textbook rental scheme in order to reduce the basic per student costs of full textbook provision. These are:

The introduction of conscious downward pressure on prices by the introduction of an approved textbook list for secondary education based on a competitive evaluation system where price (side by side with educational and pedagogical criteria) is a critical factor in the achievement of approved status. Such a system could be expected to reduce current textbook prices by a conservative 20 percent. In Kenya, Ghana and Tanzania competitive textbook evaluation and detailed content specifications based on local needs have reduced unit average textbook prices to US$4-6 so the projected 20 percent price reduction could be modest and larger price reductions could be achieved with well-developed bidding and evaluation systems.

Thus the annual student rental fee could be further reduced as follows:

- For S1 – S4: from US$8.85 (Ush15,500) to US$7.10 (Ush12,400)
- For S5 – S6: from US$15.50 (Ush27,125) to US$12.40 (Ush21,700).

The provision of matching funding from GoU/donors, which would motivate students/parents to pay rental fees thus supporting high level collection rates and would also support the initial investment cost in textbook supplies, on which the concept of the textbook rental scheme is based. The impact of the matching fund in terms of providing the initial investment cost is illustrated in Tables 11 and 12.

On the other hand, if the full costs of initial investment in start-up stock (USh39.543 billion or US$22.6 million with current enrollment assumptions) are not met by the GoU/donors, then the rental fees would have to be increased in the initial start-up phase in order to cover the required first phase investment. Tables 11 and 12 provide an example

---

26. Short term loans were effective in reducing loss and damage in the Malawi secondary textbook scheme.
Table 11. Cash Flow by Grade Levels in a Schematic Full Textbook Rental Scheme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Projected Roll Numbers&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>No of Req’d Textbook Sets&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>US$ Cost Per Textbook Set&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Total Purchase Cost (US$)</th>
<th>Rental Fee Income (US$)</th>
<th>Gou/Donor Matching Income or Surplus (US$)&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Total Income (US$)</th>
<th>Finishing Gap or Surplus (US$)&lt;sup&gt;e&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary Form One</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>2003</td>
<td>200,000</td>
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<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>(2,833,000)</td>
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<td>2,300,000</td>
<td>+1,275,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2,650,000</td>
<td>+1,450,000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>4,000,000</td>
<td>+2,300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary Form Two</td>
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<td>3,000,000</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>920,000</td>
<td>1,860,000</td>
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<td>165</td>
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<table>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>63,250</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>165</td>
<td>4,125,000</td>
<td>1,168,000</td>
<td>1,168,000</td>
<td>2,336,000</td>
<td>(1,789,000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Enrollment statistics are based on the EPD Statistical Abstracts for 2001 inflated by 15 percent per year.

After the initial stock purchase, purchases in subsequent years reflect only the costs of buying for increased roll numbers. The required number of textbook sets assumes one textbook per three students plus an allowance for free teachers’ copies. This table does not specifically cover matching funds for new schools, which are included in the financing summary.

These costs are based on Table 10.

In this model matching funds are paid only on the first year of introduction of new curriculum textbooks per grade. Special arrangements will have to be made for new schools, which will have to buy several grades at the same time (see below).

The Financing Gap/Surplus is the difference between annual expenditure (textbook set purchases) and annual income (rental fees + matching funds).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Matching Funds</th>
<th>Financing Gap</th>
<th>Total Investment Required</th>
<th>Less Surpluses on Grade Level Rental Fees</th>
<th>Net Investment Required from Gou/Donors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>2,833,000</td>
<td>4,833,000</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>(4,833,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1,950,000</td>
<td>2,760,000</td>
<td>3,435,000</td>
<td>1,275,000</td>
<td>(2,160,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1,850,000</td>
<td>1,968,000</td>
<td>3,818,000</td>
<td>1,450,000 1,225,000</td>
<td>(1,143,000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1,630,000</td>
<td>1,774,000</td>
<td>3,404,000</td>
<td>1,700,000 1,400,000 1,227,000</td>
<td>+923,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>920,000</td>
<td>1,440,000</td>
<td>2,360,000</td>
<td>1,960,000 1,650,000 1,420,000 1,135,000</td>
<td>+4,605,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1,168,000</td>
<td>1,789,000</td>
<td>2,957,000</td>
<td>2,300,000 1,910,000 1,649,000 1,277,000 630,000</td>
<td>+3,160,000</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>9,518,000</td>
<td>12,543,000</td>
<td>22,061,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>+552,000</td>
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of a compromise approach involving a modest increase in annual student rental fees, plus
reduced initial matching funds from donors.

A Schematic Instructional Materials Support Budget

In the example described below it is assumed that the GoU and donors will not be able to
afford the full startup investment costs of a textbook rental scheme (US$22.6 million).
However, the example also recognizes that some initial investment is required in order to
kick-start an affordable, self-sustaining scheme for the permanent provision of adequate
supplies of textbooks.

The schematic approach described below therefore has the following assumptions:

■ The phased introduction of the textbook rental scheme a year at a time in order to
  support the introduction of the new curriculum and to reduce the costs of high ini-
  tial stock investments.
■ Annual textbook rental fees of US$10 for UCE students and US$16 for UACE stu-
  dents. Field research suggested that these fee rates, which are approximately only
  8 percent of the existing average cost of a full set of textbooks for each subject,
  would be acceptable to around 85 percent of students in secondary schools. Yet,
  15 percent of secondary students are probably incapable of funding any level of
  textbook cost and would need special bursary support. Alternately, the rental fees
  could be adjusted upwards to cover free supply to 15 percent of secondary students.
■ Matching fund support from donors for the first three years of scheme introduc-
  tion (minor levels of matching fund payments would be needed in subsequent years
  to support new school openings, but this is not included in the current model).
■ 20 percent reductions in current textbook costs resulting from the introduction
  of competitive textbook evaluation and approval.

It should also be noted that the rental scheme formula includes an inflation allowance of
10 percent per year. Apart from that, the calculations included in Tables 11 and 12 are
provided on a constant cost basis.

The data in Table 12 is derived from the detailed data provided in Table 11. This model
of secondary textbook financing demonstrates the following:

■ Major GoU/donor financing would be required in the form of matching funds only
  for the first three years of operation. Thereafter, surpluses from accumulated
  annual rental fees would exceed the annual costs of investment for the purchase of
  new stock to support the introduction of new syllabuses and the purchase of addi-
  tional stock to support increased roll numbers.
■ The cost of new school openings is included in the assumed enrollment growth
  rates. Matching funds after the first three years would be required only for new
  school openings where stock for previous grade levels was also required. This would
  be a relatively minor cost.
■ The total GoU/donor investment cost required to support the introduction of new
  textbooks for new syllabuses would be US$8.136 million for the first three years
  only. Minor matching funds for new school openings in years 4–6 would probably
amount to no more than US$1.5 million—a total GoU/donor investment of around US$9.5 million spread over six years, but heavily front-end loaded.

- Apart from new school openings, the rental scheme would reach self-sustainability after three years. By year 6, schools would have accumulated US$8.688 million in their bank accounts to cover the costs of stock replacement for S1 in year 7.
- The problem of lower than optimum rental fee collection rates would be solved by extending library loan facilities (and thus stock purchases) only to students who had paid their rental fees.
- The annual student fee rates of US$10 (USh17,500) for UCE students and US$16 (Ush28,000) are high, but they are far cheaper than any other possible method of textbook supply and they would decrease at the end of the first six-year period in real terms, because there would be sufficient funds available in school accounts to finance replacement stock without the need to front-end load the rental fees to create initial stock purchase funding.

Secondary School Libraries, Reading Books and Reference Materials

Because schools are seriously short of basic textbooks, little priority is given to the development of school library stocks of appropriate fiction, supplementary curriculum support materials, and basic reference books in most schools. The wide range of contemporary African fiction that has emerged over the past 25 years is absent in any quantity from almost every secondary school in the country. Fiction, where it does exist, is often old stocks of reprints of abridged, classic 19th and 20th century English literature. Much of the limited library stock is based on donations of secondhand books, many of which are out-of-date and of only very limited relevance. As a result, very few schools have anything approaching a conventional library. This has two serious consequences:

- Most students read very little, largely because there is very little of interest available to read. This lack of basic reading is a matter of considerable concern to many secondary school heads and teachers and must have an adverse impact on the development of comprehension, subject mastery in other subjects, and basic skills such as vocabulary acquisition, clear writing, and so forth.
- Secondary school graduates have no practice in the application of basic library skills. Thus, a large majority of students do not know how to use library catalogues or to access basic reference books and do not know how to research and evaluate needed information. When they progress to universities or higher education they have no skills or previous background in research or information access. If the 21st century is the “information century” then most secondary school students in Uganda are not being provided with the basic skills to access and use information. This situation was confirmed at Makerere University where faculty staff and librarians report that a majority of students often cannot even use a book index.

An additional rental fee of US$2 per student would provide a secondary school with 800 students with an annual library budget of US$1,600 per year. If 50 percent matching funds were made available for the first three years, as with the proposed textbook rental scheme, the budget would rise to US$2,400 per year at constant prices. At current costs, this would
purchase around 400-600 library titles (print and electronic) per year for three years (a total of 1,200–1,800 items). After three years when the investment impact in initial library stock had been created, an annual accession rate of 250–400 stock items a year, based only on student contributions would still lead to a total library stock of around 2,000 to 2,200 items. This is very small compared to developed world school libraries, but would represent a revolutionary injection of additional learning resources for every secondary school.

It should also be noted that the absence of effective libraries in most secondary schools also means that there is an absence of trained librarians, which in turn reinforces the lack of basic information skills.

**Recommendations**

The following recommendations are proposed:

- Secondary schools should adopt a textbook rental system as the cheapest method of providing basic textbooks for all subjects at all grade levels.
- The textbook rental system should be managed and operated at school level and all rental fees should be maintained at school level.
- Nevertheless, components of the national rental scheme such as fee rates and annual fee increases should be designed and supervised at a national level.
- The textbook rental scheme should be supported in its initial launch phase by matching funds provided by donors. The higher the level of matching fund, the cheaper the textbook rental fees and thus the greater the level of student/parent support.
- A national approved textbook list based on competitive submissions with price as a criterion in evaluation and mandatory minimum physical specifications is an essential mechanism for maintaining prices at acceptable levels.
- Special attention should be given to the development of basic library facilities in secondary schools and to the provision of special training in the running of textbook libraries/textbook banks.
- Some provision should be made for collections of contemporary fiction and basic reference books in school libraries.
In June 2003, the MOE created the following textbook management committees for middle and secondary schools:

1) A National Steering Committee ("Comité de Pilotage") in charge of:
   - Defining the orientations of the MoE’s publishing policy,
   - Implementing national publishing strategies,
   - Informing and mobilising donors about these strategies, and
   - Suggesting any regulating measure of strategic textbook management to optimise its results at all levels.

   Its members are:
   - Director, INEADE
   - Director of Primary education
   - Director of General Middle and Secondary Education
   - Director of Administration and Equipment
   - Director of Planning and Education Reform
   - Director of the Coordinating Unit for Education Projects
   - Head of the Textbook Department, INEADE.

   It sits twice a year; its technical secretariat is provided by INEADE.

2) Regional Steering Committees ("Comités régionaux de Pilotage") in charge of:
   - Informing, sensitising and mobilising donors and communities about textbook policy,
   - Thinking about strategies to implement textbook publishing, and
   - Supervising and coordinating actions to foster textbook access.
Its members are:
- President: Regional Inspector ("Inspecteur d’Académie")
- Inspectors at Département level
- PTA representatives
- One representative from the Regional Council
- One donor representative.

It sits twice a year (extraordinary sessions are possible)

3) Département Level Coordination Committees ("Comités départementaux de Coordination"), in charge of:
- Coordinating the different local management committees within the Département,
- Informing, sensitising and mobilising donors and the education community about textbook policy at Département level,
- Divulgating strategies and programmes defined by the Regional Steering Committee throughout the Département, and
- Reporting to the local inspectorate ("Inspection d’Académie") about textbook distribution and management at the beginning and the end of each school year.

Its members are:
- President: Local inspector ("Inspecteur départemental de l’Education")
- One representative of the Département’s headteachers
- One PTA representative
- One representative per commune
- One representative per teachers’ union
- One donor representative

4) Local Management Committees ("Comités locaux de Gestion"), one per school, in charge of:
- Implementing programmes and strategies defined by the Regional Steering Committee,
- Demultiplying training of textbook management techniques suggested by the MoE, and
- Reporting to the IDEN about textbook distribution and management.

Its members are:
- President: Headteacher
- One representative of local authorities
- One PTA representative
- One representative of the Cellule Ecole Milieu (?, literally: “School/Environment Cell”)
- One students’ representative.

It sits thrice a year (extraordinary sessions are possible)

5) Board of Local Management Committees
Its members are:
- President: Headteacher, who is officially in charge of the overall textbook management
- Treasurer: chosen among teachers
- Secretary General: chosen by the Board.

The President summons and chairs meetings. He is responsible for textbook use and maintenance. He orders spendings and reports to the Local Committee.

The Treasurer is in charge of the daily management of textbooks and resources. He keeps the books. The resources generated by textbook lending fees and donor/NGO/government support are remitted to a post office or savings account.
Bibliography


Centre for International Development and Training. 2005. *Zambia High Schools: Sub-Sector Review.* University of Wolverhampton for GRZ.


Eco-Audit

Environmental Benefits Statement

The World Bank is committed to preserving Endangered Forests and natural resources. We print World Bank Working Papers and Country Studies on 100 percent postconsumer recycled paper, processed chlorine free. The World Bank has formally agreed to follow the recommended standards for paper usage set by Green Press Initiative—a nonprofit program supporting publishers in using fiber that is not sourced from Endangered Forests. For more information, visit www.greenpressinitiative.org.

In 2007, the printing of these books on recycled paper saved the following:

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<th>Trees*</th>
<th>Solid Waste</th>
<th>Water</th>
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*40" in height and 6-8" in diameter

Pounds                    Gallons                  Pounds CO₂ Equivalent    BTUs
**Textbooks and School Library Provision in Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa** is part of the World Bank Working Paper series. These papers are published to communicate the results of the Bank’s ongoing research and to stimulate public discussion.

This study is based on research on secondary textbook and school library provision in Botswana, Cameroon, Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Togo, as well as existing recent country reports on textbook provision and an extensive desk research. Considerable variations exist in Sub-Saharan African textbook requirements needed to meet secondary curriculum specifications just as significant differences exist between and within countries in regard to the average price of recommended textbooks. Some countries have no approved textbooks list. This study aims to discuss the textbook situation in Sub-Saharan Africa with a special focus on secondary textbook availability, cost and financing, distribution and publishing, as well as, the status of school libraries. Its objective is to analyze the issues in secondary textbook and school library provision and to provide some options and strategies for improvement.

This study was prepared as part of the Secondary Education and Training in Africa (SEIA) initiative which aims to assist countries to develop sustainable strategies for expansion and quality improvements in secondary education and training. All SEIA products are available on its website: www.worldbank.org/afr/seia.

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