THE IMPACT OF GLOBALISATION ON EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

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Abstract

Die Arbeit „The Impact of Globalisation on Education in Sub-Saharan Africa“ wurde um die Frage „Welchen Einfluss hat die Globalisierung auf die Bildung in Sub-Sahara Afrika?“ aufgebaut.

Um zu einer Antwort zu gelangen, wird im ersten Kapitel der Einfluss der Globalisierung in Sub-Sahara Afrika besprochen, damit LeserInnen ein Verständnis für die wirtschaftlichen, politischen, kulturellen und sozialen Veränderungen bekommen. Hierbei behandelt diese Arbeit die Geschichte und Anfänge von der Kolonialzeit bis hin zu den heutigen Chancen, wie zum Beispiel die digitale Revolution, die den Entwicklungsländern die Möglichkeit gibt, dass sie von entwickelten Ländern lernen können. Des Weiteren auch die Bedrohungen, die unter anderem durch die schwach ausgeprägte Infrastruktur sowie durch den Eingriff internationaler Organisationen in den Ländern entstehen.


Abschließend werden im dritten Kapitel die Auswirkungen der Globalisierung auf die Bildung besprochen. Hier zeigt sich deutlich, dass der vorherrschend negative Einfluss in Sub-Sahara Afrika durch das Zusammenspiel von Regierungen, internationalen Organisationen und Bildungsreformen hervorgerufen wird.
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1 Introduction

“Africa needs to learn to respect the dissenting voice of its own people. And at the same time, the North needs to take heed to the saying of the African people Shonyala okhumanya inzu yowasio tawe.” (Muyale-Manenji, 1998) This saying literally means that you cannot know what your neighbour is doing or what his affairs are. This also includes international powers which try to impose strategies and policies onto a region which is often associated with a low standard of living, poverty, wars, diseases, hunger, an urgent need for unlimited access to potable water and a lack in health care and education. These strategies are destined to help Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) to improve its participation in the growing global economy and interconnectedness. However, this is not always the case as many examples prove it.

“An estimated 40 million more youth are projected to drop out of school in the next decade. Lacking adequate work and life skills, many will face an uncertain future.” (The Africa-America Institute, 2015, p. 9) How should SSA improve its economic competitiveness if the people are not provided with basic knowledge and skills? The various education systems of the 49 member states do not even achieve the basic goals which were set by the “Education For All” initiative. The drop-out rates are certainly just one of many problems which the nations have to face.

One should think that since there are different international organisations working “hand in hand” with the governments of the SSA nations educational and economic development should be achieved easily. The expectations are that there should not be any major problems with dealing with the pressure that is put on the states. Examples show that this assumed notion does not square with reality.

Figure 1: Areas influenced by globalisation
2 Globalisation

2.1 Definition

The term “Globalisation” defines a system with a global construction of economic, financial, trade and communications cooperation. Within this system cultures, industries, markets, economies and policy-making should be integrated to create a world where it is possible to allow free transfer of capital, goods and services across national borders. This integration is to be reached through an ongoing process of a global network of trade, communication, immigration and transportation. “In other words, as Ohuabunwa, (1999:20) once opined: Globalization can be seen as an evolution which is systematically restructuring interactive phases among nations by breaking down barriers in the areas of culture, commerce, communication and several other fields of endeavor.“ (Ibrahim, 2013, p. 85) This has been massively noticed since the late 1980s when international trade flows and investments began to increase.

To make this system work, specific standards have to be met by individual countries. However, the whole idea of a globally connected world is heavily criticised: “Some writers are of the opinion that globalisation is not as global as the developed countries make the rest of the world to believe. It has rather divided the world into the superrich and the
absolutely poor, ‘they haves’ and ‘they have nots’.“ (Okoli, 2012, p. 657) and “[...] the rules governing global trade are geared towards the corporate and political interests of the North, resulting in a high unequal distribution in the benefits of world trade.“ (Ntuli, 2014, p. 6) As Dr. Nkechi J. Okoli and Anthony Njau Ntuli suggest that the system of a global network with specific standards is not to be achieved by every country the same way. Having these standards implies that some countries, especially the developed ones, have to work less hard to meet certain goals while on the other hand countries or regions such as Sub-Saharan Africa which are mostly dominated by less or least developed countries have to make a bigger effort. Looking at the aspects of outcomes and benefits of globalisation for individual countries it is clearly noticeable that this is also creating inequalities.

“The Human Development Report (1996) showed that over the past three decades, only 15 countries have enjoyed high growth while 89 countries were worse off economically than they were 10 or more years earlier. Economic gains have greatly benefited a few countries at the expense of many, according to the report.” (Okoli, 2012, p. 657) Therefore, globalisation has not been economically profitable for every country as suggested by its definition. Furthermore, the globalisation process is pulling countries away from their abilities to improve thus creating new pressures.

2.2 Globalisation in Sub-Saharan Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa is one of the poorest regions in the world with 33 of the least developed countries. Until now SSA has never fully managed to escape the sufferings from its former historical background.

The most important factor for SSA’s poor development is its history, specifically Africa’s colonial time and the following post-colonial time. The colonialization of Africa began when European traders established the “Triangular Trade” in the Early Modern age. The Triangular Trade included three regions involved in the trading route: Europe, Africa and America. The Europeans established a great slavery network in Africa from which slaves were then traded to America. This exploitation was taken on by the pre-modern civilisations, but the
Europeans extended it to a shocking number. This eventually led to wars and conflicts in Africa.

Africa continued to be closely linked to Europe up to the period between World War II and 1980. In this so called “age of decolonization” European colonies managed to slowly become independent. Unfortunately, problems came about which were implemented by the Europeans. During the colonialization, many modern SSA borders were defined without any heedfulness for indigenous cultures which created civil conflicts between the various groups. The Europeans deliberately did this to minimize the chance of resistance of the indigenous people.

After European colonies in Africa became independent they were left with many challenges facing economic development. Africa was and still is known for its richness of raw materials and Europe took advantage of it because these materials were designated as low-priced exports for the European market. Every step in the direction of industrialisation was neglected and in that way Africa had no chance to develop itself. After the decolonisation, many African countries’ governments became dictatorships which also worked against the development. This did not change until the end of the Cold War. Only then a few African nations, such as Botswana, Gambia and Mauritius, were able to establish a democratic ruling system. However, most African nations are still struggling to enjoy the same freedom and welfare as Western countries do. (Essential Humanities, 2013)

“In Africa, its position in the international system has been considerably weakened by the fact that it has been losing the race for economic development in general, and human development in particular, to other regions, these poor performances by African countries accounts in part for the political and social instability and rise of authoritarian regimes that have characterized much of postcolonial Africa, further weakening the ability of African countries to deal effectively with globalization.“ (Ibrahim, 2013, p. 87)

To measure and compare the wealth of a country to another experts use the “Gross Domestic Product” (GDP). The GDP is defined as “the monetary value of all goods and services produced within a nation's geographic borders over a specified period of time.” (InvestingAnswers , 2017)

Figure 2 shows the GDP Growth Forecasts for 6 countries in SSA for 2016 and 2017. These predicted values continue to decline due to low prices for raw materials and various domestic challenges that have been affecting the economies of the region. (Focus Economics, 2016)
The oil-shocks at the end of 1970 and early beginning of 1980 have had a severe impact on SSA economies. “SSA’s manufacturing industry, which is mainly dominated by production for domestic demand and the processing of raw material for export, continues to suffer backlashes in terms of global trade.“ (Ntuli, 2014, p. 6) The economies declined throughout the whole continent. Additionally, the prices for raw materials crashed because of the change of the world’s demand for such products. This has affected all raw material producers around the world, but especially SSA since it is highly dependent on the production of raw materials.

Anthony Njau Ntuli’s writes in his paper “Is Globalisation Good for Sub-Saharan Africa? Threats and Opportunities” about a study that was implemented by Easterly and Levine for the World Bank Research Paper No 1503. After the oil-shock crisis, there was no significant improvement in the SSA economies until 1995. In that year SSA’s economies
began to grow and improve again. However, Table 1 indicates that SSA is the developing region with the least growth in regional GDP and real export in the timespan 1991-1997 compared to the other regions listed in the table. The question is now: Why was SSA unable to improve the growth in both sectors compared to the other developing regions listed in Table 1?

Ntuli suggests that because of a poor and underdeveloped infrastructure SSA is not seen as a favourable business partner and therefore its exports and manufacturing activities are suffering enormously. East Asia and South Asia are two regions which are preferred targets for investors. Both of them are seen as the best developing regions with the highest economic growth. In contrast to SSA East Asia and South Asia were able to increase their exports comparatively quickly. Therefore, it can be concluded that the regions which direct their attention towards the improvement and expansion of their export means also have higher economic growth rates because they attract investors more and are therefore able to actively participate in the global economy.

Table 1: Growth of GDP and Export

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>9,9 percent.  p.a.</td>
<td>15,2 percent.  P.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>5,7 percent.  p.a.</td>
<td>11,1 percent.  P.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>3,4 percent.  p.a.</td>
<td>9,7 percent.  P.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
<td>2,9 percent.  p.a.</td>
<td>4,2 percent.  P.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>2,2 percent.  p.a.</td>
<td>2,6 percent.  P.a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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“The third aspect of globalization relevant to Africa is global mobility. The revolution in mobility has enabled the rapid movement of goods around the world. But Africa’s ability to take advantage of this has been hampered by poor intra-African infrastructure and
industrial production. Road transportation accounts for the largest share of world freight. Africa’s poor road networks make it prohibitive for the continent to participate effectively in the global economy. Much of the discussion on industrial policy is futile without adequate transportation and energy infrastructure, as a recent study by the Brookings Institution notes.“ (Juma, 2016)

Figure 3: Sub-Saharan Africa’s Infrastructure

Figure 3 Sub-Saharan Africa’s Infrastructure - Source: Imigur; http://i.imgur.com/4hVBxEj.gif [07/02/2018; 09:42]
The poor and underdeveloped infrastructure is not the only drawback for SSA’s effective participation in the global economy according to many economists. “Specific impact of globalization on Africa were identified according to Oyejide (1998) in the political sphere, the most important consequence is the erosion of sovereignty, especially on economic and financial matters, as a result of the imposition of models, strategies and policies of development on African countries by the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and the World Trade Organization.” (Ibrahim, 2013, p. 87) With the introduction and later on intensification of globalisation international organisations have emerged. These organisations have been established to help developing regions like SSA to improve their economies and connect them with the global network. However, the theoretical approach and the practical implementation vary significantly. As noted in the quote above models, strategies and adjustment programs have been introduced, but instead of strengthening the political and social situation and establishing a well working program to achieve an economic growth, they “[…] are pushed by external donors, leading to greater poverty and inequality and undermining the ability of the people to participate effectively in the political and social processes in their countries.” (Ibrahim, 2013, p. 88)

Collected data described in Fridah Muyale-Manenji’s paper “The effects of globalization on culture in Africa in the eyes of an African woman” show that most women do not profit from globalisation. Globalisation has not been able to reduce wage differences between men and women. On the contrary they tend to increase. Neither men nor women seem to be affected by higher employment rates. The women’s advancement in education is gradual because girls often have to assist their mothers with housework and are therefore unable to go to school. Especially girls in rural areas are in most cases unable to visit schools. But because of the lack of education they are not getting a chance to participate effectively in the global economy and therefore cannot “escape” from the poverty trap. “Those who are slow are left behind […]. Women's economic activities have therefore been highly affected by globalization.” (Muyale-Manenji, 1998)

Figure 4: Gender Equality in Politics
Most equal dark green-light green-yellow-orange Least equal No data grey

Figure 4 Gender Equality in Politics - Source: BBC; http://www.bbc.com/news/world-24650912 [07/02/2018; 09:54]

On the other hand, as depicted in Figure 4, women in SSA are best off in politics because there are many countries such as South Africa, Angola and Mozambique where women and men are treated equally.

One aspect, which is related to the definition of globalisation, is the removal or minimization of cultural barriers. This also takes place in SSA where culture is a considerable part of its history. There is an ongoing trend in the mixing of African and “Western” cultures. Africanists (a person who is specialised on African languages and cultures (Merriam Webster Dictionary, 2017)) stay suspicious in this point because they are fearing that African countries might “lose” or “forget” their culture respectively are forced to “leave” their cultures behind to be able to actively operate in a globally connected world. However, Africa is characterized by a diversification of cultures and traditions known in the entire world for which only Africans have the expertise and knowledge. Forcing Africa to leave its cultures behind would lead in the wrong direction. This has to be realised by outside organisations, policies and strategies. Adjustment programs have to work in this direction to establish a well working economy with the typical charm of Africa.

Despite the criticism globalisation also has many positive effects on SSA especially with its focus on knowledge and information. Through the digital revolution global data flows...
have been growing exponentially and offer numerous possibilities for developing countries to innovate, thus intensifying the connectivity around the world. Cultures, ideas and values can be exchanged and this, even though it is highly criticised as noted earlier, opens people’s minds for changes. This makes it possible and easier for whole Africa to learn from experiences from other developed and developing countries specifically when it comes to the way a country is ruled or how life is like in other countries.

In the paper “The Impact of Globalization on Africa” Alhaji Ahmadu Ibrahim correctly states that: “Managing globalization effectively to benefit the African people, especially the poor, calls for new attitudes and leadership. It requires vision, appropriate knowledge, skills and wisdom from Africa’s leaders. But it also requires sensitivity, willingness, a change of attitude and the right technical assistance from global actors such as the United Nations, especially in supporting the strengthening of Africa’s public administration capacity to deal with issues of globalization.“ (Ibrahim, 2013, pp. 90, 91) Although the effects of globalisation in SSA have been comparatively negative there are still many opportunities which can help the region to set the right steps towards becoming developed countries and increasing their attraction for investors and potential new citizens. Only a cooperation and partnership of leaders, citizens and organisational help can change the current situation in Africa for the better.

3 Education

3.1 Definition

The English phrase “Education” is supposedly derived from two Latin words namely “educare”, meaning to train or to mold and “educere”, which means to lead out. Although both words are included in the term education the concepts that lie behind each of them are quite different. The concept of “educare” argues for “[…] the preservation and passing down of knowledge and the shaping of youths in the image of their parents.” This concept contains the theory of “[…] rote memorizing and becoming good workers.” On the other hand, “educere” refers to a process where the preparation of the following generation for changes in the future is most important, especially in the face of problem solving. Therefore, this meaning of education demands “[…] questioning, thinking and creating.” (Bass & Good, 2004, p. 162). Through the process of education, the scholar acquires
knowledge by either the particular subject which has been studied or by experiences that have been made.

3.2 Education For All

Education is officially seen as a human right since the acknowledgment of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. As of that adoption education has been an important part of many treaties discussing human rights which are particularly asking for the “[…] entitlement to free, compulsory primary education for all children; an obligation to develop secondary education, supported by measures to render it accessible to all children, as well as equitable access to higher education; and a responsibility to provide basic education for individuals who have not completed primary education.” UNESCO goes even further arguing that “[…] the aim of education is to promote personal development, strengthen respect for human rights and freedoms, enable individuals to participate effectively in a free society, and promote understanding, friendship and tolerance.” (UNESCO, 2007, p. 7)

One step in the direction of fulfilling these demands was the 1990 World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) which was first signed by 150 governments in Jomtien, Thailand. The goal of this declaration was and still is to improve the attempt of implementing the right to education. In 2000 the commitment was again confirmed at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal. In addition, six Education For All goals were added to the commitment which should have been achieved by 2015. These are:

- First Goal: Expansion and improvement of early childhood care and education, this should particularly apply to the most disadvantaged and vulnerable children.

- Second Goal: All children, especially girls, language minority speakers, children from difficult backgrounds and those who belong to ethnic minorities should have access to free, quality and compulsory primary education by 2015.

- Third Goal: Providing a system where the learning needs of children and adults are appropriately met through equitable access to learning and life skills programs.

- Fourth Goal: Improving adult literacy by 50% until 2015 and establishing an access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

- Fifth Goal: Getting rid of gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and following the achieving of gender equality in education by 2015. A prior target is the equal access of girls to basic quality education.
- Sixth Goal: Quality should be improved in every sector of education and measureable learning outcomes are supposed to be achieved particularly in the areas of literacy, numeracy and essential life skills. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)

Diagram 1: Achievements in EFA goals

![Diagram 1 Achievements in EFA goals – Source: Global Partnership for Education](https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/assessing-progress-towards-achieving-education-all-goals [09/12/2017; 15:45]

The EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR), as represented in Diagram 1, reveals that as of the deadline of 2015 only one third of the countries has achieved all of the six EFA goals. The performance and complications of SSA in regard to the EFA goals will be explained in the following chapter.

3.3 Education For All in Sub-Saharan Africa

Education is universally seen as an effective method to improve a country’s society with regard to establishing a well-trained workforce which is beneficial for the country’s economic output. Therefore, it is crucial that especially poorer and poorest regions improve their education until a consistent level of development and improvement is reached. This should be achieved by SSA with the help of various international organisations and policies such as the World Declaration on Education for All.
However, as the GMR of 2015 reveals, no country in SSA is included in the one third which has achieved the goals. This is also represented in Diagram 2 which shows that no country in SSA has reached an EFA Development Index (EDI) between 0.97 and 1.00. This indicator is used to measure the overall progress towards EFA by looking at four of the six goals: universal primary education, adult literacy, gender parity and equality and education quality. There is only one country, Mauritius, which is close to achieving EFA. The remaining countries of which data is sufficient and available are either in intermediate position or far from achieving EFA. Furthermore, 16 SSA countries are listed among the 20 countries which have had the least progress towards the goals. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 12,13)

Diagram 2: Mean distance to EFA overall achievement as measured by EDI, 2012

Economic growth is seen as an important influence in educational development. After the year 2000 SSA has witnessed an annual economic growth of circa 2.5%, nevertheless the share of people living in extreme poverty has only declined by 8% from 56% to 48% between 1990 and 2010. Therefore, poverty remains one of the toughest barriers to education. (UNESCO, 2015, p. 1) According to the World Bank Organisation poverty is...
defined as “[…] hunger. […] lack of shelter. […] being sick and not being able to see a doctor. […] not having access to school and not knowing how to read. […] not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time.” (Economic and Social Inclusion Corporation, n.d.) In addition, the total fertility rate in SSA is 4.9 babies per woman, as a consequence the population is growing and 27% of the people are children aged 5 to 14 which is globally compared the largest proportion of children in a region as stated in UNESCO’s GMR 2015. Thus, SSA’s education systems are confronted with the continuously growing number of children who are in need for education and are suffering because of poverty. This has been resulting in an uneven progress towards the EFA goals since 2000. (UNESCO, 2015, p. 1)

3.3.1 Goal 1: Early childhood care and education

Pre-primary enrolment has increased by nearly two and half times between 1999 and 2012. However, in 2012 the average gross enrolment ratio (GER is determined as the total enrolment in a specific level of education disregarding age (UNESCO, 2015, p. 12)) was still considered as very low with only 20%. Figure 5 demonstrates the clear differences between the ratios. The GER ranges from below 2% in Mali to approximately 100% in Ghana, Mauritius and Seychelles. The two remarkable examples are Ghana which already had a relatively high GER after the country had abolished school fees, but Figure 5 shows that Ghana has been able to increase its enrolment even more. The second example is South Africa which also had a strong growth in GER due to the introduction of one year pre-primary education at primary schools.

On the other hand, since 1999 the expansion of pre-primary enrolment has led to increased pupil/teacher ratios in more than half of the countries with data. Furthermore, the expansion of early childhood care and education is boosting the shortages of trained teachers because there are not enough skilled instructors that can cope with the number of children in need for education. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 1,2)

Figure 5: Changes in pre-primary education gross enrolment ratios, 1999 to 2012
3.3.2 Goal 2: Universal primary education

Despite the fact that the number of children enrolled in primary education has risen by 75% since 1999 and the number of children not enrolled has dropped by 30%, SSA continues to be the region that is home to more than half of the world’s out-of-school children. Furthermore, research indicates that this target remains to be out of reach also because of barriers such as poverty, children’s gender, disabilities, geographical location, livelihood and ethnic or linguistic background.

However, progress has been made which is certainly a step in the right direction. Figure 6 shows that some countries have achieved considerable improvement. Particularly Burundi is striking since it has made the most significant progress in the adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER is an indicator which measures the share of primary school aged children who are enrolled in primary or secondary schools (UNESCO, 2015, p. 12)) with an increase of more than 50%. Even countries such as Mozambique or Burkina Faso have increased their ANERs by more than 60% even though both countries have witnessed a growth in population. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 3,4)
3.3.3 Goal 3: Learning needs of youth and adults

Lower and upper secondary education are seen as necessary means for the development of foundational skills. This has been recognized by the governments and as a result the school attendance has increased since 1999.

In lower secondary education the GER has grown by 26% from 24% to 50% whereas in upper secondary education the GER has only increased by 10% from 22% to 32%.

Mozambique is again a preeminent example because its GER in lower secondary education has increased from 7% to 34%. The highest increase has been witnessed by Mali with 39%. In upper secondary education Guinea and Comoros have experienced significant development in participation. However, the challenges for access to secondary schools are remaining, especially for marginalized groups such as working children and migrants. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 4,5)
3.3.4 Goal 4: Improving adult literacy

Although the average literacy rate has increased from 53% to almost 59% in SSA between 1990 and 2012 the region remains to have the highest adult illiteracy rate with 41% and at the same time experiences the slowest improvement. The number of people lacking in basic literacy skills is projected to rise from 187 million adults to 197 million in 2015 because of the ongoing growth in population.
Despite the improvement only three countries namely Burundi, Equatorial Guinea and South Africa are supposed to reach the goal of halving adult illiteracy between 2000 and 2015. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 5,6)

3.3.5 Goal 5: Gender parity and equality

The gender parity index (GPI) is considered as “[…] the value of an indicator for girls divided by that for boys.” (AIMS & UNESCO, n.d.) Gender parity is given in a country when it has a GPI between 0.97 and 1.03. If the GPI is lower than 0.97 then disparities prevail in favour of males. On the other hand if the GPI is higher than 1.03 then the opposite is the case and girls are favoured when it comes to access to and achievement in schools. (UNESCO, 2015, p. 12) Looking at gender disparities in primary education in Figure 9 first shows that SSA´s GPI has increased from 0.85 to 0.92 between 1999 and 2012, so in primary education SSA is not that far away from achieving the goal anymore. However, compared to other regions, SSA is still the region that is furthest away from reaching the goal because 13 of in total 18 countries with less than 90 girls for every 100 boys enrolled are in SSA.

Figure 8: Gender Equality in Education in SSA

Most equal dark green-light green-yellow-orange Least equal No data grey

Figure 8 Gender Equality in Education in SSA - Source: BBC: http://www.bbc.com/news/world-24650912 (07/02/2018; 15:11)
Countries such as Chad and Niger had less than 80 girls enrolled for every 100 boys which indicates large disparities. The case of Lesotho is particularly interesting because in 1999 it started out with an GPI above 1.03, so girls were favoured, but by 2012 the ratio has declined and they have almost achieved the target of gender parity in primary school together with other countries such as Uganda, Burundi and Zambia. In Austria, for example, the average female to male ratio of primary school pupils has been 0.99 between 1971 and 2015 which means that Austria has almost achieved gender parity in primary education. (The Global Economy, n.d.)

However, poverty remains the biggest barrier for girls because the poorest girls are most likely to never attend school. Poverty is also increasing disparities in the completion of primary education. In Zimbabwe, the poorest boys are less likely to complete primary school than the poorest girls.

Achieving the goal of gender parity is different in secondary education than in primary education. The GPI has only increased from 0.82 to 0.84, therefore, progress has been a lot slower and gender disparities continue to be common. Only one country, namely Swaziland, has achieved gender parity in secondary education. Lesotho again proves to be a striking example in favouring girls over boys because only 71 boys were enrolled for every 100 girls in 2012 which has not changed since 1999. A reason for this is that boys are taken out of school to tend cattle.

Globally compared 15 countries are considered as being far away from the target with GPIs lower than 0.80; of these 15 countries 11 are in SSA, for example Chad, Benin, Mali and Niger. (UNESCO, 2015, p. 6)

Figure 9: Changes in gender disparities in primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios, 1999 to 2012
has increased by 20% and has reached 62% in 2007 and the learning outcomes of rich and

several years without learning how to read properly. In Malawi children were asked a
cover
countries in SSA have carried out at least one assessment between 2000 and 2013 in
The number of count

(UNESCO, 2015, p. 7)

who commit these crimes, male teachers also do so in return for money, goods or grades.

students

female students. For example, in Cameroon 30% of sexual violence against female

gender

problematic because there are not enough female teachers that could positively add to the

Part of this goal is also gender equality in schools. This, however, remains to be
problematic because there are not enough female teachers that could positively add to the
gender-sensitive learning environment as well as textbooks which are not gender biased.
The biggest issue is gender-based violence in schools, especially older boys sexually abuse
female students. For example, in Cameroon 30% of sexual violence against female
students was committed by older male students. However, it is not only the male students
who commit these crimes, male teachers also do so in return for money, goods or grades.
(UNESCO, 2015, p. 7)

3.3.6 Goal 6: Improving quality of education and measurable learning outcomes

The number of countries implementing national learning assessments increases. 61% of the
countries in SSA have carried out at least one assessment between 2000 and 2013 in
comparison to the 35% of countries between 1990 and 1999. These assessments primarily
cover curricula and subjects. Despite this improvement many children go to school for
several years without learning how to read properly. In Malawi children were asked a
number of question after they had read a story and 94% of the children were not able to
answer them. In Kenya, on the contrary, the number of children completing primary school
has increased by 20% and has reached 62% in 2007 and the learning outcomes of rich and
poor children have been similarly revised because countries in Southern and Eastern Africa have expanded their education systems and have improved the learning outcomes. Nevertheless, one obstacle to ensure quality education remains the teacher shortage. As of 2012 SSA had 3.4 million primary teachers but an additional 1.4 million would have been needed to achieve the goal of universal primary education in 2015. One explanation could be the disrepute of teachers in SSA which is also linked to the salaries. The teachers’ salaries were already low but they have declined even further over the past three decades across whole SSA. (UNESCO, 2015, pp. 7,8)

Although progress in the direction of achieving the EFA goals has been made, nevertheless the GMR Report of 2015 reveals that there is still a lot to improve on in SSA which has to be considered in the post-2015 education agenda.

4 Impact

“Globalisation as a phenomenon promotes education and economic growth but its pulls and pressures have created injustice, inequality and inequities that reduce human dignity to the barest minimum.“ (Okoli, 2012, p. 662)

Diagram 3: Rising poverty in SSA
Over the past two decades countries, especially China, were able to lower the total number of people living in absolute poverty. However, in many least developed countries, notably SSA as shown in Diagram 3, the number of people that live under extremely poor conditions has increased respectively almost doubled which brings Jean-Claude Berthélemy (2006) to the conclusion that disadvantaged people in SSA do not benefit from globalisation. Berthélemy therefore argues that “[…] sub-Saharan Africa, […] is certainly the region of the world that has suffered the most from globalization, and presents nowadays the most pressing challenges for the development community.“ (Berthélemy, 2006, p. 166)

Dr. Nkechi J. Okoli (2002) states that through the implementation of globalisation, liberalisation, as part of globalisation, has caused financial crises in many nations and has generated social, educational and economic inequality in Africa.

During the 1980s the so called “Structural Adjustment Programmes” (SAPs) were carried out which were the focus of globalisation in Africa. SAPs were initiated for countries which needed financial aid in the form of loans from international organisations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and the
World Bank (WB). However, SAPs are partly responsible for Africa’s impoverishment and indebtedness because with the receiving of these loans governments were forced to respond in a drastic way to the conditions such as policy reforms, budget cutbacks and to the debt repayment. For instance, the budget cutbacks have affected spheres of life such as education, agriculture and health because these sectors have been considered as less important by the organisations. This continues even further as the African continent witnesses a cleavage into two “nations”. One of globalisation’s adverse attributes is that it is responsible for the emergence of so called “[…] globalised and globalising elites [the influential politicians of African cities] and those who have been adversely affected by globalization [people living in the countryside of African nations] through unemployment, job insecurity and growing inequality’. (Henry et al., 2008, p. 23)” Through this process, the community of a nation is experiencing “[…] fragmentation and differences, with serious [socioeconomic] and educational inequalities and inequities.” (Okoli, 2012, p. 659)

This results in the promotion of the gap between the rich and the poor of a country which also means that children from wealthy families will become educated and the poor stay uneducated. In his article “Editor’s Review of Education and Globalization: Critical Perspectives” (2006) Benjamin Piper reviews the statements of Ali A. Abdi, Korbla P. Puplampu and George J. Sefa Dei. “Abdi argues that while the colonial powers have left Africa’s shores, they have been replaced by the international system of globalization which represents a “current imperialism; some might call this benign colonialism that is still underdeveloping Africa and its people”[…]”. (Piper, 2007)

Figure 10: Maximising Opportunities in SSA
In the new global economy education, especially higher education, is observed as the fundamental approach to the affluence of a state. However, this affluence is not believed to
be reached through simple knowledge which is provided through education because education has lost this purpose. Instead “the neoliberal economic rationality of globalisation [...]” is responsible for “[...] the restructuring of education in such a manner that its function has changed [...] to [the] production of management of wealth (economic management).” meaning that goals such as “outputs”, “efficiency” and “managers” are now more important and are therefore the guidelines for present and future developments of education. (Dzvimbo & Moloi, 2013, p. 6) Figure 10 also shows the possible effects for health care and life expectancy provided that an increased access to education is granted. Thus, Figure 10 demonstrates that education can have a positive impact on more areas than just the affluence of a state. Therefore, promoting education is vital for a country as well as for a person’s life.

Through globalisation the “western” way of knowledge transmission is adopted by developing regions allegedly resulting in the shaping of behaviour, values and attitudes of the adopting society. Nowadays students are shaped into citizens of the global network system. Furthermore, globalisation affects culture (“cultural imperialism”) and is therefore an endangerment for traditional cultures, but especially for traditional forms of education. Traditional African education develops within the communities to teach its members a variety of skills. Part of this is also the system in which people of the same age are brought together to “[...] share responsibilities, work together and to be introduced to activities that will not be burdensome for their grade.” This education system is a lifelong process as it includes observation, self-improvement and search for wisdom. (Omolewa, 2007) “[The] European conquest of Africa was the destruction of the indigenous education systems, and their replacement with [an] irrelevant, limited and purposefully imposed program of European languages and related structures of learning.” The destruction extended beyond the damage to the traditional system, since the colonial system was set up “for using education, not as an instrument of human progress, but as a tool that establishes and sustains the project of colonialism” (p. 15).” (Piper, 2007) The loss of cultural identity as a product of education’s modernisation in SSA is to be expected according to various researchers.

For the future development of SSA’s economies and educational systems it is crucial to understand the complex interaction between education and economic growth as depicted in
The idea is that only providing education will not improve a country’s economy. For this to occur the knowledge of the economic possibilities of a nation and its abilities to specialise in a specific area are essential. Therefore, “[…] it’s not just thinking about supplying the education, it’s saying that knowing where the possibilities for an economy to specialize and develop are going to be important in thinking about how economic development takes place.” (Hilten, 2015) The important aspect Hilten tries to point out is what the states of the SSA region have to look out for when discussing the future goals of education with regard to economy. The interconnectedness of education and economy has a gaining relevance because of the advancing global economy. Therefore, the capability of educational investments to boost economic outputs has to be acknowledged in terms of developing policies and strategies. Hilten demands that every country should have a look at their own human and material resources so that it can evaluate their proficiency. With
this knowledge countries can work on qualitative products or services which can be sold on the market. This in return will be essential for economic growth because outstanding outputs automatically increase a country’s participation and competitiveness in the global market.

4.1 International Organisations

Globalisation has brought about a new human capital theory within the global knowledge economy. This theory focuses on micro-economics which particularly asks for a highly skilled and additionally flexible work force for national prosperity. Education is therefore seen as valuable means which is eligible for augmented funds by various international organisations. The three dominant institutions are the World Bank (WB), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO). These institutions act as global agents in the globalisation process and are mainly responsible for the monitoring of international flows of finance capital. However, they promote macro-economic policies which encourage international finance capital, barrier-free international trade and as a result intensify the gap between rich and poor people.

At first sight increased funding by international organisations sounds promising for students of SSA’s schools. Unfortunately, scholars are now asked to pay for a substantial number of fees which the majority is not able to pay. “Economic underdevelopment of government as a result of IMF causes more youths to remain uneducated.” (Okoli, 2012, p. 661) Governments do not have the resources to fund education, so that educational institutions are limited in their doings resulting in a loss of quality, quantity and performance of education.

Kenya proves to be a good example for the abolition of school fees for primary education. After the abolition of fees in 2003, Kenya’s number of primary students increased by approximately two million students from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.2 million in 2003. (Kenya Yearbook, 2015) Likewise, the number of students completing primary school has increased from 62,8% in 2002 to 76,2% in 2004. “These impressive numbers have led most Kenyan educators and their international partners to conclude that the abolition of school fees and the policy reforms that accompanied it have been a success, despite continuing worries about financing, class sizes and teacher quality.” (Fleshman, 2010)
Dzvimbo and Moloi expand on Mills statement that SSA’s capabilities lie in the international markets which generate more competitiveness than local ones. “We are now witnessing a “restructuring” (Steans, 2000:455) and a re-ordering of the relationships between nations and “the increasing influence of transnational corporations, the complex global division of labour, and the intimate relationship between debt, development and environmental degradation, which are integral parts of the ongoing interconnectedness characteristic of globalisation” (Steans, 2000:455).” (Dzvimbo & Moloi, 2013, p. 10) Therefore, governments progressively pressure higher education institutions to meet fixed international market standards such as standards for global industry which ensure that it does not have to meet each country’s standards. “The result is an efficient global standards environment that is straightforward for industry to navigate and that more quickly and cost-effectively avails consumers to innovations.” (Mills, n.d.) These standards are specified by international, bilateral or multi-lateral organisations such as the UNESCO. The detrimental effect for higher education is that a university’s range for action is therefore limited. Because of the government’s high pressure, universities were forced to double or even triple their enrolments. As shown in Diagram 5 the consequence of this is that universities are overcrowded and there are too many students per teacher.

Diagram 5: Student Enrolment in Universities

According to various statistics there are 50% more students per professor in comparison to the global average. (The Africa-America Institute, 2015, p. 10) In my example I compared the University of Nairobi to two universities in Europe, namely the University of Oxford and the Vienna University of Economics and Business. It is clearly noticeable that the number of students enrolled in the University of Nairobi is more than twice as high as the numbers in these two European universities. Therefore, my research confirms the collected data represented by the statistics.

Around 1980 the WB helped Zimbabwe to establish policies based on the “Economic and Structural Adjustment Programs” (ESAP). “The ESAP sought to transform Zimbabwe's tightly controlled economic system to a more open, market-driven economy. The restructuring sought to promote higher growth and to reduce poverty and unemployment […]” (The World Bank Group, 2012) According to the authors of the book “Editor’s Review of African Education and Globalization: Critical Perspectives” and Benjamin Piper’s review this case demonstrates the detrimental effect of imposed policies by international organisations. The country experiences benefits in various educational sectors because of the globalisation process. However, through ESAPs the progress in education has been stopped or even reversed. Access, equity and quality suffer because of unsuitable educational interference in Zimbabwe. The extent of the interference will be discussed in the chapter “Education Policy”.

### 4.2 Education Policy

Governmental policies and fundamentals which are destined to operate in educational systems are generally called “education policies”. These kinds of policies also include every regulation for the scope of education in every age group. Issues of education policies may be teaching methods, curricula content, class size or school infrastructure investment.

“[From] an economic perspective, the most direct [impact] of education policies is to improve the capacity of individuals to participate effectively and efficiently in the process of production of goods and services.” (Berthélemy, 2006, p. 185) Education policies were increasingly introduced as a result of globalisation’s demands. As stated earlier in this chapter globalisation and the new knowledge economy pressure for the intensification of
education and pay no attention to the quality. The initial aim of education was to provide SSA with a strong and skilled workforce to meet and compete with the international market forces.

Driven by international pressures SSA’s governments had to implement policies which were developed by foreign experts and international institutions. One of the main aims of these policies was to enlarge educational systems in SSA. This in return should provide children with increased possibilities to education. The consequences were fatal. The people were confronted with high unemployment rates as I shall explain in the chapter “Brain Drain” and as a result of the increased number of students in schools drop-out rates as well as gender disparities went up.

Crucial for the execution of education policies is not only the government of the state concerned, but also the various international organisations which follow the interests of the market. International organisations are responsible for the execution of policies because in order to receive help from the organisations countries are bound to conditions such as policy reforms. Therefore, many researchers criticise, for example Dr. Arshad-Ayaz who is a post-colonial critical theorist (Concordia University - Faculty of Arts and Science, n.d.), that the implemented policies focus rather on the interests of the agents instead of the actual needs of the states. Dr. Arshad-Ayaz states that education and especially the policies had to suffer because of the macro-economic promotion which includes the regulation of finance capital flow and promotes economic growth and looking at the whole economy instead of focussing on individual labour markets and particular segments of the economy. (Pettinger, 2017)

Instead of working on models which have been developed in SSA and are fitted to the region, the governments implement policies which are supposed to reinforce the education of the future workers to maximise the economic output. Therefore, governments develop policies based on SAP’s of the WB and the IMF which promote greater participation in globalisation based on increasing the economic productivity. This in return would also benefit the global players and the organisations.

In 1991 Zimbabwe put into practise the “Economic and Structural Adjustment Program” (ESAP) with the support of the WB. Before the implementation, Zimbabwe’s government invested in health, education, rural development and the productive sectors. This led to increased public expenditures, nevertheless it resulted in the improvement of social
indicators, especially in health and education, per capita. On the other hand, government spending excluded private investment and enhanced inflation, whilst shortages of imported goods restricted investment and growth. In addition, the population grew, but job creation could not keep up with the number of people asking for employment. Therefore, the government decided to implement policies based on the ESAP. As already mentioned thereafter Zimbabwe’s education system suffered enormously because of the program’s “Social Dimensions of Adjustment” (SDA). Instead of improving the system, the introduction of the new policies caused Zimbabwe to reintroduce user fees and to limit their budget for education. Soon only those students who could pay for school were entitled to become educated and the ones from impoverished households were simply “left in the dark”. Especially girls, minority-language speakers and people from rural areas suffered because of these policies because they were not able to receive help. The problem with SDA was that it “[…] was underfunded, overly centralized, and relied on overworked staff already fully committed to the drought relief effort. It suffered from serious design flaws. It relied on beneficiaries to apply for benefits, and the complicated and costly application process effectively excluded many of the poorest people, who had little access to government information. The program's fee support system was complex, involving different eligibility criteria and arbitrary income thresholds. Finally, its training component for retrenched workers was too short and not always relevant to needs.” (The World Bank Group, 2012)

In addition, Zimbabwe’s economic growth rate radically downturned which made the situation even worse.

On the other hand, as noted in Jean-Claude Berthélemy’s paper, various states have achieved progress since 1995. This progress is associated with the efficient implementation of education policies, especially in providing universal primary education. The outstanding example in this area is Uganda. Uganda focused a high percentage of resources from donors, mainly debt relief and new aid inflows, on providing children with a universal primary education which is free from any tuition fees. In 1996 the President of Uganda announced that four children from every family should get the honour of a free primary education. However, soon after the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) the government noticed that the limitation was a problem for many families and therefore the rule was abolished. The objectives of the program included the establishment, the provision and the maintenance of quality education for the sake of human resource development and making education equally accessible for ever pupil so that disparities and
inequalities can be eliminated. Additional objectives were the reduction of poverty in Uganda and giving their students basic skills and knowledge. This should be achieved through guidelines such as the construction of basic school facilities, training and retraining of teachers and the monitoring and supervising of the implementation of UPE. (Overseas Development Institute, 2006, p. 2) As of 1997 Uganda has almost reached the EFA goal in establishing a free and universal primary education system.

The example of Uganda demonstrates that the effects of education policies are not only harmful for a country. Countries such as Zimbabwe, where policies have not yet had the effect that they are supposed to have, have to take a look at the remarkable example of Uganda. “The ability of governments to develop effective policies will depend on their capacity to interpret information relevant to the economic, social, cultural, and political environment.“ (Ntuli, 2014, p. 19) It is crucial for SSA’s countries that policies are not only reformed in the sense of quantity, but also in the face of quality because this is what the countries are still lacking at. Berthélemy also calls for the restructuring especially in terms of the EFA goals which seem to be forgotten by policy makers. Policy makers in SSA orientate themselves towards the suggestions of the international organisations which design their policies to improve the economy in a country such as the case in Zimbabwe proves. This is leading to the transformation of education policies to ones based on the economy. Goals such as the EFA goals do not play a role in the process of designing a policy because policies of international organisations often demand cuts in the budget of education and other social sectors so that there is not enough money left to effectively work on the practical realisation of these goals.

4.3 Brain Drain

The term “brain drain” refers to a process in which educated or highly skilled people leave their residence, economic sector or field for another, where they expect a better pay or a better quality of life. (Kissick, p. 1)

Strongly connected with the term brain drain are so called “push-pull factors”. Generally speaking, push-pull factors play an influential role in the migration of people and normally occur in a combination. Push factors, as the name indicates, are negative factors which push people out of a country. Such factors may be threats to a person’s life, poor quality of life, bad employment prospects or natural disasters. At the same time pull factors have a
positive effect on people because these conditions encourage citizens to immigrate into another country. Examples for pull factors are the wealth of the immigration country, good employment prospects, the safety of a country and fewer possibilities of natural disasters. Studies show that migration in SSA is predominantly caused by geographic proximity (distances and adjacencies), income differences, wars in the home country, network effects (the value of a good or service increases as more people use it (Pettinger, 2013)) and environmental factors. Additional factors may be: demographic booms in the sending country, decline in rainfall and temperature and rainfall anomalies. (Gonzalez-Garcia, et al., 2016, p. 3)

Diagram 6: The Evolution of SSA Migrants in percent and millions from 1960 to 2013
Comparing the number of emigrants to the total population shows that SSA has a lower percentage than other developing regions. In practice this means that 2% of SSA’s total number of migrants live outside of SSA whereas on average 3% of migrants from other developing regions live abroad. However, to truly understand the development of migration in SSA one has to look at the recent demographic changes. Population in SSA has nearly doubled over the last 25 years and so, in absolute terms, has the stock of migrants. The latest data available from 2013 shows that about 20 million people lived outside of SSA.
outside of their home country. Diagram 6.1 and 6.2 also illustrate the fact that migration within SSA is more common than migration to other countries. Of the 20 million people approximately 13 million migrated within SSA and “only” about 7 million migrated to other regions. However, both diagrams also show that the share of migration to the rest of the world has increased from 1960 to 2013. Diagram 6.3 depicts the evolution of refugees and migration for economic reasons within and outside of SSA. Whilst the number of people emigrating as refugees decreased until 2013, the share of economic migrants has increased steadily from about 5 million in 1990 to 17 million in 2013. (Gonzalez-Garcia, et al., 2016, p. 2)

The region is especially affected by the emigration of their educated citizens. Young graduates of tertiary education are pushed out of SSA because many of them stay unemployed in their home country or the ones who are able to find a job are often confronted with low salaries. The poor employment opportunities are created through the expansion of education. In recent years, the importance of tertiary education for economic development has been acknowledged and now the plan is to introduce a concept similar to free primary education. However, with the introduction of free primary education African countries have been confronted with infrastructural problems and a loss in quality. Experts fear that this may also apply to tertiary education. As stated earlier in this chapter the population of SSA increases and so is the number of students at universities. Therefore, the question where the new teachers will come from is still unanswered. The factor which contributes most to the employment situation is the acquiring of skills. The reason for the high number of unemployed graduates is explained through the lack of basic, technical and transferable skills (knowledge gained from personal experience (Business Dictionary, n.d.)) of graduates. According to the future development plan of higher education and the currently pressing employment challenges the difficulty of the transition between graduates and the labour market will increase. (British Council, 2014, pp. 2,3,4)

Diagram 7: Emigration of Migrants with Tertiary Education – Comparison between SSA and Others
Because of this factor SSA loses many of its talented brains to developed countries which are more attractive in their employment prospects. Developed countries have the characteristic of being appealing to young and talented graduates with promising possibilities for their future. “[…] African talented brains [migrate] to other places where brains are attracted to education, research and development, information communication technology and new technologies and innovations for their global market and workforce (Glanz in World Bank, 2002).“ (Okoli, 2012, p. 661) Diagram 7 illustrates that migrants from SSA are younger and often more educated than the native population which is a clear proof for brain drain. Especially medical brain drain (the migration of health personnel
from developing countries to developed countries (Kissick, p. 1) has been exceptionally high in SSA. (Gonzalez-Garcia, et al., 2016, p. 11)

Furthermore, as represented in Figure 11, Africa is not only unable to provide its talented brains with opportunities that would prevent them from leaving, the continent is also unable to attract professionals from other countries.

**Figure 11: Africa’s Brain Drain**


„Brain-drain took a toll on the talented experts who would have developed Africa.“ (Okoli, 2012, p. 661) With SSA´s loss of many educated people SSA also lost many ideas that could have helped the region or the whole continent to move away from the less and least developed countries to developing or developed countries.
5 Conclusion

The thesis “The Impact of Globalisation on Education in Sub-Saharan Africa” demonstrates that the ongoing globalisation process has had a variety of effects for the region itself as well as for the education systems in the different countries.

Globalisation is responsible for the intensification of economic, political, financial and communicative cooperation between countries. However, this leads to the loss of economic and political sovereignty in SSA due to the intervention of international organisations such as the IMF and WB. Furthermore, internationalisation causes the removal or minimization of cultural barriers which has a negative effect for SSA since culture plays a crucial role in the region’s identity.

On the other hand, globalisation also promotes the digital revolution which causes the maximization of global data flows. This in return gives developing regions the possibility to learn from developed countries. Furthermore, although this is highly criticised, through the loss of barriers people are confronted with different cultures, values and ideas which in turn lead to the openness of people towards the unknown.

Since education has been acknowledged as a human right by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 it has been the focus of many treaties, policies and initiatives. One of them is the “Education For All” Declaration which focuses on the implementation of the right to education for every person through six goals which the member countries have to accomplish.

The “Global Monitoring Report 2015” shows that the region has made visible progress towards achieving these objectives. However, there is no country in SSA that has fulfilled these targets. Most of the countries from which data is available are still far away from reaching them. Therefore, SSA still has a lot to improve on which has to be considered in the post-2015 education agenda.

The globalisation process goes further beyond the intensification of the abovementioned areas as it also influences the education systems of SSA’s countries. As already indicated, the region is losing parts of its cultural identity in which the traditional African education is included because of the interconnectedness of the countries which is enhanced by the international organisations. These organisations are also responsible for the implementation of so called “Structural Adjustment Programs” which lead to drastic policy
reforms and budget cutbacks which in turn have resulted in the neglecting of education, agriculture and health. This again worsened the situation for impoverished people and increased the gap between the rich and poor because countries were forced to reintroduce school fees which the underprivileged could not afford to pay. Education policies as part of the SAP conditions have affected the aim of education because it is now seen as the producer of management of wealth. Reforms in this area have resulted in the enlargement of education systems and in the reduction of qualitative education.

One of the consequences is a phenomenon called “Brain Drain”. Brain Drain describes the act of educated people leaving their home country because they do not acquire the necessary skills which the employers request. With this SSA is losing many of its talented brains that could develop the region.

The lesson for Sub-Saharan Africa is clear: the region has to acknowledge that education is the groundwork for efficient economic participation in the global system. Not until then will the whole region be able to improve its current situation.

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