

TOOLKIT

Communication for Education and Development

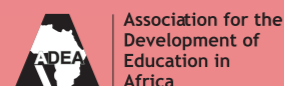


The ADEA Working Group on Communication for Education and Development (WG COMED) set out to do this task of preparing a Tool kit for journalists, communication officers in ministries of education in Africa and education campaign activists on the continent. There is a dire need for journalists and communication officers to be adequately trained to take on the tasks of promoting education in Africa and indeed the rest of the globe in order to contribute effectively in meeting the developmental needs of Africa.

It is useful to members of civil society organizations and Education for All campaigners who will be engaged in policy dialogue, debates, and other forum for discussions of educational issues at international, national, regional and sub-regional levels.

The raison d'être has been the need to improve communication at all levels to enhance education for development and especially to achieve the objectives of universal basic education for all.

The kit will be used by governmental institutions, universities, the African Union and all the nine regional economic groupings on the African continent. It will be COMED's responsibility as an ADEA Working Group to ensure that this tool kit is used most effectively in Africa.



Communication for Education and Development
TOOLKIT



TOOLKIT

Communication for Education and Development



Launch Edition July 2010



TOOLKIT

COMMUNICATION FOR EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT



Association for the
Development of
Education in
Africa

Launch Edition July 2010

A new partnership has developed between WG COMED and OSISA.
We cherish such a partnership.



Association for the
Development of
Education in
Africa



OSISA is the current Working Group Leader and Chair of WG COMED

ISBN: 978-92-9178-104-1

© **Working Group on Communication for Education and Development**
Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)
African Development Bank (AfDB) - ATR
e-mail: adea@afdb.org

WANAD Centre, 01 B.P. 378

Cotonou, BENIN

Tel: + 229 21 32 03 53

Fax: + 229 21 32 04 12

cell: +229 95 29 51 55

Website: <http://www.adea-comed.org> / <http://www.adeanet.org>

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Foreword	7
Preface	9
Acknowledgements	13
Introduction	17
Rationale for the Toolkit	17
Why Now?	18
Objectives of the Toolkit	19
Expected Outcomes	15
Methodology of the Toolkit	16
Structure of the Toolkit	16
How to use this Toolkit	17
Acronyms.....	19
Section I:	
Foundations and Theoretical Framework	22
Module 1 Foundations of Communication	23
Module 2 What is Education?.....	32
Module 3 The Role of Communication in Education & Development .	41
Section II:	
Contemporary Forms of Education	47
Module 4 Early Childhood Care and Development	48
Module 5 Primary Education	55
Module 6 Secondary Education	69
Module 7 Education of Adolescents.....	81
Module 8 Tertiary Education	89
Section III:	
Life-Long Learning	105
Module 9 Adult Education	106
Module 10 Principles of Adult Learning.....	117
Module 11 Parental Education	124



Module 12 Alternative Schooling.....	131
Module 13 Inclusive Education.....	149

Section IV:

Current Issues in Education.....	171
Module 14 Education and Gender.....	172
Module 15 HIV and AIDS Issues in Education.....	184
Module 16 Education and Human Rights.....	200
Module 17 Education in Conflict and Post Conflict Situations.....	209
Module 18 Special Needs in Education.....	218
Module 19 Quality in Education.....	224
Module 20 Health Education	244

Section V:

Emerging Issues in Education	254
Module 21 Popular Culture and Education.....	255
Module 22 Use of National Languages in Education	268

Section VI:

Reporting Educational Issues.....	286
Module 23 The Role, Strengths and Limitations of the Media	287
Module 24 Media and Education.....	299
Module 25 News in Education.....	305
Module 26 Using Reporting Genres Effectively.	313
Module 27 Ethics in Journalism.....	325
Module 28 Information and Documentation in Education	332
Module 29 Quality Assurance in Reporting Education	338
Module 30 Media Monitoring.....	344
Module 31 Training and Skills Development.....	352

Section VII:

Advocacy and Social Mobilization..... 360
Module 32 Advocacy for Education and Development 361
Module 33 Social Mobilization and Development.. 368
Module 34 The Role of the Media in Advocacy
and Social Mobilization..... 377

Section VIII:

Resources in Education 384
Module 35 Institutions of Education 385
Module 36 Human Resources Development in Education 391
Module 37 Resource Management in Education Systems..... 398

Section IX:

Resourcing for Education 414
Module 38 Financing Education 415
Module 39 Partnerships in Education..... 424
Module 40 Education and Research 432

Appendix A:

Glossary..... 436





Foreword

The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) is a forum for policy dialogue which aims at bringing African Ministers of Education and their development partners from cooperating agencies to acquire a shared understanding of the stakes and challenges of education in Africa, which would lead to a concerted vision on the policies and strategies to be implemented.

Based on analytical work and the capitalisation of experiences gained from Africa and elsewhere, policy dialogue is not limited only to policy decision-makers. It also involves other stakeholders in education, namely, parents of students, teachers, communities, civil society, etc... And hence the importance of communication on education and development, and its most important role which is that played by African journalists.

These latter, by the quality of information and knowledge which they diffuse and disseminate, contribute a great deal in formulating public opinion – both within Africa and beyond the continent - on the challenges and stakes, as well as on progress made on education in Africa. This crucial work of journalists cannot be improvised or played by the ear. It requires knowledge and specific competencies.

It is in order to help African journalists develop such competencies and to better play their role that ADEA, through its working group COMED, put in place during the last ten years a training programme for journalists and communication officers working in ministries of education.

The completion of this Tool kit is one more step that COMED has come through within the scope of this training programme. To this end, this Tool kit, written for the first time in Africa by experts, journalists and other actors in education will permit, without any doubt, a larger number of African journalists to have easier access to training on education and development, and to thus contribute in promoting quality education for all in Africa.

Ahlin Byll-Cataria,
Executive Secretary, ADEA





Preface

The ADEA Working Group on Communication for Education and Development (WG COMED) set out to do this task of preparing a Tool kit for journalists, communication officers in ministries of education in Africa and education campaign activists on the continent because it has been realized that there is a dire need for journalists and communication officers to be adequately trained to take on the tasks of promoting education in Africa and indeed the rest of the globe in order to contribute effectively in meeting the developmental needs of Africa.

WG COMED embarked on this project to develop this tool kit for journalists and communicators since April 2008, and held four production workshops on the kit. The first workshop was held in Cotonou, Benin from April 23 – 24, 2008, and brought together eight experts in the areas of communication and education. The Cotonou workshop touched on some key issues regarding the Who? the What? and the How? Through presentations, brainstorming and group work, the workshop participants exchanged ideas, debated on some issues and drew conclusions on others, leaving them with a reasonably well-balanced level of understanding of the issues. With the growing need for the training of journalists and educators throughout the continent, a core working group was constituted and its members began to review the nature of this assignment and concluded that the group clarify and define all the concepts and issues related to the development of the kit, including an innovative structure for the kit that would not reinvent the wheels. This workshop also enabled the working group members to exchange experiences so as to reach a consensus on how the tool kit should be produced; determine the persons/institutions that would carry out the tasks of producing the test kits, the training, and the production and completion of the final kit with the use of new technologies such as the internet; and allocate responsibilities to individuals/entities as per the terms of reference and work programme that was developed.

The second workshop was held in Windhoek, Namibia from March 9- 18, 2009. This 10 day workshop brought together 25 journalists, education specialists, communication officers in ministries of education, university professors and representatives of civil society organizations from 16 African countries to prepare the kit. This workshop enabled participants to discuss and exchange thoroughly on most of the issues related to communication for education and development in Africa and provided a high sense of ownership on the part of all the participants who felt that this is a tool kit prepared and developed by African experts, for African journalists, communication experts and members of African civil society organizations. The participants agreed that it will contribute significantly in the implementation of the African Unions' Communication Strategy for the Second Decade of Education in Africa, and in preparing journalists and communication experts on the African

continent for media coverage of major educational events on the continent. Other media practitioners including opinion leaders will also benefit from knowledge with the use of the tool kit for advocacy work.

A third workshop held in Grahamstown, South Africa in June 2009 produced a dummy tool kit. Through some trial testing of the dummy kit, this dummy version of the tool kit would result in the following: (a) provision of materials for national training programmes with aims and objectives, course contents, training strategies and standard procedures; (b) provision of basic tools for trainers to serve as the starting point for drawing up and organising training programmes for communication/public relations officers and journalists in the field of education based on national needs; (c) development and enhancement of the professional skills of communication/public relations officers and education journalists making them aware of how to complement one another in order to improve communication for education in Africa.

The fourth and final workshop held at Rhodes University in Grahamstown, South Africa from 9 – 16 September 2009 reviewed all the work that was done in the previous three workshops and considered all the amendments emanating from a pre-test that was carried out with journalists and communication experts who were attending the Highway Africa Conference, the largest annual gathering of African journalists on the continent.

Apart from journalists and communicators in Africa, this kit will also be useful to members of civil society organizations and Education for All campaigners who will be engaged in policy dialogue, debates, and other forum for discussions of educational issues at international, national, regional and sub-regional levels. The kit is also expected to serve all of COMED and the larger ADEA constituencies and partners working with the media on education, gender and other related issues. Last but not least, community and the various forms of traditional media are also expected to be served by this kit.

The *raison d'être* for this initiative has been the real need to improve communication at all levels to enhance education for development and especially to achieve the objectives of universal basic education for all. We hope that this exercise will lead us all to permanently break one of the major barriers, i.e. the low communication capacity among education stakeholders including ministries of education, education institutions, the media and civil society groups, to achieving these initiatives. This tool kit has been produced from the grassroots and is considered a major investment by WG COMED, and we have a responsibility to ensure that it is actually used at all times throughout the continent and not shelved as we have experienced in the past with other tool kits dealing with education. COMED will therefore partner with a number of universities and media institutions on the continent to ensure that for at least the next

five or six years to come, it is thoroughly used by all education stakeholders in Africa who want to communicate well for, and in the education sector. To this end, the kit will be distributed to all Ministries of Education and media houses and newsrooms around the continent. Schools of journalism, mass communication and media studies should also benefit from this production.

The kit will be used by governmental institutions, universities, the African Union and all the nine regional economic groupings on the African continent. It will be COMED's responsibility as an ADEA Working Group to ensure that this tool kit is used most effectively in Africa. Therefore one of our strategies to ensure that this happens will be to hold ad hoc Training of Trainers Sub-Regional Workshops, and have special training sessions also for trainers during ADEA and other related education conferences on and about African education. In addition, several modules in the kit will be eligible for use during TV and radio programmes on education, as well as for non-commercial advertisements such as on girls' education, or education for peace and so on. As the kit is used, it will continue to be revised on a regular basis to ensure that its contents have a truly African flavor that would represent all features of the African continent, with considerations for the cultural, political and psycho-social dimensions of the continent.

There are two versions of this kit; one is the print version which we have here and the other version carrying more or less the same content will be an electronic on-line version that will contain all the details necessary to have an effective training of journalists and communicators in education. This version will constitute a resource and information tool on education for all, and is being prepared specially for use by journalists and media practitioners. With these two versions, education may become a major issue in world and African affairs, as it will now be in the agenda of media and communication practitioners. The on-line version of the kit will contain audio visual materials and PowerPoint presentations, and will be updated regularly.

This kit is comprehensive and contains 40 modules with several different components, with each component having its own specific method of instruction or pedagogy. In some areas, there will be the need for an instructor, and a sizeable number of learners. In other cases, the learner (depending on his/her level and experience in a specific area) will be able to follow components of the course on his/her own using available modern technology. In this respect, certain modules will be stand-alone and will be user-friendly. The end result will be that the kit will enable users to pursue a process that would strengthen their abilities as individual journalists or communication officers/experts, or as institutions such as ministries of education, finance, media houses, and even societies that would make efficient use of this tool kit as a resource to achieve the goals of Education for All initiative on a sustainable basis. The decision on the type of modules produced and for what purposes were done collectively by the various teams put in place during the different phases of the preparation of the kit.

This tool kit is designed in such a way that it may never become obsolete. The working group is setting up a system that will always keep the kit current. The on-line version will provide regular updating through the use of standard form of a feedback mechanism that would allow partners and other media institutions to add their contributions. In this respect, COMED will be instituting the use of podcasts and on-line broadcasting. Podcasts and on-line radio programmes are rapidly becoming very popular these days and because they make use of both audio and video formats, they are an effective tool to disseminate information and news through the web. There are other newer technologies that are springing up and as the need arises, we can also make use of them.

The production of this kit has certainly not been a simple and easy investment, given the very limited resources with its product and expected outcome and all its implications for questions related to quality in developing and strengthening capacity for African journalists. It has also certainly turned out to be a very ambitious project, but this is necessary at this current stage of our socio-economic development in Africa.

Lawalley Cole,
Coordinator, WG COMED
Cotonou, July 2010

Acknowledgements

This Tool Kit is the result of two years of consultations and work with several professionals in the fields of communication and education. These include journalists, experts in communication, education specialists, university professors, and Education for All activists. The kit was prepared by a cross section of media practitioners and education advocates on the African continent mainly from the following countries: Benin, Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Namibia, Senegal, South Africa, Swaziland, The Gambia, Togo, Zambia and Zimbabwe. COMED also partnered with two journalists training institutions (CFPJ and ESJ) in France who participated in the first planning meeting and the second consultative meeting respectively, provided some initial technical support to the working group.

The ADEA Working Group on Communication for Education and Development wishes to thank the individuals and institutions that participated in the various workshops in Cotonou in Benin, Windhoek in Namibia and Grahamstown, South Africa during the various developmental phases of the preparation of this kit for their valuable contributions. We like to acknowledge the contributions of the following individuals and organizations: Amie Joof (FAMEDEV – Senegal), Ayélé Adubra, Veronique Garé (CFPJ – France), Marema Dioum (FAWE), Paul-Marie Houessou, Jeanne-Frances N.L. Maduakor, Gerard Guèdègbé, Edem Adubra (UNESCO), Bakary Badiane (FAPE), Ben Zulu, Wambui Kiai (University of Nairobi), Africa Makhakane (CEF – Lesotho), Sylvie Larrière (ESJ – France), Sherri Le Mottee (OSISA), Anthony Nimely (MOE, Liberia), Bheki Maseko (M.B. Communications – Swaziland), Toussaint Tchitchi (University of Abomey Calavi – Benin), Eugenia Aw (CESTI – University Cheikh Anta Diop, Dakar), Flavienne Ramarosaona (Radio Madagascar), Limbani Nsapato (ANCEFA), Henry Kabwe (ZANEC – Zambia), Seatholo Masego Tumedi (University of Botswana), Kate Adoo-Adeku (University of Ghana – Legon), Velaphi Mamba (Council of Swaziland Churches), Ngamane Karuaihe-Upi (MISA Namibia), Bright Manuel Kampaundi (CSCQBE) – Malawi), Mathew T. Haiku (MISA, Namibia), Irmin Durand (FAWE), James Oranga (University of Nairobi), Shireen Badat (Rhodes University) and Kabral Blay-Amihere, (Media Commission, Ghana). Lawalley Cole coordinated and supervised the project.

A number of the individuals mentioned above prepared the modules in the tool kit. The first 3 modules on section 1 of the tool kit were prepared by Lawalley Cole. These modules covered the topics of Foundations of Communication, What is Education? and the Role of Communication in Education and Development. Lawalley Cole also prepared Module 12 Alternative Schooling, Module 19 Quality in Education, Module 21 Popular Culture and Education, Module 22 Use of National Languages in Education and Module 37 Resources Management in Education. Module 13 Inclusive Education was also prepared by Lawalley Cole with contributions from Limbani Nsapato, and Module 8 Tertiary Education with contributions from Seathole Tumedi.

Kate Adoo-Adeku prepared Module 9 Adult Education, Module 10 Principles of Adult Learning, and Module 15 HIV/AIDS issues in Education, with contributions from Amie Joof. She also prepared Module 11 Parental Education and Module 14 Education and Gender with Shireen Badat, Irmin Durand and Amie Joof. Module 38 Financing Education was also prepared by Kate Adoo-Adeku with contributions from Bright Kampaundi, Amie Joof and Kabral Blay-Amihere. Module 34 the Role of the Media in Advocacy and Social Mobilization was also prepared by Kate Adoo-Adeku with contributions from Amie Joof and Shireen Badat.

Kabral Blay-Amihere and Amie Joof prepared Module 26 Using Reporting Genres Effectively and Module 27 Ethics in Media. Module 35 Institutions of Education was prepared by Kabral Blay-Amihere. Module 36 Human Resources Development in Education was also prepared by Kabral Blay-Amihere with contributions from Flavienne Ramarasaona, and Module 17 Education in Conflict and Post-conflict Situations with contributions from Lawalley Cole.

Bright Kampaundi initially prepared Module 4 Early Childhood Care and Development. Module 5 Primary Education, Module 7 Education of Adolescents and Module 18 Special Needs Education were also prepared by Limbani Nsapato and Bright Kampaundi. Kabral Blay-Amihere, Amie Joof, Kate Adoo-Adeku and Lawalley Cole also contributed to modules 4 and 5.

Module 6 Secondary Education was prepared by Seathole Tumedi with contributions from Kabral Blay-Amihere and Lawalley Cole. Seathole Tumedi also prepared Module 40 Education and Research with Bheki Maseko.

James Oranga initially prepared Module 23 The Role, Strengths and Limitations of the Media, Module 24 Media and Education, Module 25 News in Education, Module 28 Information and Documentation in Education and Module 31 Training and Skills Development with substantial contributions from Kabral Blay-Amihere, Amie Joof, and Kate Adoo-Adeku.

Henry Kabwe and Velaphi Mamba prepared Module 20 Health Education and Module 29 Quality Assurance in Reporting Education with contributions from Amie Joof, Kabral Blay-Amihere and Lawalley Cole. Ayele Adubra prepared Module 39 Partnerships in Education. Amie Joof prepared Module 16 Education and Human rights, Module 30 Media Monitoring and with Kate Adoo-Adeku, Module 32 Advocacy for Education and Development and Module 33 Social Mobilization and Development.

There are other participants in this project who are kind of hidden and too numerous to mention in this acknowledgement. Their works are reflected in many of the modules in this kit. Special mention should be made of the 40 journalists who received training with the use of certain modules of this kit in Ouagadougou during the Conference on the Integration of National Languages in African Education in January 2010. This

training helped WG COMED to pre-test some of the modules in the kit and make a fair assessment of the tool kit as a whole, and helped to develop Module 22 with contribution from the works of scholars and researchers that were available during this training.

The content in unit 1 of this module is extracted from an article entitled « The case for additive bilingual/multilingual models» by Kathleen Heugh, Chief Research specialist for languages and literacy, Human Sciences Research Council, South Africa. The content in Unit 2 of this module is extracted from an article entitled « Overview of policies concerns the use of African languages» by Nazam Halaoui, Professor, University of Montreal, Department of Linguistics and Translation, Canada. The content in Unit 3 of Module 22 is extracted from an article entitled « Optimizing bilingual education» by Hassana Alidou, formerly Associate Professor, International Teacher Education and Cross Cultural Studies, Alliant International University, USA, and now with the UNESCO Institute of Lifelong Learning, Hamburg, Germany. We thank Hassana for participating in this training. All these articles were published in the ADEA newsletter of April – June 2005.

The core contents of Module 37 Resources Management in Education have been extracted from Chapter 7 of a World Bank Policy Study entitled Education In Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization and Expansion published in 1987, but whose contents remain totally relevant in 2010 as the situation with resources management has not changed very much in most African countries. We hope that training with the use of this module will help to advance our efforts to manage our educational resources better.

This Tool kit was edited by Kate Adoo-Adeku, Amie Joof, Kabral Blay-Amihere and Lawalley Cole. Seathole Tumedi also assisted the editorial team. Charles R. Tachie-Menson Jnr. helped in the design and layout of the kit. He was assisted by Genevieve Viatonou.

WG COMED thanks OSISA for providing a special grant to support this project at different stages and all the individuals and institutions for the work done in this very innovative and splendid task in promoting education for the development of the African continent. Financial support for this publication is provided from ADEA core funds to which the following organizations contribute:

- African Development Bank (AfDB)
- The World Bank
- European Commission
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
- United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)
- Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Department of Development Cooperation, Austria

- Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Finland
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Department of International Cooperation and Development, France
- German Cooperation
- Irish Aid, Department of Foreign Affairs, Ireland
- Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA)
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Netherlands
- Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (Norad)
- Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, Portugal
- Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), Switzerland
- Department for International Development (DFID), United Kingdom
- United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

INTRODUCTION

Education is the greatest tool that can be used to enhance all development activities on the global scene. It is for this reason that Africa sees the need to set in motion the process of accelerating its development effort through education and communication.

Education in Africa brings together the interests and activities of a wide range of stakeholders, including leaders, communities, civil society groups, the media, donors, cooperating partners, learning institutions and learners. Strategic planning in education is increasingly putting the communication dimension at the core of its business, ensuring that it is comprehensive and inclusive, and that its style and content enhances dialogue in promoting all facets of education. Through information sharing, through building consensus and confidence, through advocacy and social mobilization, communication strategies help to provide support for education policies and their implementation among leaders, communities, civil society groups, the media, donors and cooperating partners, and all of whom are recognizing the need to work together.

Rationale for the Toolkit

Strategic communication is not generally institutionalized in the structures and practices of ministries of education and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) working on education issues in Africa. Many countries in Africa have yet to create an enabling policy environment and instruments through which national or sectoral communication strategies, including those for education, can emerge. One of the purposes of developing this tool kit is to fill that gap.

This kit will serve as a training tool for all media decision-makers and practitioners (editors, journalists reporting on education) and for communication officers working in ministries of education in Africa and the education sector. It will contribute to enhancing dialogue with ministers of education, senior officials at policy level, and funding partners to work together to include communication components in education policies and programs, thus ensuring greater visibility and enhanced public support.

The Toolkit is also intended for members of civil society organizations (CSOs), communities and other stakeholders in education who will be engaged in policy debates and dialogue on educational issues at national, sub-regional and regional levels, as well as researchers and students of communication, media studies, education and development.

The kit will also support the use of some basic elements of a multi-dimensional communication strategy for education. It will demonstrate to the user that communication is an essential tool for education policy makers in their quest to go to scale. It will provide examples of how different forms of communication have been used successfully in enabling dialogue among stakeholders. It will also emphasize the need for a policy and strategic approach to the use of communication in support of education in Africa. Journalists and communication experts who will receive training with the use of this kit will be well-resourced with the technical knowledge and expertise in ensuring that a policy and strategic approach to communication for education would provide an important point of departure for the massive mobilization of resources and energies required for implementing Education for All, as well as other crucial programs of educational reform on the African continent. The kit will be of use to decision makers such as Ministers and Directors of Education in African ministries of education, as it will take on a systemic approach involving them, as well their communication officers, journalists and civil society groups in communicating better for education and development on the continent.

Why Now?

Despite efforts and increased resources for education in Africa over the past decade, a considerable communication gap still exists and has had negative repercussions on the implementation of education programmes. The first challenge of the 1st Decade was that its Plan of Action was not adopted till two years after the formal launch of the Decade. There was little evidence of ownership by stakeholders, while publicity was grossly ineffective. An evaluation of the 1st Decade showed that the lack of publicity and communication on the issues were a major cause of failure of this Decade. Hence, at this stage of implementation of the Second Decade, there is the need for the development of a communication strategy to avoid a repetition of the failures of the 1st Decade and to address the gaps identified in the education sector. We will therefore consider the following:

- ❖ Rights-based approach to education – education as a human right.
A considerable gap exists between the ratifications, domestication and implementation of the treaties on education, children’s rights and gender equality.
- ❖ International, regional, sub-regional and national targets.
Insufficient commitment on the part of governments to fully implement policies and plans in pursuit of international targets, e.g., EFA, MDGs, Second Decade for Education for Africa, CRC, Maputo protocol rights of women (AU protocol), CEDAW, regional and national policies.

- ❖ Civic engagement. Lack of ownership of various stakeholders of social mobilization programmes for the promotion of education and development.

Objectives of the Toolkit

The toolkit is intended to:

- ❖ Be an alternative, user-friendly reference and training tool for media professionals, communication officers and CSOs.
- ❖ Be a comprehensive source of information for the different target groups on global, regional, sub-regional treaties and legal instruments and national policy linkages, and will document and share best practices in Africa.
- ❖ Improve the standards of information-sharing, reporting and advocacy in education.
- ❖ Enhance the knowledge-base on resource mobilization for education.
- ❖ Provide trainers with basic tools which will be the starting point for drawing up and organising training programmes for communication/public relations officers and media practitioners in the field of education based on national needs.
- ❖ Develop and enhance professional skills of communication/public relations officers and media practitioners specialising in education and make them aware of how to complement one another in order to improve communication for education in Africa.

Expected Outcomes

This Toolkit will equip users with invaluable skills and provide them with the following benefits:

- ❖ Proven techniques they can use in high-impact situations.
- ❖ Confidence to communicate about tough or sensitive issues in education.
- ❖ The ability for African governments, cooperating partners, donors, parents and members of society and civil organizations to engage in constructive conversations even when criticism, complaint, or other tough encounters are necessary.
- ❖ Practical skills of what to do and what not to do in order to deal with complex and critical situations that require a particularly high level of communication competence.
- ❖ The ability to turn critical communication situations into opportunities to build trust and achieve results.

Methodology of the Toolkit

This Toolkit pursues a competency-based approach for its beneficiaries. It is designed to adequately reflect the notion of competence as an occurrence that turns knowledge into action, bearing the following in mind:

- ❖ Competence is not only knowledge, but also skills and attitudes needed to produce a performance;
- ❖ Competence has to do with the capacity to face new contexts and respond to new challenges;
- ❖ Competence is *doing* and *acting* so that a competent person not only knows something, but also knows how to do something with what they know.

This Toolkit builds on good practices from regional and country case studies in order to enhance effective coverage of education issues in African countries. It is designed to meet the requirements of modern day media practice in Africa, using the most up-to-date technology available on the continent. It deploys a large range of role-plays, activities, exercises, quizzes, case studies, and inspiring stories and materials to fully engage users throughout the process, making learning both fun and more lasting. Audiovisual materials such as films, documentaries, music, talks, PowerPoint presentations, etc., are used to illustrate various genres, provide visual impact and help keep command of content and pace. The online version of the Toolkit as well as group training sessions will feature interactive sessions to reinforce the learning process.

Components geared towards formative and summative evaluation are included at the end of each module and the end of the Toolkit respectively. Successful users will be awarded certificates of participation and completion by COMED/ADEA, during special training with the use of the Kit or components of it.

Structure of the Toolkit

This Toolkit is divided into nine sections, each containing a number of training modules targeting specific themes in communication, education and development.

Section One looks at the foundations and theories of communication focusing on communication theory, an overview of education in Africa, and the role of communication in education and development.

Section Two examines contemporary forms of education with modules on current models of education. This section has modules on early childhood care and development, primary education, secondary education, education of adolescents and tertiary education.

Section Three gives an in-depth look at non-formal education and examines in detail how non-conventional forms of education can contribute towards achieving international goals such as the millennium development goals and the education for all objective. It contains modules on adult education and principles of adult learning, parental education, and alternative and inclusive education.

Section Four examines the current issues that are having an effect on contemporary education. It contains modules on education and gender, HIV and AIDS issues in education, education and human rights, education in conflict and post-conflict situations, special need in education, quality issues in education, and health education.

Section Five focuses on two emerging issues in education. These are popular culture and education and the use of national languages in education.

Section Six looks at reporting on educational issues and covers media and education, media monitoring, quality assurance and training and skills development for media practitioners.

Section Seven tackles advocacy and social mobilisation for education and development, and probes into the role of the media in all of this.

Section Eight addresses resources in education, including institutions in education, human resource development, and resource management in education.

Section Nine examines resourcing for education and focuses on education financing, partnerships in education and the role of research in the quest for resourcing in education.

Each module contains a general objective, specific objectives, expected outcomes and activities. Each specific objective is divided into relevant activities. A section on supporting materials, further reading pertaining to the module, and references are included at the end of each module.

In addition, a comprehensive glossary of key terminology features at the end of the Toolkit.

How to use this Toolkit

This Toolkit is primarily designed to be a do-it-yourself training programme that will build capacity of media practitioners and those working towards the development of education in Africa. It can be used by individuals or groups either online or in face-to-face sessions. It can also be used with a facilitator.

The sections and modules can be completed in a sequence appropriate to each user's specific needs.

In order for the user to successfully complete the programme, s/he should have completed all the exercises which are labeled as activities in all the modules in each of the nine sections. The exercises will require individual research, group research, plenary sessions or all three.

The further reading included at the end of module is mandatory for a complete understanding of the topics covered and successful performance in the activities. The users are also advised to consult the references included at the end of each module.

At the end of the Toolkit there is a summative assessment to gauge understanding, knowledge and skills gained. Users will be awarded with a certificate of completion upon successful completion of the activity exercises in all the modules.

The user is encouraged to evaluate all modules and give feedback that will improve this Toolkit.

We wish you the best of luck as you go through this programme.



ACRONYMS

AAI	-	Affirmative Action Initiative
ADEA	-	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
ANCEFA	-	African Network Campaign on Education for All
ADALEST	-	The Association for the Development of African Languages in Education, Science and Technology
AFDB	-	African Development Bank
AU	-	African Union
BBC	-	British Broadcasting Corporation
BECE	-	Basic Education Certificate Examination
BREDA	-	UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Africa
CBCC	-	Community - Based Childcare Centres
CRC	-	Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN)
CDs	-	Compact Disc
CEDAW	-	Convention on the Elimination on all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (UN)
CESTI	-	Centre d'Etudes des Sciences et Techniques de l'Information
CFPJ	-	Centre de Formation et de Perfectionnement des Journalistes
CEF	-	Commonwealth Education Fund (Lesotho)
CSO	-	Civil Society Organisations
CSCQ	-	Civil Society Coalition for Basic Quality Education
CRESA	-	Regional Conference on Higher Education in Africa
COBET	-	Complementary Basic Education Programme in Tanzania
CIES	-	The Comparative and International Education Society
CE	-	Continuing Education
CELHTO	-	Center for Linguistic and Historical Studies through the Oral Tradition
CCPU	-	Community Crime Prevention Unit
CFSCC	-	Communication for Social Change Consortium
CERDOTOLA	-	Regional Center for Documentation on Oral Traditions and African Languages
DE	-	Distance Education
DFID	-	Department For International Development (UK)
ESJ	-	Ecole Supérieure de Journalisme (de Lille)

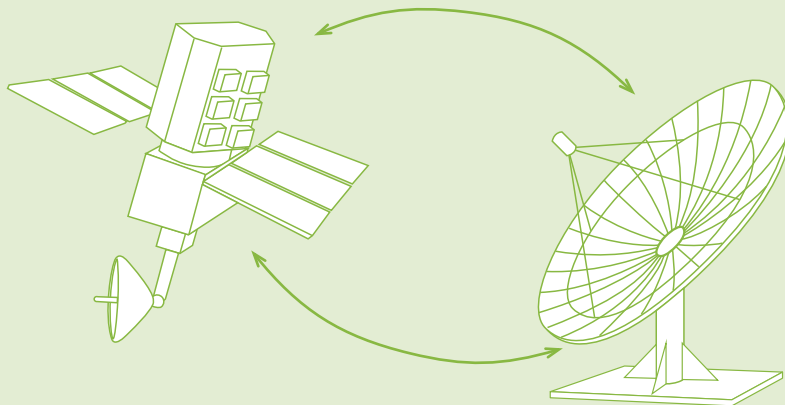
EFA	-	Education For All
EKE	-	Education for the Knowledge Economy
FPE	-	Free Primary Education
ECCD	-	Early Childhood Care and Development
FAMEDEV	-	Inter Africa Network for Women, Media, Gender Equity and Development
FAPE	-	Fédération Africaine d'Association des Parents d'Eleves
FAWE	-	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FBO	-	Field Based Organisations
FL	-	Functional Literacy
FTI	-	Fast Track Initiative
GER	-	Gross Enrolment Ration
GTZ	-	German Technical Corporation
H1N1	-	Influenza A Virus (Swine Flu)
HIV/AIDS	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IDRC	-	International Development Research Centre
IPPF	-	International Planned Parenthood Federation
ICT	-	Information and Communications Technologies
LAMP	-	Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP) (UIS)
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	-	Ministry Of Education
MISA	-	Media Institute for Southern Africa
MINEDAF	-	Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in African Member States
MCH	-	Maternal and Child Health
MTE	-	Mother Tongue Education
NIS	-	National Innovation System
NGO	-	Non Governmental Organisation
NFE	-	Non-Formal Education
OSISA	-	Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa
OECD/DAC	-	Organisation for Economic Cooperation / Development Assistance Committee
OVC	-	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
OAU	-	Organisation of African Unity

PA	-	Poverty Alleviation
PASEC	-	Programme for the Analysis of the Education Systems of Member Countries of CONFEMEN
PLHAS	-	People Living with HIV and AIDS
PTA	-	Parents and Teachers Associations
RTL	-	Radio Télévision Libre des Milles Collines
SAQMEQ	-	The Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SMC	-	School Management Committees
SFL	-	School for Life
SMT	-	Science, Mathematics and Technology
SNE	-	Special Needs Education
SNAT	-	Swaziland National Association of Teachers
SSS	-	Senior Secondary School
TV	-	Television
TVET	-	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UDF	-	United Democratic Front
UDHR	-	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNAIDS	-	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV & AIDS
UNFPA	-	United Nations Populated Fund
UPE	-	Universal Primary Education
USAID	-	United States Agency for International Development
USA	-	United States of America
UNIFEM	-	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UIL	-	UNESCO Institute for Lifelong
UNCTAD	-	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNESCO	-	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UPE	-	Universal Primary Education
VCT	-	Voluntary Counseling and Testing
WG COMED	-	Working Group on Communication for Education and Development
WGHE	-	Working Group on Higher Education
WCHE	-	World Conference on Higher Education
ZANEC	-	Zambia National Education Coalition



Section 1

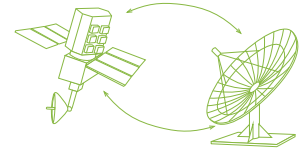
Foundations and Theoretical Framework





Module 1

Foundations of Communication



Communication for Education and Development

Overview

The term “communication” may be defined as a *process by which senders and receivers of messages interact in given social contexts*. For this definition, a number of assumptions can be made. The concept of *process* may suggest that *interacting* is dynamic rather than static in nature and that the components of *interaction* cannot be properly regarded as unchanging elements in time and space.

When we examine the concepts from the point of view of an *interaction*, we can deduce that no single aspect of communication can be meaningfully understood apart from the other components of behavior. Besides, changes in one aspect of the process may result in modification of the other workings of communication. The notion of interaction cannot be considered as a one-way transmission process. It is rather reciprocal in nature, a mutual exchange of combined influences.

In this module, we examine the theories associated with the term “communication” with a view to determining the efficient, professional and coordinated use of communication and the media for the purpose of development, in general, and the promotion of education, in particular. One of the main outcomes of learning in this module would be to reach a consensus among communication professionals on the concepts and basic methods used as well as the planned processes for utilizing communication for development.

Communication, education and development are inextricably linked. Communication is considered a tool for social change that can contribute to the economic and social development of a nation. Such social change can best be achieved through the use of education. Therefore education is not possible without communication, especially pedagogical or instructive communication, so much so that it is admitted that it is itself communication.

General Objective

This module attempts to explain the conceptual and practical bases of communication necessary for defining a strategy or a programme of institutional communication or development, and enables users have a general understanding of the theoretical and conceptual foundations relevant for good utilization of communication and the media in the field of education.

Specific Objectives

- ❖ To define communication as a relational process
- ❖ To list three major theories or models in communication
- ❖ To enable users to analyse the role that communication can play in various areas of development, including in education.
- ❖ To enable users to interpret the theoretical and conceptual foundations of communication applied to development.
- ❖ To identify the categories of actors involved in communication

Expected Outcomes

Users will have developed competencies that would enable them to acquire basic skills, attitudes and values to analyse communication issues as they relate to economic and social development and to be able to communicate effectively, objectively and accurately when reporting on education issues.

Introduction

Module 1 considers Communication as the process whereby information is enclosed in a package and is detached and imparted by a sender to a receiver via a channel or medium. The receiver then decodes or interprets the message and gives the sender a feedback. Communication requires that all parties have an area of communicative commonality. There are auditory means, such as speaking, singing and sometimes tone of voice, and nonverbal, physical means, such as body language, sign language, paralanguage, touch, eye contact, and by using writing.

Unit 1

What is Communication?

Communication is defined as a process of stimulating meaning in the minds of others through the use of verbal and non-verbal messages. Communication is the process by which we assign and convey meaning in an attempt to create shared understanding. This process requires a vast repertoire of skills in intrapersonal and interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and evaluating. It is through communication that collaboration and cooperation occur.

There are also many common barriers to successful communication, two of which are message overload (when a person receives too many messages at the same time), and message complexity (when the message is unclear or vague). Communication is a continuous process.

Communication is usually described along a few major dimensions: Content (what type of things are communicated), the source or originator or sender / encoder (by whom), the form (i.e. in which form), the channel or means of transmission (through which medium), the destination / receiver / target / decoder (to whom), and the purpose or *pragmatic* or practical aspect. Between parties, communication includes acts that confer knowledge and experiences, give advice and commands, and ask questions. These acts may take many forms, in one of the various manners of communication. The form depends on the abilities of the group communicating. Together, communication content and form make messages that are sent towards a destination. The target can be oneself, another person or being, another entity (such as a corporation or group of beings).

Communication can be seen as processes of information transmission governed by three levels of semiotic rules:

1. Syntactic (formal properties of signs and symbols),
2. Pragmatic (concerned with the relations between signs/ expressions and their users) and
3. Semantic (study of relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent).

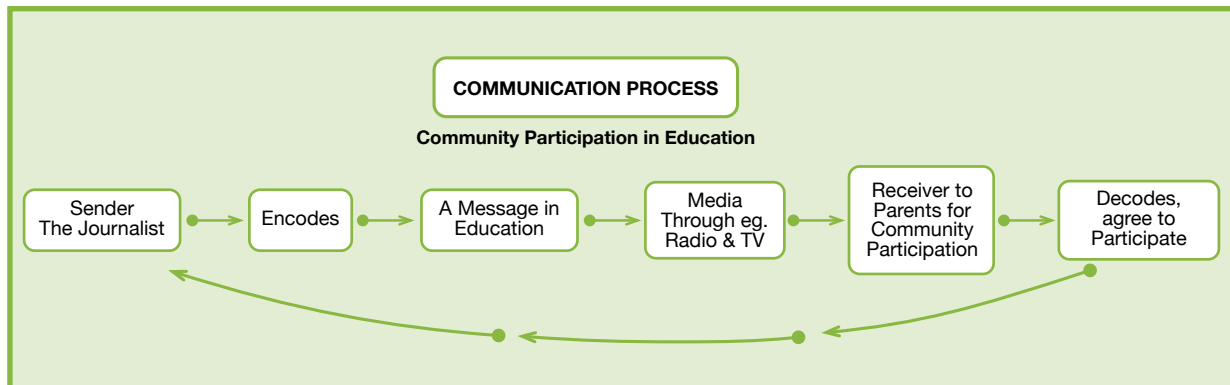
The theory and study of signs and symbols, especially as elements of language or other systems of communication, and comprising semantics, pragmatics and syntactics, is known as semiotics. Communication is social interaction or some form of sign-mediated interaction where at least two interacting agents share a common set of signs and a common set of semiotic rules. These are sign processes and/or rules that form meaning from any organism's apprehension of the world through signs. This commonly held rule in some sense ignores auto communication, including intrapersonal communication via diaries or self-talk which are both secondary phenomena that followed the primary acquisition of communicative competences within social interactions.

Any type of communication will usually have three goals or objectives which are to:

- ❖ inform people and share information
- ❖ relate, to connect, and to have relationships
- ❖ influence

A communication system or model consists of an idealized description of what is necessary for an act of communication to occur. A model represents or *replicates* in abstract terms the essential features and eliminates the unnecessary details of communication in the "real world." Models differ widely in terms of *how* they represent human communication. Those models based upon a mathematical conception describe communication as analogous or similar to the operations of an information-

processing machine: an event occurs in which a *source* or *sender* transmits a *signal* or *message* through a *channel* to some *destination* or *receiver*.



In the social sciences, however, most communication models describe more than the sending-transmitting-receiving functions; they also replicate such factors as the *nature* of the interaction, the *response* to the message, and the *context* in which the *interaction* occurs. By abstracting what is common to all modes of human communication, a systems approach to communication theory provides a frame of reference from which to better understand the workings of all communicative acts.

In a simple model, information or content (e.g. a message in natural language) is sent in some form (as spoken language) from a sender/ encoder to a destination/ receiver/ decoder. In a slightly more complex form a sender and a receiver are linked reciprocally. A particular instance of communication is called a speech act. The sender’s personal filters and the receiver’s personal filters may vary depending upon different regional traditions, cultures, or gender; which may alter the intended meaning of message contents. In the presence of “communication noise” on the transmission channel (air, in this case), reception and decoding of content may be faulty, and thus the speech act may not achieve the desired effect. One problem with this encode-transmit-receive-decode model is that the processes of encoding and decoding imply that the sender and receiver each possess something that functions as a code book, and that these two code books are, at the very least, similar if not identical. Although something like code books is implied by the model, they are nowhere represented in the model, which creates many conceptual difficulties.

Theories of co regulation describe communication as a creative and dynamic continuous process, rather than a discrete exchange of information. Canadian media scholar Harold Innis had the theory that people use different types of media to communicate and which one they choose to use will offer different possibilities for the shape and durability of society (Wark, McKenzie 1997)

Activity 1

Using specific examples from your country, city or village, define communication as a process: elements which make up the process (users, messages, channels, media, feedback, context, effects).

Activity 2

Read major theories or models in communication - Shannon et Weaver, Berlo, Westley et MacLean, participatory or holistic models; Theories of selective perception, of learning and behaviour.

Activity 3

Can you determine the difference and links between policies, programmes, strategies and communication campaigns.

Users have been familiarized with some basic definitions on the meaning of communication, and thus providing them with a theoretical framework that would serve as a base for understanding the concepts of communication for development in the rest of the tool kit and how education can effectively contribute to this. Users should be able to identify and exploit effectively all sources of information on education and cover the education sector systematically and comprehensively.

Unit 2

What is Mass Communication?

Mass communication is the term used to describe the academic study of the various means by which individuals and entities relay information through mass media to large segments of the population at the same time. It is usually understood to relate to newspaper and magazine publishing, radio, television and film, as these are used both for disseminating news and for advertising.

The term 'mass' denotes great volume, range or extent (of people or production) and reception of messages. The important point about 'mass' is not that a given number of individuals receives the products, but rather that the products are available in principle to many recipients.

The term 'mass' also suggests that the recipients of media products constitute a vast sea of passive, undifferentiated individuals. This is an image associated with some earlier critiques of 'mass culture' and Mass society which generally assumed that the development of mass communication has had a negative impact on modern social life, it has also created a kind of bland and homogeneous culture which entertains individuals without challenging them.

However, with the advancement in Media Technology, people are no longer receiving gratification without questioning the grounds on which it is based. People are now engaging themselves more with media products such as computers, cell phones and

Internet. These have gradually become vital tools for communications in society today. And now with the advent of the iPhone, the iPod and the iPad, communication today has been grossly revolutionized.

Mass communication research includes media institutions and processes such as diffusion of information, and media effects such as persuasion or manipulation of public opinion. In some African countries university journalism departments are now evolving into schools or colleges of mass communication or “journalism and mass communication”. This is the case in Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya, South Africa, Senegal and Cameroun.

Today, with the increased role of the Internet in delivering news and information, mass communication studies and media organizations tend to focus on the convergence of publishing, broadcasting and digital communication.

This aspect of ‘communication’ refers to the giving and taking of meaning, the transmission and reception of messages. The word ‘communication’ is really equated with ‘transmission’, as viewed by the sender, rather than in the fuller meaning, which includes the notions of response, sharing and interaction. Messages are produced by one set of individuals and transmitted to others who are typically situated in settings that are spatially and temporally remote from the original context of production. Therefore, the term ‘communication’ in this context masks the social and industrial nature of the media, promoting a tendency to think of them as interpersonal communication.

Furthermore, it is known that recipients today do have some capacity to intervene in and contribute to the course and content of the communicative process. They are being both active and creative towards the messages that they are conveyed of. With the complement of the cyberspace supported by the Internet, not only that recipients are users in a structured process of symbolic transmission, constraints such as time and space are reordered and eliminated.

‘Mass communication’ can be seen as institutionalized production and generalized diffusion of symbolic goods via the fixation and transmission of information or symbolic content. It is known that the systems of information codification have shifted from analog to digital. This has indeed advanced the communication between individuals. With the existence of Infrared, Bluetooth and Wi-Fi, cell phones are no longer solely a tool for audio transmission. We can transfer photos, music documents or even games and email at anytime and anywhere. The development of media technology has indeed advanced the transmission rate and stability of information exchange.

Characteristics of Mass Communication

Five characteristics of mass communication have been identified by Cambridge University’s John Thompson as follows:

- ❖ Firstly, it “comprises both technical and institutional methods of production and distribution”. This is evident throughout the history of the media, from print to the Internet, each suitable for commercial utility.
- ❖ Secondly, it involves the “co modification of symbolic forms”, as the production of materials relies on its ability to manufacture and sell large quantities of the work. Just as radio stations rely on its time sold to advertisements, newspapers rely for the same reasons on its space.
- ❖ Thirdly, mass communication is characterized by the “separate contexts between the production and reception of information”
- ❖ Fourthly, it is represented in its “reach to those ‘far removed’ in time and space, in comparison to the producers”.
- ❖ Finally, mass communication involves “information distribution”. This is a “one to many” form of communication, whereby products are mass produced and disseminated to a great number of audiences.

Activity 4

Users describe communication as a process. The trainer completes or modifies as the case may be and continues with a mini-exposé on the most common models followed by questions from participants. S/He will develop and use the necessary transparencies.

Activity 5

The trainer gives a quick exposé on the planning process and the application of a communication demonstration highlighting the role of the mass media and other channels of communication. Users illustrate the process with an example of intervention carried out at national level.

Activity 6

In this 21st century, everything seems to indicate that a large part of the socialization of children and young people, and of the cultural heritage of humanity will be passed on through the media. How do you think the mass media can be fully exploited to enhance development through education?

Conclusion

In this unit, we have proceeded to understand further the concept of communication, and particularly as related to media through the theory of mass communication. The mass media is what is often used to communicate messages or make any other type of connection or link with an individual or with entities in order to transmit a message or an exchange with meaning.

Communication is extremely important for any aspect of development to take place. The mass media can play a significant role to transmit words and messages to individuals and constituencies to allow for good understanding of issues by individuals and mass participation in a project, scheme or task that would mutually benefit all. It is clear that the Millennium Development Goals cannot be achieved without good communication and there have been many national and international initiatives to acknowledge this. To this end, new strategies are needed and new tools must be developed to facilitate the process.



A teacher communicating to pupils while they pose for a picture in Burundi

Supporting Materials

- ❖ UN, World Bank and other reports on communication for development
- ❖ Research findings on communication for development
- ❖ COMED reports and papers on communication for education and development

Further Reading

- ❖ The Context of Development Communication in 2004 by James Deane, Communication for Social Change Consortium (CFSCC).
- ❖ Communication and Sustainable Development: Issues and Solutions by Jan Servaes and Patchanee Malikhao, University of Queensland, Brisbane.
- ❖ Communication and Natural Resource Management by Guy Bessette, International Development Research Centre (IDRC).
- ❖ Communication for Isolated and Marginalized Groups by Silvia Balit, Communication Consultant.

- ❖ Communication for Development in Research, Extension and Education by Niels Röling, Emeritus Professor Agricultural Knowledge Systems, Wageningen, The Netherlands.

References

1. Zaghloul Morsy (1994) Thinkers of Education 2. Unesco Publishing International Bureau of Education. Vol. XXIII n°3/4 87/88
2. Michael Kunczik (1992) Development and Communication. Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung
3. Unesco (1996) Promotion of the Equal Access of Girls and Women to Technical and Vocational Education. Studies on Technical and Vocational Education 7. Unesco
Michael Kunczik (1993) Communication and Social Change. Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung
Michael Kunczik (1994) Violence and the Mass Media. A summary of theories and research. Publishing by the Media and Communication Department of Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung
4. Hugues KONÉ, Jacques Habib SY (1995) La communication pour le développement durable en Afrique. Presses Universitaires de Côte d'Ivoire BP : V 34, Abidjan Côte d'Ivoire
5. Kwao Lotsu, Sam Quaicoe and Edward Ameyibor (1990) Manuel of News Agency Journalism. – The GNA experience. In co-operation with Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung
6. Peter A. Easton (1997) Sharpening our Tools. Improving Evaluation in Adult and Nonformal Education. Unesco Institute for Education .German Foundation for International Development

Module 2

What is Education?

Overview

Education empowers people and strengthens nations. It is a powerful “equalizer”, opening doors to all persons and peoples to lift themselves out of poverty. It is critical to the world’s attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Two of the eight MDGs pertain directly to education-namely, universal primary completion and gender parity in primary and secondary schooling. Another MDG which relates very much to education is early childhood care and development. Education-especially girls’ education-also has a direct and proven impact on the goals related to child and reproductive health and environmental sustainability. Education also promotes economic growth, national productivity and innovation, as well as values of democracy and social cohesion.

General Objective

To enable media users to identify, understand and be able to conceptualize and analyze educational issues with consistency to facilitate the development in Africa.

Specific Objectives

By the end of module 2 the user will be able to:

- ❖ write, comment, diffuse or share basic information on educational issues in Africa
- ❖ identify and exploit effectively all sources of information on education
- ❖ enable users in the print media to write accurate and interesting spot news, in-depth reports and features in education
- ❖ enable users to use media of choice to produce informative and interesting programmes on education.

Expected Outcomes

Users will develop knowledge and competencies to acquire basic skills, attitudes and values to analyze the meaning of education and its importance for economic, social and political development in Africa. The module will also enable users to communicate effectively, objectively and accurately when reporting on education issues.

Introduction

This module attempts to explain meaning of education and its various components, and introduces users to some important issues in the field of education. This should assist users in the effective performance of their duties. Users are further encouraged to identify newsworthy aspects of these issues and familiarize themselves with national policies and programmes on education in their countries and identify sources of information on them and other aspects of education. Unit 1 explains the concept education and provides the types of education. Unit 2 examines the difference between education and learning and finally highlight the history of education in Africa.

Unit 1

Education is usually provided in a range of forms – formal Education, non-formal Education and informal Education. These form a continuum, each merging into the next, with no clear line of distinction between.

What is Education?

According to Sherith Johnson, “Education is an act or process of imparting, acquiring general knowledge, developing the process of reasoning and judgment and generally preparing oneself or others intellectually for mature life”. This involves activities that impart knowledge and skills.

Education in its broadest sense is any act or experience that has a formative effect on the mind, character or physical ability of an individual. In its technical sense **education** is the process by which society deliberately transmits its accumulated knowledge, skills and values from one generation to another through institutions. Education is therefore an essential process in human development, and is a universal process engaged in all societies at all stages of development.

Education for All (EFA) is the title of one of the most exciting pledges that the international community has ever made. At the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, the assembled nations committed themselves to providing free and compulsory primary education for every child in the world and halving adult literacy by 2015. Gender disparities in primary and secondary education were to be eliminated by 2005. The quality of education was to be improved, as was early childcare and learning and life skills for young people.

Countries from across the world also pledged ‘no countries seriously committed to education for all will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by lack of resources’. In 2002, the ‘Fast Track Initiative’ (FTI) was launched as one way to mobilise the resources to make good this promise. FTI is a partnership of donors and low income countries that have made mutual commitments to accelerate progress in primary education. It provides a practical framework, not only for harmonising donor funds in

support of African governments' own education strategies, but for agreeing what constitutes success in the delivery of results.

Major forms of Education

Formal

Education is usually provided in a range of forms – formal, non-formal and informal. These form a continuum, each merging into the next, with no clear line of distinction between. In the case of formal education, learning is carried out in specially built institutions known as schools and colleges. Such institutions will normally follow carefully structured programme usually known as a curriculum. This curriculum is further partitioned by means of syllabuses and time-tables and the teaching provided is usually supervised by an external administrative body. In Africa, such an external body would be the Ministry of Education. The achievements of those who learn in formal education are often recognized by the award of certificates.



Students going through reading lessons in a formal way in a classroom, Ouagadougou

Non-formal

Non-formal education on the other hand is any organized learning activity outside the structure of the formal education system that is consciously aimed at meeting specific learning needs of particular groups of children, youths, or adults in the community. It includes various kinds of educational activity such as functional literacy and numeracy training, agricultural extension, skill training, health and family planning, and educational work amongst youth, men and women. What is learned is structured, but not so obviously as in the case of formal education and there is more flexibility as to the places and methods of learning.

Informal

There is also what is known as informal education. In the case of informal education, there is no attempt at structuring it. Much of the learning that goes on is almost unconscious, as with those things the child learns from his family, friends, experience and environment. Informal education is not an organized form of learning and is more haphazard than other forms of learning. It is not associated with the award of certificates. But its effects tends to be more permanent because, unlike formal education and non-formal education which are confined to learning experiences that are planned in a specific context for a particular time, informal education pursues its own course at its own pace, by its own means throughout each person's life.

Activity 1

What is education: knowledge in basic skills, academics, technical, discipline, citizenship or is it something else? Can you define at least four areas where new strategies for promoting the concept of education through the media could possibly be developed?

Activity 2

“Test does not measure intelligence or ability; it does not measure how the mind processes information, how motivating experiences develop persistence, or how the mind sorts out instincts, opinions, evaluations, possibilities, alternatives. Knowledge by itself has no value; it is like a dictionary filled with words. Words by themselves have no value, it is the process of stringing them together that gives them value“.

Do you believe this quote to be true? The trainer completes or modifies this quote as the case may be and leads a discussion on the merits and demerits of formal, non-formal and informal education in your country.

Activity 3

E-learning is becoming an education model that the present system cannot compete with. It is focusing on what motivates rather than what the system thinks is good for students. It is also leaving out politicians, textbook industries, testing companies, and unions.

Can e-learning be considered an informal type of education? If yes, how? If not, why not? Can e-learning ever be explored as an effective method to promote education for all ?

Unit 2

What is the difference between Education and Learning?

From a philosophical point of view, not all learning can be defined as education. One contemporary educationist has identified three characteristics that distinguish true education from such things as rote learning, purely mechanical training, indoctrination or brainwashing. True education is said to:

- ❖ Deal with knowledge that is recognizably worthwhile and capable of achieving a voluntary and committed response from the learner
- ❖ Lead to a quality of understanding that gives rise to new mental perspectives in the learner
- ❖ Apply methods that encourage the exercise of judgment by the learner and the use of his or her critical faculties.

In a sense, education is society's cultural reproductive system. Through education, society reproduces itself, passing on its main characteristics to the next generation. The process is complicated being influenced by philosophical, political, economic and social forces acting on the mechanism. The result is that each generation is different from that, from which it sprang from yet, it preserves a family likeness. In effect it is education that keeps society alive.

Activity 4

“All young children have a natural talent for creative process of information. It's during the teen years that natural creative processing is replaced with the status quo. The status quo memorizes knowledge and forgets how to process it. In the classroom, memorizing is what counts. Standardized test reinforces the status quo. It kills creative processing ability”.

Do you agree with this? As a journalist concerned with development through the use of education, how would you analyze the concept of rote learning, and what would be your conclusions vis-à-vis the various forms of learning that exists in your society and what contribution these can make to economic and social development?

Activity 5

How would you define “True Education”? Can you explain your definition from the perspective of how the media can help promote your own concept in a simple but comprehensive manner?

Activity 6

“Achievers in life use inspiration and motivation to overcome barriers. Teaching to the test does not inspire or motivate anyone, memorizing does not inspire a love to learn, in fact, it does just the opposite, it turns off the desire to learn. Education’s goal should be to develop a love to learn that stays with students throughout a lifetime. Education should be a lifetime experience, not limited to the youth years.” In this sense, do you believe that it is education that keeps society alive? Please elaborate.

Education in Africa

Education in Africa began as a tool to prepare its young to take their place in the African society. African societies have a long and rich history of educational traditions. The African education experience was strictly set up to prepare the young for society in the African community. Indigenous education was offered by all ethnic and linguistic groups. This remains an important transmitter of cultural identity from one generation to the next.

The schooling system in pre- European colonialism consisted of groups of older people teaching aspects and rituals that would help young people in adulthood, and to instill in them the attitudes and skills appropriate for male and female social roles, emphasizing the duties and privileges derived from cultural values. Education in early African societies included such things as artistic performances, ceremonies, games, festivals, dancing, singing, and drawing. Boys and girls were taught separately to help prepare each sex for their adult life and the roles they were expected to play.

Every member of the community had a hand in contributing to the educational upbringing of the child. The high point of the African educational experience was the ritual passage ceremony from childhood to adulthood, which responded to concrete problems of local communities. Such an education prepared political leaders and ordinary farmers and artisans, and engendered a sense of citizenship in the people of the community. There were no academic examinations necessary to graduate in the African educational system.

Africa’s early Christian heritage represents a second important element of education in the region with roots extending back long before the colonial period. Especially in northeastern Africa and the Nile Basin, Christianity had thrived for more than 1,500 years. In about the year 450, the Ethiopian Christian Church, a prime example, established a comprehensive system of education that provided an underpinning for Ethiopian cultural, spiritual, literary, scientific, and artistic life.

A third major antecedent to the colonial period is the influence of Islam on African education. Arab culture and language were adopted in much of North Africa, and the Islamic faith also won converts in the Sahelian zone, along the coast of East Africa, and in much of the Horn of Africa. Both formal and non-formal school systems were

established to teach the ethics and theology of Islam; they included a small number of elite centres of excellence such as the ones in Tombouctou in Mali and at Lamu on the east coast. Designed to impart skills and knowledge within the religious realm, the Islamic education system emphasized reading and recitation in Arabic.

When European imperialism and colonialism took place it began to change the African educational system. The principal suppliers of Western-style education were the colonial governments and the African missions of the Roman Catholic and the various Protestant churches. In their quest for converts and literate African subjects, the missionaries and colonial governments opened up a network of schools in Africa. Many were of high standard. Yet the curricula were based for the most part on overseas models and reflected little in the way of African content. The administration of “modern” education systems in Africa was dominated by expatriates, as was teaching beyond the primary level.

Nevertheless, the economic changes that the colonial powers set in motion in Africa helped create a demand for Western-style education that, in many areas, seemed nearly insatiable. Education became the vehicle for moving, within one generation, from peasantry and poverty to the topmost ranks of society. The fact of modern-day life escaped few African parents looking for ways to promote a better future for their children.

Access to education was quite limited, however, especially in the thinly populated areas of French West Africa. In 1960, the gross enrollment ratio in all of sub-Saharan Africa was still only 36 per cent. There were also significant differences in educational access and participation within colonial territories - between urban and rural populations, males and females, and members of different ethnic or religious groups. Such patterns stemmed from a variety of causes.

Different African peoples were regarded and treated differently by colonial administrators; the costs of providing education differed, certainly between urban and rural areas; some population groups were more responsive than others to educational opportunities; and most Africans, responding to the incentives imposed by patrilineal customs, preferred education for their sons to education for their daughters. As a result, problems of unequal educational participation frequently transcended colonial boundaries. Participation patterns in Northern Nigeria, for instance, had less in common with those of in the south of the same British territory than those in the north of neighboring French Cameroun. Such within-country differences and between-country similarities remain evident today.

Transition rates from one educational level to the next were low in 1960, and dropout rates were high. As a result enrolment pyramids were typically very narrow at the top. Only 6 per cent of all Sub-Saharan enrollments in 1960 were at the secondary level, and tertiary education was virtually non-existent until the very end of the colonial period. The gross enrolment ratio at the secondary level in Africa was 3 per cent in 1960, compared with 14 per cent in Latin America and 21 per cent in Asia. The ratio at the tertiary level was 1 to 500, about one-sixtieth those then found in Asia and Latin America.



According to UNESCO figures, at the time of independence there were only 90 African university graduates in all of Ghana, 72 in Sierra Leone, and 29 in Malawi. When Botswana became independent in 1966, 96 per cent of higher level posts in the country were filled by expatriates.

The systems of education inherited by the African nations at the time of independence were altogether inadequate to meet the needs of the countries for self-governance and rapid economic growth. From this low starting point, the progress achieved in African education has been remarkable. However, the advances since the early 1960s have been seriously threatened – in part by circumstances outside education. Africa's explosive population growth greatly increased the number of children seeking access to schools and increased the number of potential illiterates.

The main educational issues in Africa during most of the 1970s and 1980s have been the stagnation of enrollments and the erosion of quality. Cognitive achievement among African students remains low by world standards.

Much of the evidence is indirect: supplies of key inputs (especially books and other learning materials) are critically low, and the use of these inputs have declined in relation to the use of teachers' time and of physical facilities. In addition and generally speaking, academic achievement in Africa has been sufficiently poor to be a cause for serious concern. Addressing these issues of stagnation and low quality will require additional resources. Equally important, it will require continuous review with a view to improving educational policy for many countries.

Activity 7

Do some research and make your own summary of the most important historical influences on the development of education in Africa.

Activity 8

How did colonialism affect Africa's development and achievements in science and technology?

Activity 9

Prepare a feature article for publication in a major newspaper or magazine on what you think contemporary education should be like in Africa in this day and age. What arguments will you advance to your country's leaders in your paper to persuade them to follow the trends that you are advancing in your article?

Conclusion

Education has been recognized as the greatest tool for Africa's development. The need for effective communication to facilitate the process is imminent therefore strong strategies should be adopted for accelerated growth in Africa's educational system.

Supporting Materials

1. World Bank, UN and AFDB policy papers in Education.
2. UNESCO EFA reports.
3. Research findings in Education for Development

References

Web reference: www.helium.com/knowledge/4999

- ❖ Kevin Watkins, The Oxfam Education Report, Oxfam 2000
- ❖ The World Bank, Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization on Expansion, World Bank, Washington DC, 1981
- ❖ Walter Rodney, How Europe Underdeveloped Africa. Howard University Press, Washington DC 1982

Module 3

The Role of Communication in Education and Development

Overview

Communication, education and development are closely linked. Communication is considered a tool for social change that can contribute to development and the promotion of education, while education is not possible without communication, especially instructive communication, in a way that it is admitted that it is itself communication. Module 3 allows users to have a common understanding of the role of communication for education and development, as well as its implications for communication officers, journalists and other media practitioners. It also enables them to understand the theoretical and conceptual foundations relevant for good utilization of communication and the media in the field of education.

General Objective

To enable users to analyse and exploit the links that exists between the role of communication in support of education and development, as well as its implications for their tasks.

Specific Objectives

- ❖ To enable users to understand the basic definitions and theoretical framework on Communication as related to Education and Development.
- ❖ Identify and analyze the theoretical and conceptual foundations of communication as applied to development.
- ❖ Draw the implications of the role of communication in education and development for journalists and communication officers.
- ❖ Build bridges between communicators and educators.
- ❖ Infer the role and responsibilities of the media in communication for education
- ❖ Make educators aware of the importance of the media in education.
- ❖ To distinguish the various stages of planning and application of a strategy or a communication programme for development.

This module will also enable trainees to identify and exploit effectively various issues that pertain to development with the use of different sources of information. They should be able to cover the education sector systematically and comprehensively from a developmental perspective and write accurate and interesting spot news, in-depth reports and features on education and development.



Expected Outcome

Users should be able to understand the meaning of development, in particular as related to education, and the importance of communication to achieve this.

Introduction

Communication for Education and Development is about dialogue, participation and the sharing of knowledge and information to promote education in a given country or society. It reviews the needs and capacities of the various stakeholders. Although the international community, as well as donors, NGOs and grassroots organizations have at varying moments experienced the implementation of various aspects of Communication for Development, there remains the need for a redefinition of Communication for Development within the context of the 21st century, bearing in mind the new political and media landscape, especially regarding the rural digital divide and other emerging issues related to education and development. Unit 1 provides a brief on Communication for Development, while Unit 2 tackles in Education for Development.

UNIT 1

What is Development?

Kendra Cherry says *“Development does not just involve the biological and physical aspects of growth, but also the cognitive and social aspects associated with development throughout life”*. By better understanding how and why people change and grow, we can then apply this knowledge to helping people live up to their full potential. Development must generally lead to better life through which people can develop their potentials and use it meaningfully for societal development.

Since the beginning of this 21st Century, the world has witnessed many changes which have posed considerable challenges today. These include the rapid spread of globalization and the spread of Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs), the increasing divide between rich and poor, particularly at the international level, the changing nature of the nation-state, the changing nature of the private sector, ecological pressures which have resulted in climate change etc, the decentralization of services, the explosion of media – and the emergence of new social actors.

Communication for Sustainable Development

Communication for sustainable development is about people, who are the drivers of their own development. It must therefore contribute to sustainable change for the benefit of the isolated and the marginalized.

Further, Communication for Development is a horizontal, two-way process that is about people coming together to identify problems, agree on visions for desirable futures, and empower the poorest. It is about the co-creation and sharing of knowledge. It respects the local context, values and culture. And finally, the approach of Participatory Communication for Development does not only apply to work with communities. It is an approach of equal importance to all stakeholders.

The character of the digital divide is now changing, although there remains much more to be realized before it can be universally accepted that real changes are taking place. It is now beginning to be as much one between rural and urban and rich and poor countries, as one between countries. For instance mobile telephones have been spreading extraordinarily rapidly, particularly in Africa where an estimated 60 million people now own mobile phones. This is probably an underestimate. Radio remains the most widespread communication technology on the continent, even though this is not accessible to all.

For communication to be more effective in the context of sustainable development, the following must be borne in mind:

- ❖ There is the need for scaling up and better resourcing Communication for Development issues;
- ❖ Communication for Development constitutes building a communication component into development projects from inception;
- ❖ There is the need to ensure that national frameworks support free and pluralistic information systems and community media;
- ❖ Research and training should be improved for Communication for Development practitioners;
- ❖ New tools and skills for evaluation and impact assessments must be developed;
- ❖ Alliances should be built and local, national and regional Communication for Development processes must be promoted.

Activity 1

Make a brief presentation of the planning process and the application of a strategy or a communication programme for development using transparencies, (a) analysis of the situation or a run down, defining a strategy, (b) how to come up with an operation mode of the strategy, (c) execution of the strategy, and (d) follow-up and evaluation.

Activity 2

The trainer will lead a question and answer session to sort out the differences and the links between policies, programmes, strategies and communication campaigns

Activity 3

Identify categories of persons involved in the process of communication for development: participants and target audience, technical partners or service providers, donors, etc.

Participants are called upon to express their opinions on the process (clear message, simplicity, operational character, ...) The trainer ends by stressing the plurality of actors or on the need to bear in mind several requirements : coordination, cooperation, participation, feedback, credibility

UNIT 2

Communication in Education for Development

Communication and education cannot continue to exist in the traditional way as if they were totally different areas. The information society has made it clear that it is necessary for the two worlds - the educational and that of communications, to come closer together and to interrelate. To achieve this, the different practitioners from both worlds must reach an agreement and take action. This agreement should start with a profound understanding of common values and activities and mutual recognition by those taking part.

A school, or an academic institution, is a body that communicates, transmits and provides orientations, codes and languages. A medium of communication is, to some extent, a system that leads the knowledge of a specific public. It also has such a degree of influence, especially on young people, that it could be referred to as informal education. Therefore, education and communication are forced into mutual understanding.

Development can also be defined as a long process of quantitative and qualitative change taking place in a given society at the political, economic, social, cultural and scientific level and leading to individual and community well-being. Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of current generations without jeopardizing those of future ones.

Communication for development is the planned and organized utilization of communication techniques and means (mediated and non-mediated) to promote development through the dissemination of relevant information and by eliciting active and conscious participation of all actors, including beneficiaries, in development actions. Its main components include:

- ❖ Social communication,
- ❖ Institutional communication, and
- ❖ Educational communication.

Educational communication allows people access to knowledge, attitudes and skills required for their emancipation and the improvement of their well-being. It also allows them to master the knowledge, norms, values and competencies deemed necessary by their society (knowledge, good manners, and know-how). Educational communication is conducted through pedagogy, andragogy and initiation, using communication between teachers/educators and learners on the one hand, and among learners on the other hand.

Media education is aimed at the theoretical and practical study of the media, their languages, content, technology, uses, effects, and culture. It analyses the relationship between the person or social groups and the media, proposing paths and channels to improve this relationship by encouraging personal autonomy, critical capacity and the expressive and creative side of people. It encourages use of the media to access personal, educational and cultural development and at the same time promotes its social use for cooperation and the setting up of ties of solidarity. It motivates creative use of communication, its function as social mediator and its capacity to develop the imagination and discovery as a way of spending a refreshing and enriching leisure time. Media Education is essentially a form of humanistic pedagogy which puts the media in the centre of the deepest and most legitimate interest of the person and of human society. It constitutes a privileged access to a form of active and participative citizenship in accordance with the demands of knowledge societies.

Media education is a key aspect of the new requirements that mediatization presents to society. It is a consequence of the transformation that the media have gone through from being mere instrument to becoming a central area of human experience and social life.

Activity 4

Determine the relationship between communication and development:
Would you consider the media a parallel school? Why?

Activity 5

Are there necessarily any tensions between education and development values and those of communication? Please elaborate.

Activity 6

Can you distinguish between the different values transmitted by the media and by schools? Can you outline these different values?

Conclusion

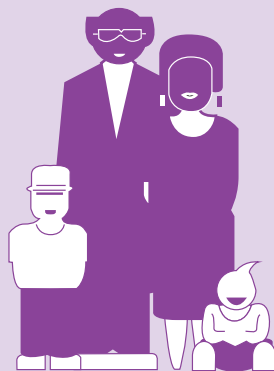
The concepts communication education and development have been recognized as major instruments for development. In order to achieve sustainable development attention must be focused on all the three instruments to ensure a new transformation in Africa's education system.

Further Reading and References

1. Kendra Cherry, About.com Guide 28/04/2010
2. J.M. Perez Torneo in collaboration with M. De Fontcuberta, Communication and education : 3 key Questions, UNESCO, European Union. (Undated)
3. FAO. Communication for Development Roundtable Report. Focus on Sustainable Development with UNESCO, IDRC, CRDI, CTA and the World Bank. 2005.
4. Education Makes News : An EFA Media Training Resource Kit. UNESCO, November 2004.
5. Kweku Rockson (February 2009). JOCMAS, Journal of Communications, Media & Society. Ghana Institute of Journalism. Volume 1 Number 1.

Section 2

Contemporary Forms of Education





Module 4

Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD)

Overview

Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) is an integral part of the total educational development of a child. It is the initial stage of the life of a child which determines and defines the child's character, behavior, attitude, thinking capacity and subsequently lays the foundation for the education and socialisation of the child from kindergarten through primary and secondary levels of education and beyond. It is now generally accepted that most African governments have started to recognise the importance of ECCD. This module offers insights into principles and policies of ECCD as well as challenges in ECCD.

General Objective

To help the user understand and articulate principles and policies of ECCD and highlight challenges the process faces.

Specific Objectives

By the end of this module the user will be able to:

- ❖ Understand and explain key concepts of ECCD
- ❖ Analyse and apply policy framework of various countries
- ❖ Understand the challenges of ECCD
- ❖ Promote participation and involvement of all stakeholders for successful implementation of ECCD policies.

Expected Outcome

The user would have a deeper understanding of the concept and importance of ECCD as a foundation for human capital development.

Introduction

Module 4 is divided into two units. Unit 1 tackles general concepts of ECCD, policy analysis, definition and implementation of ECCD. Unit 2 deals with the challenges of ECCD as well as the practical issue of the participation of all stakeholders in the full

development of the child in his or her early stages of life. The unit also provides a synopsis of infrastructural issues, human resource development and the importance of dialogue between teachers and children.

UNIT 1

Understanding ECCD and Policy Issues

What is ECCD?

ECCD is a relatively new field that combines elements from various fields - education, psychology, sociology, economics, women and gender studies to ensure that children from their early stages of life are encouraged to grow healthy and sound in mind and body. Early childhood is defined in some countries as the period of a child's life from conception to eight years and in others from conception to five years. Child development is defined as the process of change and growth during which the child masters complex levels of moving, feeling, thinking and interacting with people and objects in his/her surroundings. It involves both a gradual unfolding of biologically determined characteristics and knowledge, skills, values and habits through learning. The child's physical growth, emotional and intellectual needs are crucial to his or her overall development.

ECCD generally refers to the development of the child from conception to age eight (Consultative group on Early Childhood Care and development, 1994) and more importantly to the care the child needs from parents and the wider community as it journeys through the process of growing-up.

Children need to be supported socially to have a good foundation for the development of their potentials. In this direction, they would need a healthy environment with the required facilities to explore things in their learning environment. However, parents and other members of their families in the African context will need to set the pace for a strong psychosocial support that will enable the children to have a strong foundation for their development. In this context, the psycho social support would need to focus on such areas as:

- ❖ Working with parents to strengthen parental skills relating to the child's development.
- ❖ Working with siblings and other family members to recognise specific developmental needs of the child and relevant activities to satisfy the specific needs of the child
- ❖ Establishment of daycare centres and nurseries with relevant educational programmes to address the child's needs in a holistic way.

ECCD recognises the fact that those charged with the early development of the child must respect the emotional, mental, social and physical needs of the child. Beginning with the nuclear family and the extended family (which in Africa plays a crucial role in the development of the child) through kindergarten and primary schools, parents, family members and teachers must approach the socialization process and education of the child with tender care and protection.

It must be noted that, it is always at the early stages of life that children develop, evolve and mature. In the process they gain awareness of their environment, the various people and objects that surround them and, consequently, they learn to deal with the complex problem of understanding and appreciating all these factors.

In relation to this vital stage of child development several international conventions on child rights have been adopted for the protection of children. They include the United Nations Convention of Rights of Children, the Dakar Declaration on Children Rights on Education, the OAU Charter on Child Rights and several regional and national charters on child rights that serve as easy reference and guidance for the protection and care of children.

Some Key Elements in ECCD

- ❖ Child Survival and Development: “addresses interventions to improve Maternal and Child Health (MCH) and reduce the under-five mortality rate through improved health services especially, neonatal care”
- ❖ Education and Adolescent development: focuses on providing quality education through child-friendly schools, and quality education in a safe environment.
- ❖ The right of access to education - most child conventions state that education must be available for, and accessible to and inclusive of all children. Some countries have gone further by making constitutional provisions or legislations for a fee-free compulsory education for children from kindergarten to primary level and as an additional incentive provide free feeding and uniforms for pupils. Some countries which have abolished school fees include Kenya, Ethiopia, Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda. Ghana has a pilot scheme that provides free school feeding.

Activity 1

Develop and write/record a feature story using a medium of your choice (Radio, TV, Newspaper or Internet)

1. What is the importance of ECCD to child development?
2. Provide an overview of child development programmes in your country.
3. Compare various international and national conventions on child rights and their application in your country.

Activity 2

1. Does your country have an ECCD policy?
2. If yes, assess the policy and its implementation. If No, write a feature story to convince policy makers to consider having an ECCD policy.
3. Suggest a detailed plan of action to publicise and promote the policy using a media outlet of your choice.



These little ones in their school uniforms are ready to study for a brighter future

UNIT 2

Challenges to ECCD and Stakeholder Involvement

In spite of the importance of ECCD to child development, the process is not given the required support from governments and other stakeholders. Challenges faced by ECCD ranges from lack of human resources to poor infrastructure as well as lukewarm commitment from some stakeholders and limited knowledge about ECCD and its relevance.

Issues

Although most countries have signed unto and adopted various conventions on child rights and developed ECCD policies, not much resources have been invested in the implementation of such lofty policies and conventions.

There can be no doubt that greater investment in this crucial area could impact positively on early child development and increased literacy rates in many African countries. One of the major consequences of low investment and little commitment to ECCD is the low coverage of this important issue by Africa's media.

The effects of low investment or inadequate support for ECCD are numerous. These include:

- ❖ Inadequate trained personnel in ECCD
- ❖ Inadequate trained teachers and other staff for early child education
- ❖ Inadequate infrastructure/facilities for ECCD
- ❖ Inadequate training programmes for teachers
- ❖ Poor media coverage of ECCD and child rights
- ❖ Concentration of ECCD facilities in urban centres
- ❖ Neglect of children in rural communities

Stakeholders' Involvement

The socialization and early development of children cannot be the sole responsibility of parents and governments. Non-governmental organizations, religious bodies, social and cultural groupings and the entire community must show interest and participate in the early development of children. Paradoxically there is a wide gap between pre-

schools in the urban and rural areas in most countries. Policies and programmes ought therefore to be put in place in rural communities to encourage and promote the establishment of Community-Based Childcare Centres (CBCC) to provide care to children below the age of eight.

Empowering local communities, NGOs and religious bodies as well as the private sector in the management of Early Childhood Care and Development programmes from the planning to implementation stages will undoubtedly help the ultimate goal of developing the child into a useful adult and citizen.

One of the channels through which the several stakeholders listed above can be mobilised to support ECCD is through the media and at the community level where applicable through social, cultural and religious platforms. In some areas chiefs and opinion leaders can be relied upon to enhance community participation.

Activity 3

List two critical challenges to ECCD in your country. Develop a feature story for a local publication on a local media outlet of your choice (Radio, TV, Newspaper or internet) on the importance of communities taking charge of ECCD programmes.

Conclusion

This module has focused on what ECCD is about and further examined the various challenges in any effective implementation of ECCD. ECCD is an area which needs not to be overlooked in the development of human capital. Therefore, governments must be made to recognise it as a priority area in the process of promoting education for development.

Further Reading

1. Convention on the Rights of the Child-CRC
2. ECCD Policy Development and Implementation in Africa
3. Community Based Childcare Centres in Malawi-A National Inventory
4. Baldeh, Cecilia (August 1999)-“Towards a Comprehensive Integrated Approach to Early Child Care for Survival, Growth and Development in the Gambia, An Analysis of Opportunities in Selected Gambian Social Development and Strategies”-Banjul, The Gambia

5. Emily Vargas-Baron, V.S. Subrahmanian, and John Dickerson with Regina Lauricella, Nitika Tolani-Brown, Lenisa Joseph and John Dougherty (November 2009). Country Profiles on Early Child Development : Sub-Saharan Africa for the Global Early Childhood Progress Report. Sponsored by The RISE Institute, Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development, University of Maryland Institute for Advanced Computer Studies (UMIACS) and Center for Digital International Government (CDIG).

References

1. Charles L. (September 1999), “Measuring the Impact-An Assessment of the Progress Made in Achieving the Objectives of the Education for All: Assessment 2000 Process as related to Early Childhood Care and Development in the Caribbean”. Kingston, Jamaica, (Mimeo)
2. Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development (1994)-Issue No. 15 on Childrearing”. Entire Issue
3. Report of Commission One: Early Childhood Care and Education”, African Regional Meeting on Education for All, Johannesburg, December 6-10, 1999, (provided by Soo Choi who was a resource person to the Commission at the meeting)
4. Republic of Malawi-Ministry of Women, Youth and Community Service. (October 1998) “National Early Childhood Development Policy”. Mimeo
5. Working Group on Early Childhood Development, “Report on the Consultative Meeting held in The Hague at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. 10-12 March 1999”. (Mimeo).
6. Working Group on Early Childhood Development and Association for Development of Education in Africa- Preliminary Outline for Analytical Studies on the Development and Coherent National, Cross-Sectoral Policy Frameworks for Early Childhood Development in Africa, (for discussion at WAECD Working Group meeting in Kampala, Uganda, 9 September 1999). (Mimeo)
7. Marito Garcia, Alan Pence & Judith L. Avans, Editors. Africa’s future, Africa’s Challenge: Early Childhood Care and Development in Sub-Saharan Africa, The World Bank, 2007.
8. ADEA: Effective Early Childhood Development. Edited by Karin Hyde. Programs in Africa. ADEA 2008.

Module 5

Primary Education

Overview

Primary education is the first stage of formal, structured education and forms the basis for secondary and tertiary education. The major goals for primary education are achieving basic literacy and numeracy skills amongst all pupils, as well as establishing foundations in the pure and social sciences.

In general, main education consists of six to nine years of schooling starting at the age of five or six, although this varies between, and sometimes within, countries. Globally, around 70% of primary-age children are enrolled in primary education, and this proportion is rising. Under the Education for All programmes led by UNESCO, most countries have committed to achieving universal enrollment in primary education by 2015, and in many countries, it is compulsory for children to receive primary education. The division between primary and is somewhat arbitrary, but it generally occurs at about eleven or twelve years of age. Some education systems have separate , with the transition to the final stage of secondary education taking place at around the age of fourteen. Schools that provide primary education are mostly referred to as *primary schools*.

In Africa, while progress on the other EFA goals has been limited, there have been significant developments in gross enrolment in primary education in the past twenty years. However, average net enrolment rate in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is still only 70 per cent with a survival rate of about 63 per cent. Student achievements in primary schools are generally poor, attrition is high and there is an estimated 30 million children of school-age who are out of school. In addition, more than 150 million African adults are illiterate; this challenge alone underscores the need for further development and support to primary education. A key instrument in getting these children into school and preventing them from dropping out is to increase the quality of education, through, among other things, more and better educated teachers, relevant curricula and teaching materials.

General Objective

To help the users fully understand and articulate issues related to access to and quality of primary education.

Specific Objectives

By the end of this module, the user will be able to:

1. Identify and analyse educational provision as a human right and examine how this is articulated in state constitutions and other treaties their countries ratified.
2. Study the extent to which African countries have domesticated the international education agreements.
3. Express impediments to children's access to quality primary education.

Expected Outcome

Users will develop competencies in identifying and articulating issues related to access to primary education. They will also develop and disseminate through their media a systematic implementation plan to communicate on issues that would enhance a protective environment for the child at school.

Introduction

This module has been divided into three units. Unit 1 examines the state of primary education on the continent and reviews the domestication of international instruments on education focusing on primary education. Unit 2 focuses on access to primary education and impediments to Universal Primary Education (UPE), free primary education, enrolment, retention, completion, transition, performance and curriculum relevance. Unit 3 tackles issues of creating a protective environment and safer schools for children by tackling issues of, violence, exploitation and abuse.

Unit 1

The State of Primary Education in Africa

Modern education systems in Africa coincided with the installation of missionaries at the end of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Although universal education has been on the global agenda since the 1948 Declaration of Human Rights that proclaimed free and compulsory education to be a basic human right, access to school was limited to few children in Africa until the 1950s. During the 1960s and 1970s, African education expanded steadily, prompted by high priority given to education by the newly independent governments, donors, parents and children. This reflected strong faith in the effects of education on national unity, social justice, human

rights, and economic and social development. The 1980s experienced stagnation and decline due to a drastic decrease in education financing aggravated by balance of payment and budget deficits, and the ensuing structural adjustment programmes.

Since 1990, there have been intensified efforts to reverse the trend through national and international efforts such as Education for All, OAU and AU Decades of Education (1997–2006; 2006–2015), Poverty Reduction Strategies, Millennium Declaration, Fast Track Initiative, Global Action Plan and Debt Relief initiative. However, the African education sector continues to face serious challenges of low and inequitable access to education, irrelevant curriculum and poor learning outcomes, inadequate education financing by the governments and private sector, weak education system capacity, and weak link with the world of work. UNESCO – BRENDA estimated in 2007 that with the current trend, 28 out of the 43 sub-Saharan African countries for which data are available cannot achieve Universal Primary Education by 2015 as their Primary Completion Rate will still lie under 90 percent.

Key instruments in attracting children into school and preventing them from dropping out are to increase the quality of education through supply side interventions, (e.g. more and better educated teachers, improved school management, provision of teaching and learning materials and instruments), and to strengthen demand-side interventions (e.g. free education, mother tongue instruction, adult literacy and adult basic education and training for parents, targeted school feeding, conditional cash transfers). Evidence further suggests that the most productive interventions will be targeting the early stage in life.

Despite primary education being a basic right for all, most African governments still have high numbers of people who have never had access to primary education. The 2009 EFA Global monitoring report estimates that in 2006 some 75 million children, 55% girls, around the world of primary school age are not in school. The majority of these children are in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia regions and within these countries, girls are the most disadvantaged in accessing primary education. The second United Nations Millennium Development Goal (MDG) is to achieve Universal Primary Education, by ensuring that “by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. At the Dakar World Education Conference in 2000 governments agreed to six Education for All (EFA) Goals and committed to providing a minimum of 26% of their national budget to education to achieve the six EFA goals.

Africa has undergone reforms over time. At independence, many countries adopted the educational system left behind by the colonizers. However there have been great educational reforms taking place in many countries on the continent. African governments want to ensure that such reforms conform and respond to the current specific development needs of their countries. Though some countries have undergone such reforms a considerable number of African countries still use the old education policies. For instance the Malawi Education Act enacted in 1962 is currently under review.

Case Study 1 Swaziland

Government loses free primary education case

By MANQOBA NXUMALO, Times of Swaziland (Skrevet 17 Marts 2009)

MBABANE- Government's articulation that parents must forget about free education this year has been overruled by the High Court. Judge Mabel Agyemang yesterday broke new grounds and declared that every Swazi child of whatever grade attending primary school is entitled to education that is free of charge.

"I make a declaration that every Swazi child of whatever grade attending primary school is entitled to education free of charge, at no costs and not requiring any contribution from any such child regarding tuition, supply of textbooks, and all inputs that ensure access to education and that the said right accrued during the course of the period of three years following the coming into force of the constitution," judge Agyemang said to a quiet court.

Case Study 2 - NEWS RELEASE

6 May 2010

Swaziland Supreme Court to hear Free Primary Education Case

Johannesburg/Mbabane, 7 May 2010 – The Swaziland National Ex-Miners Workers Association will ask Swaziland's newly established Supreme Court to rule that the Swazi government is constitutionally obliged to make free primary education available to every Swazi child.

Although Swaziland has long been ruled by monarchical decree – its independence constitution abrogated by King Sobuza in 1973 – the enactment of

the 2005 Constitution was viewed as offering the prospect of governance reform in Swaziland.

Among the rights provided in the Constitution is that every Swazi child “shall within three years of the commencement of this Constitution have the right to free education in public schools at least up to the end of primary school, beginning with the first grade.” Like the South African Constitution’s provisions relating to basic education, it makes no mention of progressive realization of the right.

The applicants, most of whom are indigent, have found it increasingly difficult to pay the school fees of their children – an unexceptional predicament in a country with almost 70% of its population living below the poverty line. Counsel for the applicants will argue that the right to primary education in Swaziland is an unqualified right whereas counsel for the Swazi government will argue that it is a qualified right subject to the availability of the State’s resources.

In March 2009, the Swaziland High Court held that every Swazi child of whatever grade attending primary school is entitled to education free of charge and that the right accrued during the three years following the coming into force of the Constitution and held further that the Swaziland government has a constitutional obligation to provide such education free of charge.

Tomorrow’s arguments will determine whether the High Court decision is upheld and any resulting judgment will have significant implications for Swazi children’s educational opportunities, for budgetary allocations within a constitutional framework, and for the alleviation of poverty in Swaziland. It will also have implications for the realization of socio-economic rights within the region generally.

Background: Arguments are also scheduled before the Swaziland Supreme Court on 7 May 2010 in the matter of the Elections and Boundary Dispute Commission, concerning the constitutionality of appointments to the Commission, tasked with overseeing the elections in Swaziland. Together, these cases represent significant tests of the sincerity with which constitutionalism is upheld in Swaziland.

Issued by: **The Swaziland Council of Churches**
The Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa
The Southern African Litigation Centre

Activity 1

Since 2000, tangible progress has been made towards achievement of the Education for All goals and particularly with regard to Universal Primary Education (UPE). Can you explain whether or not in your country this rapid expansion of primary intake has been matched by commensurate teacher recruitment and student full completion of primary education with the ability to be able to read, write and count comfortably?

Activity 2

Despite the remarkable progress made globally and particularly in Africa over the past three years, there remain many educational challenges which are becoming increasingly complex in the light of the socio-economic concerns such as the global economic crisis. Can you determine how such challenges might have affected children's' learning in primary schools in your country?

Activity 3

What role should communities play in making primary schools effective in terms of better communication with the school staff and participation in school governance?

Activity 4

1. Identify constitutional provisions that provides for education in your country.
2. Identify provisional gaps between your country provisions and the international provisions.
3. As a user of this toolkit develop a systematic advocacy plan on the gaps identified.

Unit 2

Improving access to primary education

The second United Nations Millennium Development Goal seeks to achieve Universal Primary Education, more specifically, to “ensure that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. Goal

number five of Education for All (EFA) Goals aims at achieving gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015 while the 6th EFA goal aims at improving the quality of education. These are efforts at the international level to improve access to quality basic education.

The efforts to increase access to primary education have however met several challenges which range from inadequate infrastructure such as classroom blocks to sanitary facilities to cater for grown up girls and to accord them the necessary privacy within the school environment. Most schools do not have enough facilities that are friendly to physically challenged pupils. The learning environment in quite a number of African educational institutions is not conducive with high teacher pupil ratio of up to 1:150 as opposed to the recommended of 1:40 in some countries, compounded by lack of teaching and learning materials.

Due to many adverse factors on primary education such as poor performance due to insufficient teaching and learning materials, in some African countries there has been low retention and completion rates within the primary education cycle and low transition rates from primary to secondary and tertiary education, with girls being the most affected.

Case Study 3 - Malawi

Free Primary Education in Malawi

Primary education system expanded from a total enrolment of 359,841 in 1964 when it got independence to 847,157 in 1980 and to 1,895,423 in 1994. Malawi changed her political system of government from one party to a multi-party system in May 1994. During the one-party government period, primary school pupils paid token school fees. The new democratic government (under the United Democratic Front UDF) introduced FPE in the 1994/95 academic year, partly in response to the Jomtien conference on Education for All (EFA) which was held in Thailand in 1990, but also in fulfillment of one of the promises the new government had made to its electorate. This also formed part of a national policy of poverty alleviation (PA) by the new government.

As a result of this policy change, more than a million additional pupils joined the primary education system during the first year of the policy change. Consequently, the situation in the education system deteriorated even further. Overcrowding increased, the few resources in schools were inadequate for the increased numbers, and the recruitment of temporary teachers (TTs) made the

teaching and learning process fall short of what was expected. The Government was in a crisis of how to keep the children in school. While the government was already facing difficulties in providing services to meet the educational needs of the country, its problems were compounded with the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE).

Activity 5

Learning from the above case study:

1. Identify major efforts your government and stakeholders have undertaken to increase access to primary education.
2. Mention major policy challenges your country is encountering in increasing access to primary education.
3. Mention infrastructure challenges your country education system is facing?
4. Develop a detailed plan to share the issues identified.

Unit 3

Creating Safer Schools and Protective Environment

Issues of unsafe schools continue to be covered in various media houses and reported in various surveys. Such issues include crime, violence and other forms of disorders in schools. The issues inhibit teachers from concentrating on teaching and it also affects the learning process of students.



A security officer at work behind a school in Burundi

Violence against girl pupils and in some instances against male pupils at both household level and within the school community has contributed to increased numbers of girls dropping out of primary school. The abuse and violence range from sexual, verbal, physical and mental abuse perpetuated by both male and female teachers and pupils. In the face of increased reports of abuse and sexual exploitation there is need to make schools child friendly and create a protective environment for the child. While some countries have removed corporal punishment as a way of reforming pupils, in many countries is still being practiced.

Efforts to create safer schools should involve all stakeholders, students, teachers, and community leaders. Each of the stakeholders involved in the school should recognize his or her responsibility to work for and achieve safe schools. The stake holders include the following:

- (a) **School Administrators** who ensure that all people involved with the school are working in support of safe schools;
- (b) **Teachers** who respond to students in a caring and no shaming manner and also providing consistent and firm guidelines and rules regarding student behavior;
- (c) **Parents** who are equal partners with administrators and teachers in the development of the school safety plan and discipline code;
- (d) **Students** who want—and are entitled to—a safe, orderly school environment where they can learn and students who develop a sense of responsibility for contributing to the improvement of school order and safety.

Regardless of all the setbacks, most African communities and other stakeholders including non state actors are taking an active role participating in making the school a protective environment, by supporting the management and running of the affairs of primary schools through formalised structures such as School Management Committees (SMC) and Parents and Teachers Associations (PTA) and ensuring improved quality and access to basic education. Such roles range from providing financial to material support, as well as contributions in human resource and capacity development.

Case Study 4. Zambia

Pupil hospitalized after being caned

Lusakatimese.com (Saturday, May 23, 2009, 7:47)

A 12-year-old pupil of Chilongoshi Basic School has been admitted to Kasama General Hospital after being caned by his teacher. Northern Province Community Crime Prevention Unit (CCPU) acting chairperson Maybin Chilufya revealed the development to ZANIS in Kasama yesterday that the incident happened on Tuesday, this week. Mr. Chilufya, who identified the victim as Evans Musonda, said the pupil was repeatedly caned on his left palm by his teacher resulting in him sustaining serious injuries. He said the teacher allegedly beat-up the pupil for refusing to do manual work within the school premise. Mr. Chilufya explained that after injuring the boy, the teacher is alleged to have attempted to bribe the father to the child by offering him K100, 000 cash. The condition of the pupil, who is said to be in grade six, has been described as stable.

Source: www.lusakatime.com

Case Study 5. Swaziland

Wednesday, 25 February 2009

ABUSED LIFE OF THE SWAZI CHILD: Who would want to be a child in Swaziland?

Hardly a week goes by without some news of another atrocity committed against children. The latest reveals that teachers are having sex with their pupils. Last year 100 teachers were investigated on charges of having sex with pupils. That hundred only represents the cases that were reported and dealt with, there is every reason to suspect that many more children are being abused than this number suggests. According to Muziwethu Mhlanga, Secretary General Swaziland National Association of Teachers (SNAT), one of the reasons teachers get away with child abuse is that parents, especially in rural areas, 'sold' their daughters in return for groceries from male teachers.

Source: http://swazimedia.blogspot.com/2009_02_01_archive.html

Case Study 6 - Egypt

Death of 11-year old Alexandria Boy Brings International Attention to Discipline in Egypt Schools

From: October 29, 2008

A mathematics teacher in Alexandria is being detained on manslaughter charges in Egypt after allegedly beating an 11 year old student to death for not completing his homework. The teacher claimed that he only intended to discipline the boy, but the incident brings to international attention the larger problem of corporal punishment in the Egyptian school system. The BBC reports that after using a ruler to punish him, the teacher is alleged to have taken the



young boy outside the classroom and hit him violently in his stomach. The young pupil fainted and later died in hospital of heart failure. The teacher is reported by Egyptian newspaper Al Masry Alyoum to have told the prosecutor that he was only trying to 'discipline the boy, not to kill him'.

Source: <http://us.oneworld.net>

Activity 6

1. Identify abuses and exploitation taking place in your own country?
2. Make an analysis of laws and policies existing in your country that are addressing abuses cited above?
3. As a user of this toolkit draw up a systematic plan to raise awareness on the issues and gaps identified in 2

Activity 7

1. Highlight the key issues that affect increased access to primary education.
2. Share how your country has entrenched education provision into your country laws and policies and identify the major gaps.
3. Develop strategies that you will implore to bring to the attention of policy makers to address the major challenges identified.

Conclusion

Education is basic right for all. All African governments have to strive to ensure that all their citizen have access to education. Besides ensuring access there is need for the African governments to ensure an improved and equitable learning environment for the both boys and girls.

Supporting Materials

- ❖ Annual education official reports
- ❖ Education data at Ministries responsible for education
- ❖ News clips on education report
- ❖ Convention on the Rights of the Child
- ❖ African Charter of Welfare of the child
- ❖ African Charter on People's and human rights
- ❖ Universal declaration of Human Rights
- ❖ Country specify constitution

Further Reading

- ❖ Convention on the Rights of the Child
- ❖ African Charter of Welfare of the child
- ❖ African Charter on People's and human rights
- ❖ Universal declaration of Human Rights
- ❖ Country specify constitution
- ❖ MDGs
- ❖ EFA Global monitoring report

References

1. ADEA (Association for the Development of Education in Africa) (2005),
2. *Le programme de lecture dans l'enseignement primaire en Zambie*, L'Harmattan, Paris.
3. AfDB (1987), *Education Sector Policy*, African Development Bank, Abidjan.
AfDB (2000), *Education Sector Policy Paper*, African Development Bank, Abidjan.
AfDB (2007a), *Report on Assessing Africa's Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals*, African Development Bank, Tunis.
AfDB (2007b), *Recent Debt Relief Initiatives and Social Services Delivery in Africa*, African Development Bank, Tunis.

4. African Union (2006), *Report of the Evaluation of the Decade of Education in Africa (1997–2006)*, Addis Ababa.
5. Banque Mondiale (2008), *Le système éducatif béninois: analyse sectorielle pour une politique éducative plus équilibrée et plus efficace*, World Bank Publications.
6. Bloom, D.E. and J.E. Cohen (2002), 'Education for All: An Unfinished Revolution', *Daedalus*, Summer
7. BREDA and The Pole de Dakar for Education Sector Analysis (2007), *Dakar + 7: Education for All in Africa: Top Priority for Integrated Sector wide Policies*, Dakar.
8. Bredie, W.B.J. and G.K. Beeharry (1998), 'School Enrollment Decline in Sub-Saharan Africa: Beyond the Supply Constraint', World Bank Discussion Paper No. 395. Bruns, B., A. Mingat and R. Rakotomalala (2003), *Achieving Universal Primary Education by 2015: A Chance for Every Child*, World Bank, Washington DC.
10. Colclough, C., S. Al-Samarri, P. Rose and M. Tembon (2003), *Achieving Schooling for All in Africa: Cost, Commitment and Gender*, Ashgate, Aldershot
Easterly, W. (2007), *How the Millennium Development Goals Are Unfair to Africa*, Brookings Institution, Washington DC.
11. IEG (2006), *From Schooling Access to Learning Outcomes. An Unfinished Agenda. An Evaluation of World Bank Support to Primary Education*, World Bank, Washington.
12. Obanya, P. (2002), *Revitalizing Education in Africa*, Stirling Horden Publishers (Nig.) Ltd, Lagos.
13. UNESCO (2000), 'The Dakar Framework for Action "Education for ALL: Meeting Our Collective Commitments"', World Education Forum, Dakar Senegal.
UNESCO, Paris.
UNESCO (2004), *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2005: The Quality Imperative*. UNESCO, Paris.
14. UNESCO (2006), *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007*. UNESCO, Paris.
UNESCO (2007), *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008*. UNESCO, Paris.
UNESCO (2008), *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2009*. UNESCO, Paris.
UNESCO (2009), *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2010*. UNESCO, Paris.

15. UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2006). *Teachers and Educational Quality: Monitoring Global Needs for 2015*.
16. UNESCO-BREDA (2007), *Education for All in Africa, Dakar+7 Report*.
17. World Bank (1980), *Education: A Sector Policy Paper*, World Bank, Washington DC.
World Bank (2004), *Primary Education Portfolio Review*, OED, World Bank, Washington DC.
18. World Bank (2006), *From Schooling Access to Learning Outcomes: An Unfinished Agenda*. An Evaluation of the World Bank Support to Primary Education. IEG, World Bank, Washington DC.
19. World Bank (2007), *Development and the Next Generation: World Development Report 2007*, World Bank, Washington DC.
20. The World Bank, UNICEF, *Abolishing School Fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and Mozambique*. World Bank, Washington DC, 2008.

Module 6

Secondary Education

Overview

After primary school education, a pupil is expected to move to a secondary school, the next stage of adolescent education considered very crucial towards preparing the child for further education. However a 2006 report by UNESCO stated that half of the children who completed primary school in Africa, did not proceed to the secondary level making them drop outs, with uncertain futures at a rather early age. Of the 93 million children of secondary-school age, only 25 million are enrolled in secondary schools. Out of this number, many attend school irregularly and eventually become drop-outs. The media can help governments and communities to address this problem and the many challenges facing the educational system in general and secondary education in particular in order to improve the situation.

General Objective

Module 6 discusses the process of secondary education and its various challenges with the view of enabling user to understand the importance of secondary education.

Specific Objectives

Specific objectives are to:

- ❖ Define and describe what is secondary education and its role in the educational system
- ❖ Interpret and analyze the relationship between secondary education and socio-economic development
- ❖ Examine critical issues and challenges facing secondary education in Africa

Expected Outcome

By the end of the module user will be in a position to understand, discuss and write on secondary education issues.

Introduction

Secondary education is a very significant stage in the education of the child as s/he matures into adolescence and moves from the primary level of education to another stage, the secondary level. Unit 1 discusses the concept of secondary education and its role in development and the policies that should be put in place to facilitate the process. Unit 2 examines factors that influence quality secondary education. Unit 3 examines equity issues in relation to the available resources for secondary education

in Africa, while Unit 4 looks at technical and vocational education and training (TVET), as a subset of secondary education.

Unit 1

Understanding Secondary Education and its Role

What is Secondary Education?

Secondary education is considered to be the last stage of the compulsory elementary education and thus a crucial stage in the educational rite of passage. Secondary education is defined by Wikipedia as “the stage of education following primary school... and, generally the final stage of compulsory education. Depending on the system, schools or this period or a part of it may be called secondary schools, high schools, gymnasia, lyceums, middle schools, colleges, vocational schools. The exact meaning of any of these varies between the systems”. ([Wikipedia.org/wiki/secondary – education](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/secondary_education)). By this definition secondary education may be regarded as the gateway to the world of higher learning.

Role of Secondary Education

Secondary education generally serves as the preparatory stage for students who need/have/wish to proceed to the tertiary level. It is an intermediate stage which further lays down additional bricks in building the future of the recipients of education as well as that of a particular nation. This stage of the educational journey thus plays an important role, according to Irene Duncan-Anadusa in an article titled ‘The Challenges in Secondary Education in Africa and the Role of Development Agencies, NGOs and Teacher Unions’ that outlines the objectives of secondary education as the following:

- ❖ reinforce knowledge and skills acquired during basic education
- ❖ provide a diversified curriculum to cater for different aptitudes, abilities, interests and skills
- ❖ provide an opportunity for further education and training and introduce students to a variety of relevant occupational skills necessary for national human resource development
- ❖ understand the environment and need for its sustainability
- ❖ inculcate a sense of discipline and selflessness in students
- ❖ develop an interest in life-long learning.

Furthermore, secondary education potentially and actually plays a catalytic role in the process of development. Over the ages, and especially in recent times, the relationship between education and development has not only been interrogated, but it has also been emphasized and embraced. Educationists progressively speak of concepts such as ‘education with production’ which are deemed as having the potential to form the

basis of the development progress. Education with production, it is argued, equips students with skills that are eventually transferrable to the development progress.

Educational Policies in Africa

“Widespread literacy opens up many avenues of mass communication as an effective means of keeping people well informed on national, African and world problems, as well as on local affairs. An informed citizenry is necessary if a democratic ... state is to develop.” (Kenyan National Development Plan 1964 – 1969)

Educational systems in Africa have been tainted by legacies of colonial policies which were characterized by inequitable access and the tendency to exclude certain sections of indigenous communities from receiving the benefits of education. The colonial systems on the African continent employed the divide-and-rule tactics in all spheres of their interaction with the indigenes including the educational system. The colonial educational policies thus aimed at creating a select few – the *evolues* or *assimilados* – who enjoyed the privileges consonant with the class they belonged to at the expense of vast majorities of the indigenous people.

Surprisingly the post- independence era made very little effort to change colonial tendencies in education. The illustration below, taken from a 1969 diary entry of the memoirs (p 220) of a secondary school Vice-Principal (Sheila Bagnall who later became Principal) of Swaneng Hill School, an experimental secondary school in Botswana (the experimental initiative of introducing the concept of education for development at Swaneng in Serowe lasted from the 1960’s to the mid-70s when the Government took over the school) is highly significant:

“But look at the 5th form Setswana [language spoken in Botswana] exam paper which I enclose! I found it in the office. Such a European approach to Setswana and an 80 years out of date approach at that. Mind you, they have a set book as well – ‘Julius Caesar’ – J.C. translated into Setswana. We must try and push a reform on this front – include something on the country’s history or anything to get away from the useless pedantry.”

In the post-colonial era most Africa states have made education a priority although the colonially inherited class system continues as evidenced by the existence of private secondary schools which, on economic basis, remain exclusive to the ‘haves’ who can afford the steep fees charged at such schools – thus ensuring that the ‘have-nots’ are forever excluded from these prestigious schools.

Activity 1

Study policies on secondary education for any African country of your choice and write an in-depth-analysis story in which you critically examine the policies noting their strengths and shortcomings. Explain how the strengths and weaknesses are likely to impact upon any two of the following aspects of the country’s secondary education system:

- ❖ *Equity and access*
- ❖ *Quality and Relevance*
- ❖ *Teaching and Assessment*
- ❖ *Governance*

Activity 2

Write an analytical feature in which you compare and contrast two secondary schools - one Government school and the other, a private secondary school. Your story should explain the significances of the difference that you may observe between such schools.

Unit 2

Factors Impacting upon Good Quality Secondary Education in Africa

Issues relating to access and equity mitigate against the universal objectives enshrined in the Millennium Development Goals Number 3 and the 2000 Dakar Frame for Action which seek to ensure that the” learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access and appropriate learning and life skills programmes”. The factors identifiable here form a wide-ranging spectrum:

- ❖ Inadequate Human Resources Development (e.g. training of teachers/student-teacher ratios)
- ❖ Inadequate Infrastructural Developments (e.g. classroom shortages)
- ❖ Limited Resources (e.g. shoestring budgets)
- ❖ Policy Issues
- ❖ Poverty
- ❖ Class Related Issues
- ❖ Population Expansion
- ❖ Socio-Cultural Aspects (e, g, gender inequalities)

New Issues Impacting Upon Secondary Education

Every age is heralded by its own set of challenges and the 21st century is no exception. The effects of the maladies that bedevil African societies are felt acutely at the secondary school level for the reason that the recipients of secondary school education are young people who are just entering the adolescent stage and thus overtly eager to explore life’s hidden mysteries (see module on Adolescent Education for further details).

❖ HIV and AIDS

Top on the list of the challenges of the new millennium era is the HIV and AIDS pandemic which affects both teacher and student and thus threaten to gravely disrupt the secondary education sector. Strategies for providing HIV / AIDS education therefore, are a necessity (see module on Education and HIV/AIDS for further details).

❖ Drug Abuse

Similar to the challenges brought about by HIV and AIDS, the tendency for today's youth to indulge in drug and alcohol abuse is exacerbated by the vulnerability and inexperience associated with their age (see module on Adolescent Education). Drug and alcohol abuse, therefore, reeks havoc within the secondary education sector.

The secondary education system is thus being, evidently, buttressed and assaulted from all fronts. Hence media practitioners urgently needs to take an active interest in the issues that militate against the provision and attainment of good quality secondary education.

Activity 3

Critically examine the strategies that have been put in place to combat the HIV and AIDS pandemic in at least two schools in your community.

Activity 4

Prepare an in-depth story on the challenges caused by drug and alcohol abuse in any two schools in or near your community Compare and contrast your observations and findings with those from other countries in your region and in the continent.

Case Study: Ghana (Source: Duncan-Anaduna, I) *Challenges in Secondary Education*
These challenges can broadly be classified under two main categories of (i) Quality and (ii) Access and Participation.

A) Factors Accounting for Low Quality Education Delivery

- ❖ Lack of adequate teaching and learning facilities
- ❖ Poor infrastructural facilities
- ❖ Low number of well-motivated and committed teachers
- ❖ Absence of proper guidance and Counseling Services
- ❖ Poor management and supervision
- ❖ Inadequately prepared JSS leavers:

Could all the above factors be related to lack of adequate budgetary allocations, inadequate capacity to manage available resources or a general misguided perception of priorities?

B) Access and Participation

For nearly two decades after independence (1957-1980), Ghana won international reputation and praise for her extensive network of schools which provided increased access to a growing number of students, as well as for the quality of the products of her educational system. However, after a period of rising enrolments and qualitative gains in cognitive achievement, the education system began to experience a deep malaise.

Among the aims of the 1987 Education Reforms was to increase access to formal education at all levels, including senior secondary schools. In pursuance of this aim, many new community based senior secondary schools were established bringing the number of public (Government) senior secondary schools to 474 as at year 2000.

In Ghana the gross enrolment rate at SSS level for age group 15 – 17 is low, – 18% (year 2000) in spite of increase in number of SSS schools. There is also a disparity in the ratio of males to females in SSS education – the percentage of females being 41%. Only 2.5% of age 18 – 21 groups was enrolled in tertiary institutions in year 2001.

Generally, the percentage of BECE (Junior Secondary School) Certificate holders who actually gain admission to Senior Secondary Schools is around 40%. Most of the 40% vie for the few well-endowed schools resulting in over enrolment in such institutions, while the community-based schools are unable to attract students.

Factors Affecting Access and Participation

- ❖ *Inadequate facilities such as libraries, hostels, accommodation for staff, laboratories and classrooms, in the senior secondary schools, which could have absorbed the remaining 60%.*
- ❖ *Poverty, making it difficult for some parents to afford the barest minimum of fees*
- ❖ *Lack of alternative tracks for people with different interests and abilities to pursue them, and enter the world of work*
- ❖ *Inability to meet the minimum academic requirements for further education*
- ❖ *General lack of interest in further education.*

Some Strategies to Enhance Good Quality Secondary Education

For the education sector to achieve its development mandate, strategies need to be put in place to facilitate the process. Strategies that need to be considered include the following:

- ❖ Governments to commit more resources to education
- ❖ Communities to contribute more towards education
- ❖ Infusion of development-oriented skills into secondary education
- ❖ Incorporation of Indigenous Knowledge Systems
- ❖ Teaching with Information and Communication Technology
- ❖ Enhancing the holistic approach to secondary education
- ❖ Active collaboration between governments, communities, parents, teachers and students to enhance partnership for development
- ❖ Making Secondary Education Basic

Unit 3

Equity Issues Versus Resources for Secondary Education in Africa

As an effect of the large increase in primary school enrolment accomplished during the past twenty years, the pressure on secondary schooling has increased significantly. The increasing demand and increasing enrolment rates at secondary levels, combined with very limited resources in the sub-sector, has resulted in low investment per student and falling quality in secondary education.

Secondary schooling in African countries with low secondary enrolment is generally expensive. Although decreasing in recent years, large disparities still exist with respect to equity in secondary enrolment - boys are better off than girls, urban pupils better off than rural pupils, pupils from wealthier homes much better off than those from poorer homes (few children from outside the richest household quintile attend secondary school).

At present, many national education systems in Africa are expanding their objective of universal primary completion to include an objective of 9-10 years Education for All. A strong case for investing in this level includes e.g. strong impacts on fertility rates and HIV/AIDS incidence.

Achieving mass enrolment in secondary schooling will require revisiting the current financing and cost-recovery modalities, especially to ensure access to children from poorer households. An important consideration is the role of private financing and strategies of cost-recovery in a situation of expanding secondary education.

Activity 5

Secondary education has generally been neglected in education policy and practice in Africa. As a result, the quality of education offered in secondary schools across the continent have been generally low, with secondary education benefitting the better-off urban population and remaining largely inaccessible for rural people, with girls at a particular disadvantage.

As a communication expert, how would you communicate with your society and authorities in your country to convince them about this neglect that urgently needs rectification? Can you write a feature story to be published in a major international magazine such as The Economist on this issue? If so, please do so.

Activity 6

A large number of studies done recently on the subject of secondary education in Africa suggest that secondary education is associated with an acceleration of economic growth, can make a significant contribution to national economic performance, and has human capital threshold effects that can help attract foreign direct investment.

To what extent is this true for the situation in your country? Using your communication skills, what would you do to ensure that all children who complete primary school will have an opportunity to continue and complete secondary education?

Activity 7

It is said that secondary education policy is almost always controversial, being a technical problem with several political issues in it with winners and losers lobbying to protect their interests. Successful implementation requires political will and the readiness to make difficult decisions and sustain them over a longer period. It typically will involve efforts to build national support through consultations on policy options, effective communication strategies, transparency in decision making, and a willingness to consider evidence from and lessons of experience, even when that goes against preconceived ideas and conventional wisdom.

Can you analyze the national development vision that exists in your country, and which your government is currently promoting and link this with your current education development strategies? How do they connect with the economy, as well as issues related to nation building including building the moral values and national cohesion required to make a multiethnic society work?

Unit 4

Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Skills Development

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET), as a subset of secondary education, is in short supply in most African countries. It is estimated that only 6 per cent of secondary students are enrolled in TVET in Sub-Saharan Africa. Few African countries have developed comprehensive systems for TVET that encompass the many private and public, formal and non-formal schools. In many countries, the private sector and labour market organizations are not involved in the design of education systems and training programmes. Training is therefore often not demand driven, and the supply driven training programs in Africa have not had a convincing record. External support for TVET has, consequently, not been very successful, and has been declining for some years. Yet, the starting point for vocational training must be a situation of economic growth creating more jobs and thus demand for skills. This is indeed now the situation in many countries in Africa. TVET is, therefore, a promising and underutilized strategy to provide skills and opportunities for young people for better employment, in a situation where many African countries are facing a shortage of skilled workers. But, effective vocational training requires awareness of and responsiveness to the labour market.

There appears to be renewed interest and momentum in this area in many African countries and some donor agencies, e.g. the African Development Bank has decided to make TVET a focus area. The challenge, however, is how to provide relevant and cost-effective TVET integrated in national systems. African economies have a pronounced dual structure with formal and informal sectors of the economy. With the informal economy accounting for almost 90% of the working population, the education systems and the skills they produce must be designed taking this into account. The upper levels of current formal education systems are mostly directed towards the formal economy, and even if a reasonable level of relevance for this formal subset of the economy is achieved, it is of less relevance to the much larger informal labour market. There are, however, positive experiences in Africa with targeting vocational training specifically to rural areas and the key trades in these areas, e.g. agriculture, fishing, breeding and agro-industry, with a focus on improving agricultural productivity.

It is worth considering the distinction between vocational training and vocational preparation. As jobs and careers increasingly change over time, training for a very specific position may become less important, compared to vocational preparation that to a higher degree focuses on developing transferable skills. Increasingly, employers and employees place a high value on vocational preparation, more than vocational training, because of the inherent higher flexibility and value for future changing career tracks. This again raises the question of how to combine vocational

education with the general secondary education system, which can also have a vocational preparation focus. Practical aspects to consider may include to what degree to co-locate vocational training and education with secondary schools, considering at the same time the need to ensure labour market relevance and implications for locating vocation training closer to the employment setting, i.e. normally outside of schools. Another key point to keep in mind is the almost prohibitive cost of maintaining and upgrading equipment of vocational schools, contributing to the high cost per student in vocational training – any large scale sustainable solution must address this issue. So how might a more demand driven vocational training strategy be designed?

In formal technical and vocational education it has consistently been shown that private financing - whether coming from firms, users or employer organizations - can contribute to improved definition of training content and curriculum, reducing training costs, and ensuring better entry and integration of trainees in working life. The modality of this participation will be different from country to country, but all countries should give serious consideration to how to best involve the private sector in skills development relevant to the national economy. Another likely component of such a strategy is an emphasis on comprehensive quality secondary education, and how this could contribute to vocational preparation. A promising alternative pathway of vocational training is the apprenticeship modality. By definition apprenticeship training takes place in active collaboration with the professional world, and the private sector participation and relevance for the labour market is high. This type of training is generally quite cost-effective and flexible.

The role of the government in this context is more often one of providing technical support, quality control and grant incentives (financing) rather than as a traditional service provider. There is a challenge in making this non-formal pathway of vocational training an integral part of education systems and a socially acceptable alternative in the regulation of student flows in the formal education system. Increased use of alternative paths of training, including apprenticeship modalities, could usefully be considered as a means of expanding technical training enrolment geared to the labor market. It will be key to consider the role of education systems and governments in expanding apprenticeship programs, especially with regard to providing incentives and financing to support training investments (or partly offsetting costs) of employers and apprentices. With an objective of mass enrolment, this is also a cost-effective alternative to expensive formal TVET with relatively limited enrolment.

Activity 8

Education development will need to be part and parcel of national development strategies. In situations in which education progresses on a separate path, it will rapidly become irrelevant and be considered an item of privately or publicly

funded consumption, rather than an essential investment in economic and social progress. As a communicator and observer of the education system in your country, would you consider linking education in your country very strongly with and preparation for the world of work through vocational preparation modules in general secondary schools or occupation specific training in TVET institutions? If so, how? If not, why not?

Activity 9

Vocational training is often considered a trigger for economic growth and a way to reduce youth unemployment. In fact, there is scant evidence that it does either of these. But in countries with strong economic growth, vocational training has played an important role in preparing a workforce that supports a rapidly growing modern industrial sector. Write a feature story for publication in your local daily newspaper that depicts the merits and demerits of vocational training for youths in your country in promoting or not promoting economic and social development.

Activity 10

How can TVET be funded in your country, while ensuring adherence to principles of equity and cost-effectiveness?

Conclusion

This module has focused on the role and the challenges confronting secondary education. It has also briefly outlined suggestions of strategies that could be used to ensure and assure the delivery of good quality secondary education. It is expected that media practitioners would be motivated to give coverage to the secondary education sector.

Supporting Materials

- ❖ Secondary Education Annual Reports
- ❖ Reports/Communiqués national, regional, and international conferences on secondary education

❖ Treaties/Conventions

❖ Research Findings

References

1. Adriaan M. Verspoor with the SEIA Team, *At the Crossroads : Choices for Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*, Africa Human Development Series, The World Bank, Washington DC, 2008
2. Duncan-Anadusa, I. 'The Challenges in Secondary Education in Africa and the Role of Development Agencies, NGOs and Teacher Unions'. September 14, 2006; Oslo.
3. Grant, S (ed.). *Sheila Bagnall's Letters from Botswana - Letters from Swaneng: 1966 – 1974*. Leitlho Publications: 2001.
4. 'How Many Children in Africa Reach Secondary Education? UNESCO Fact Sheet; January 2006, No. 1,
5. <http://web.worldbank.org>
6. Raja, B & Burnett, N (2004). *User Fees in Primary Education*. Washington, DC. World Bank.
7. National Development Plan 1964 –1969. Nairobi, Kenya. Government Printers.
8. *Expanding Opportunities and Building Competencies for Young People: A New Agenda for Secondary Education*. The World Bank.
9. Ward, J C. 'Education and Rural Development: a Discussion of Experiments in Botswana'. *The Journal of Modern African Studies* (1972). 10: 611 – 620. Cambridge University Press, 1972.
10. Keith M. Lewin, *Seeking Secondary Schooling in Sub-Saharan Africa: Strategies for Sustainable financing*, the World Bank, 2006.

Module 7

Education of Adolescents

Overview

Adolescence is a transitional period from childhood to adulthood. According to CL Kundu et al (1998) this period is the most crucial period in the life of human beings, as at this time the surge of life reaches its highest peak, a time of great hope. It follows that education at this stage would play a very critical role in the adolescent. The type of education for adolescent could be formal, informal and non formal. What is critical, is that the type of education that the adolescent receives needs to respond to their interests to enable them develop their full potential.

General Objective

To enable user understand educational issues that affect adolescents

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of module are to enable the user to:

- ❖ Define the term “adolescent”
- ❖ Describe in own words general and psychological characteristics of adolescents
- ❖ Articulate different forms of education adolescents are exposed to
- ❖ Analyse relevance of education curricular for Adolescents to Africa needs
- ❖ Identify issues related to youth participation

Expected Outcome

The user by the end of module would have sufficient knowledge about the education of adolescents.

Introduction

This module is divided into four units. Unit 1 looks at concepts and issues of the adolescents. It defines adolescents and describes the characteristics of adolescents, and an overview of risks adolescents encounter. Unit 2 examines education of adolescents. Specifically it focuses on types of education for adolescents. It also deals with mentoring and role modelling. Unit 3 deals with relevance of curricula to the African context and it also tackles issues of maturation management. Lastly Unit 4 handles issues of youth participation and out of school youth.



An adolescent trying to understand a point raised by the teacher in Nairobi, Kenya

Unit 1

Understanding Adolescence

a. Definition of Adolescence

Wikipedia defines adolescence as a transitional stage of physical and mental human development that occurs between childhood and adulthood. This transition involves biological, social, and psychological changes. Adolescence age bracket ranges from 13 to 19 years, which is the age of young people. An adolescent is therefore an individual who is at this stage of growth. This age group is very experimental and encounters various risks in different environments. They are targeted for violence, abuse and exploitation. Regardless of these evident vulnerabilities, the adolescent age group requires attention and assistance to help them through formal, informal and non-formal education so that they become useful citizens.

b. Characteristics of Adolescents

Adolescence is largely a period of physical and psychological and social transformation. The adolescent is associated with growth, radical spirit and conservatism, as well as flexibility and rigidity. Traits associated with adolescent include courage, aggressiveness, exuberance, cooperation, and feeling of friendship.

Kundu et al (1998) have noted that psychologically, adolescents display the following characteristics:

- ❖ They are keenly aware of the problem of morality
- ❖ They are ambitious
- ❖ They are not easily amenable to discipline, authority and strictures
- ❖ They favour freedom and democratic life
- ❖ They like permissive atmosphere
- ❖ They want parents and teachers to be lenient towards them
- ❖ They tend to be rebellious by nature

By their nature adolescents could be said to have different talents and abilities, and have the determination to contribute towards the improvement of the conditions of their life at home, in school and in their community. Adolescents face many risks and are mostly targeted for violence, abuse and exploitation. This is the group that is mostly often recruited by armed forces or groups for use as child soldiers, and they are mostly trafficked for exploitative labour or commercial sex, sexual violence and run a high risk of HIV/ AIDS infection.

Adolescents are in majority in most African countries and are a source of human resource for the current development agenda and the future generation. Adolescents can contribute towards development of Africa if properly cared for. It is important that African governments put much effort to build their skills, competencies and protect this age group which is the nation today and the future African generation.

Against this background, the education system needs to be consistent with the needs of adolescents. These needs should include those regarding their physical, mental, psychological and social growth.

Activity 1

1. In your own words define the term adolescent.
2. What are some of the risks which you have observed regarding adolescents in your country?
3. Analyse different programs available to sort such risks identified in question

Unit 2

Education of Adolescents

Education is critical for the life of young people and more especially the adolescents. Actually it is a key EFA goal (no 3) for countries to ensure that by 2015 the learning

needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes (2000 Dakar EFA Framework of Action). Critical learning needs for the adolescents include HIV/AIDS, human rights and democracy and skills development as they continue adversely affecting young people. In this unit we look at the type of education relevant for adolescent, and focus on sexual maturation for adolescents.

a. Types of Education relevant for Adolescents

There are three types of education that could be provided to adolescents. These are formal, non formal, and informal education. These types of education are described below.

Formal Education: Formal Education is provided in formal education institutions, and for adolescents this is available in both primary and secondary education. For more information on primary and secondary education refer to Section 2 Modules 5 and 6.

Non Formal Education: Besides the formal education system, adolescent go through informal and non formal types of education which provide the alternative education to address specific learning needs that cannot be addressed in a formal education system. The fact that formal schools do not offer complete education is reinforced by one George Santayana, who is quoted as having said: “A child educated only at school is an uneducated child” (Tim Brighouse and David Woods, 2006, page 15).

Adolescents undergo **non formal education to** meet specific learning needs such as agricultural extension, skill training, health and family planning education among others. They are involved in workshops, community courses, interest based courses, short courses, or conference style seminars all these tackling issues that affect them.

Informal education: This type of education is also greatly contributing towards educating adolescents in African cycles. Besides formal and non formal education, adolescents also learn things on their own, from parents and from youth social groups such as youth clubs and youth associations. One technique of informal education is through folk tales. Folk tales have been there for ages and have been used to educate adolescents in many issues and help to mode their moral understanding and judgments.

b. Sexual maturation management

Sexual maturation management is one critical area that the adolescents need to learn so as to ensure that they properly manage their growth. This education is attained through informal education by their parents and peers. It is critical to provide such learning to both boys and girls but more particularly girls because of the different biological developments that take place in their bodies which require extra care.

Activity 2

Make a comprehensive presentation on how non-formal and informal education has been of help in educating adolescents in African Countries and compare the different forms of informal learning opportunities available

Unit 3

Relevance of curricula for Adolescents in Africa

Having addressed the type of education for adolescents in unit 2, it is important to turn to the content of curriculum. Education system in most of African countries is adopted from colonial education system. Although some countries have tried to review their education system to respond the current social economical and political environment, most of them are still using the colonial education system. This situation makes education curriculum irrelevant for the youth and development agenda for the African continent.

There is need to call for review of the curriculum for most of African governments to respond to the current needs of African countries and the continent as a whole with focus on the adolescents. This is because the continent is challenged by various issues such as HIV/AIDS, conflicts, demand for improved skills and human rights issues among others which need to be addressed by the education curricular that is developed to respond to such issues. There is need to have curriculum which will respond to needed contemporary competencies and to the current social political situation to develop African nations.

Key Content Issues

The following are some of the key content issues that need to be included in the curriculum to be relevant to the adolescents:

- ❖ Growth and development
- ❖ Rights and responsibilities

- ❖ Sex education
- ❖ Life skills
- ❖ Sports
- ❖ Vocational education or career guidance
- ❖ Religious education
- ❖ Debates
- ❖ Language use
- ❖ Etc

Case Study

Malawi started the review of her education curriculum for the primary education to start responding to the contemporary issues affecting Malawi. The review popularly known as (Primary Curriculum and Assessment Reforms (PCAR) started in the late 1990s and was concluded in 2001 but the implementation started in 2007. The review process took on board different key stakeholders including Civil Society Organizations through Civil Society Coalition for Quality Basic Education (CSCQBE) which is a nation education network with a wide membership. The new curriculum includes new topics/ issues such, life skills, human rights, HIV/AIDS and social and development studies. Meanwhile there is wide call for the review of Secondary Education Curriculum so that is in conformity with the primary curriculum.

Activity 3

Come with a critique of curriculum in your country and give historical background and highlight main gaps

Unit 4

Youth Participation

Participation should be key aim of education for adolescents. Norman Cousins refers to this when he is quoted as saying that *“Education fails unless the three R’s at the end of the school spectrum lead ultimately to four P’s at the other-Preparation for Earning, Preparation for Living, Preparation for Understanding, and Preparation for Participation in the problems involved in the making of a better world”* (J. Maurus, 1987: 88).

Wikipedia defines **Youth participation** as the active engagement of young people in responsible, challenging action(s) that meet (s) genuine needs, with opportunities for planning and/or decision-making whose impact or consequence affects them and

their communities. Youth participation remains key to youth development and youth empowerment. The youth face a lot of challenges including HIV/AIDS, unemployment, underemployment, lack of skills, inadequate access to learning facilities, abuse and exploitation. One essential element, in order for youth/adolescents participation to succeed, is recognition of their ability to contribute to family, school and community life. The positive role that adolescents can play needs to be reinforced.

Currently both in and out of school youths and adolescents are participating in quite many initiatives that contribute towards their own personal growth and community development. In most countries the youth have massively contributed to the fight against HIV/AIDS, food security programs and, human rights and democracy consolidation among others. Out-of-school youth are a vulnerable population with complex needs. Out-of-school youth are defined as youth aged 16 to 24 who are not in school and who are unemployed, underemployed, or lacking basic skills and in need of these skills for their survival. Efforts for addressing the unmet needs of adolescents must be holistic in approach as is a human rights-based approach. The human rights-based approach will address the adolescent rights within the broader cultural, economic and political context, and so support young people's engagement.

Though there is empirical evidence that there is need to enhance positive youth participation, in some African governments youth participation still remains cosmetic as the youth are represented by adults who claim to be youth at heart. School-based Youth Clubs, community youth clubs, youth lead organization and youth service organization are some of the structures that provide avenues for youth participation.

Case Study

Youth participation in peace making

Let's make peace a fashion

The youth in Albania, Kosovo, Macedonia, Serbia and Slovenia have been working together to overcome ethnic barriers – to 'say no to barriers' among young people. Since TVSH broadcasts in neighboring countries, and occasionally in Western Europe by satellite, there has been feedback across national borders. In 2002 one of the young reporters conceived of a project for Troç to visit nearby countries to discuss how to bring young people together. Called 'Let's Make Peace a Fashion', the show sent two young reporters to Kosovo and Macedonia, where they met with their peers and discussed ways to resolve their problems and overcome together the bitterness of the ethnic conflict. UNICEF provided funding for the services of an international producer to accompany the Troç reporters on their one-week tour and prepare a documentary about it. Troç produced and aired an episode about the tour, and provided input during the preparation of the documentary.

(Source: UNICEF-Adolescent Programming Experience During Conflict and post conflict Page 18)

Activity 4

Learning from the Case study above, prepare analytical presentation /paper /feature on youth participation in your country. Include key areas where young people are participation and not participating.

Conclusion

In this module we have looked at education for the adolescents. We have further looked at insights of critical issues concerning education for the adolescent, challenges and risks facing the adolescents as well as youth participation issues. Both in and youth of school youth are faced with challenges that need to be addressed by our governments and non formal education system.

References

1. *C.L. Kundu and DN Tutoo, 1998, Educational Psychology, Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Delhi, India,*
2. David Acker, Lavinia Gasperine, 2009, Education for Rural People, FAO, Rome, Italy.
3. J. Maurus, 1987, A Source Book of Inspiration, St Paul Press Training School, Bandra, Mumbai
4. *J.S. Farrant, Principles of Education pg 18*
5. *Ndangwa Noyoo, 2008, Social Policy and Human development in Zambia, Musumali Press, Lusaka, Zambia.*
6. *S.K. Kochhar, 2006, Educational and Vocational Guidance in Secondary Schools, Sterling Publishers Private Limited, New Dehli, India.*
7. *Tim Brighouse & David Woods, 2006, Inspirations: A Collection of Commentaries to promote School Improvement, Ashford Colour Press Ltd, Gosport*
8. *UNICEF-Adolescent Programming Experience During Conflict and post conflict*
9. *Lawalley Cole. Information on Adolescent Education in Burundi. UNICEF. 2002*

Web References

1. <http://www.census.gov.ph/data/technotes/noteflemms94.html>
2. www.wikipedia.org

Module 8

Tertiary Education

Overview

Tertiary education, also called higher, third stage, or post secondary education, is the non-compulsory educational level that follows the completion of a school providing a secondary education, such as a high school. Tertiary education is normally taken to include undergraduate and postgraduate education, as well as vocational education and training. Colleges and universities are the main institutions that provide tertiary education. Collectively, these are sometimes known as tertiary institutions. Tertiary education generally results in the receipt of certificates, diplomas, or academic degrees.

Tertiary education includes teaching, research and social services activities of universities, and within the realm of teaching, it includes both the undergraduate level and the graduate or postgraduate level. Higher education generally involves work towards a degree-level. In most developed countries a high proportion of the population (up to 50%) now enters higher education at some time in their lives. Higher education is therefore very important to national economies, both as a significant industry in its own right, and as a source of trained and educated personnel for the rest of the economy.

Tertiary education is essential for the future development of the African continent. The continent needs highly trained human resources as well as top quality research in order to be able to formulate and implement policies, plans and programmes for economic growth and social development. Universities on the African continent have a central role to play in preparing individuals for mainstream positions of responsibility in all undertakings in government, business and the professions and supporting these professionals in their work with research, advice and consultancies.

General Objective

This module will assist journalists and media practitioners to appreciate the paramount importance of higher education for Africa's future and to communicate in a most effective manner the role and contribution of tertiary education in the social and economic development of a nation.

Specific Objectives

The user will be enabled to:

- ❖ identify, assess, and monitor strategies put in place to ensure and assure good quality tertiary education
- ❖ discuss issues on financing tertiary education
- ❖ discuss issues related to quality assurance, performance, relevance, accessibility and sustainability

Expected Outcome

The user will be better able to appreciate, articulate and disseminate relevant information on the status of higher education in African countries to the extent that the urgent need for institutions of higher learning in Africa to produce quality graduates with the relevant type qualifications to tackle the continent's complex problems will be better recognized.

Introduction

Africa has witnessed a remarkable growth in the number of tertiary institutions during the last fifty years following independence in individual states. Thirty years ago several universities in African countries could be considered as elitist with high academic standards that were equal to the best tertiary level institutions in the developing world. However since the mid 1980s, neglect, inadequate funding, weak governance and a massive expansion of the student body, has resulted in these institutions experiencing a severe diminution of their teaching and learning capacities and deterioration of their physical facilities and infrastructure. In addition, the quality of graduates at all levels has declined and even the leading universities no longer engage in much research. Moreover, research-based linkages with the business sector are very meager in almost every country. In general, this trend still continues and no country in Africa can convincingly claim to put its tertiary education on a sound financial and institutional footing for long-term development. Unlike thirty years ago, no university from sub-Saharan Africa is represented in the ranks of the top 200 universities in the world, according to the World Bank.

In this module, we analyse the situation with higher education in Africa which has been declining over the past three decades for several reasons. Unit 1 examines the current situation with higher education in Africa and how this is affecting the continent's development prospects. Unit 2 explores the current trends in higher education in Africa focusing on the challenges for quality and equity. Unit 3 looks at some of the solutions that are now being put in place to remedy the situation and to ensure that higher education contributes effectively as a driver for sustainable development on the continent.

Unit 1

The Current Situation

From the time that African nations were gaining their independence in the 1960s, tertiary education has not been given its due consideration in the development debate. It was rather considered mostly by donors to be a case of regressive income transfers benefitting elites in developing countries. While the returns to investment in basic education are visible and measurable, the returns to higher education are more obscure and difficult to measure. Combined with the children's right to education, the notion of high returns to basic education prompted a strong external pressure for, and support to, investments in formal primary education in developing countries at the expense of other levels of educational provision. It is now being realized that the social benefits of higher education and research have been underestimated.

Tertiary education is critical in shaping the overall capacity of a modern society. It builds the human capital that in turn constitutes the layer of an educated middle class. It is indispensable to carry out indigenous research that generates knowledge relevant to a country or a region. Its value lies in building domestic capabilities, for which external technical assistance is at best a costly and imperfect substitute. What distinguishes tertiary education across the world is its attention to knowledge generation, to critique, to innovation, and to investments and benefits over a very long term. Those are development necessities, not luxuries, and they need to be nurtured by creating and supporting stable and academically free research environments.

Tertiary enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa are the lowest in world. The higher education gross enrolment ratio (GER) in the region grew from just 1 % in 1965 to a meagre 5 % in 2006, which was the level of enrolment achieved by other developing countries in the late 1960s. African universities witnessed a significant increase in student enrolment in the past two and a half decades. Between 1985 and 2002 the number of tertiary students in sub-Saharan Africa rose from 0.8 million to about 3 million. This is a big contrast to the insignificant enrolment rates in the 1960s and 1970s.

Today, Africa's stock of human capital with secondary- and tertiary –level skills is comparatively small, and its quality is highly variable. In addition, the proportion of students studying abroad compared with those studying at home is 6 %, which makes it the highest in the world. The accumulation of skills in some countries is hindered by mortality arising from infectious diseases and by emigration of many of the most talented. UNCTAD estimates that 30 % of African university trained professionals live outside the region. The extent of this flight of human capital, otherwise known as the “brain drain” is quite staggering. According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the International Organization for Migration, an estimated 27,000 skilled Africans left the continent for industrialized countries between 1960 and 1975. During the period 1975 to 1984, the figure rose to 40,000. Since 1990, at

least 20,000 qualified people - skilled professionals, scientists, academics and researchers - have left Africa every year.

Only by raising the rate of investment in human capital can Africa reach and sustain the level of economic performance it needs to generate adequate employment for its expanding populations, achieve the Millennium Development Goals targets, and narrow the economic gap between the continent and other regions. For the above reasons and in the light of recent trends in technology, continuing to neglect tertiary education could seriously jeopardize Africa's longer-term growth prospects, and slow progress toward the MDGs, many of which require tertiary-level training to implement. While affirming the continuing importance of primary and secondary education – which shape labour force productivity and are the stepping stones to quality higher education, Africans do need to consider the innovations needed to build tertiary education systems equal to the global economic challenges they face.

Problems related to higher education provision comprise heavy political influence, overcrowding and under-funding. Public budget constraints combined with the relative high costs of tertiary education exacerbated by heavy enrolment pressure has led African governments to accept a significant privatization of higher education. While most of the private tertiary institutions were established in the 1990s in response to the inability of public institutions to respond to increasing student demand, by 2005 the proportion of private university provision was one third of the approximately 300 universities in Africa. While public universities for decades have focused on the production of civil servants from a small elite population, private universities have been accused of specialising in inexpensive fields of study, which are high in demand, but yielding little to overall development. It is noteworthy that agriculture, the productivity of which is vital for improving living standards in almost any poor country, has largely been ignored in Africa.

African higher education continues to face several challenges. Large scale expansion is happening under severe budget limitations. Privatisation, efficiency measures and cost sharing combined with loan schemes are the most common responses. While the unit costs of producing candidates from various academic fields vary, the available budget provisions almost invariably fall short of demand resulting in inferior quality output. Common responses are prioritisation of some fields of study; diversification of resource mobilisation, and efficiency measures. Quota systems, loan schemes and scholarships have been successfully applied to ensure the equitable provision of higher education in order not to exclude meritorious students from disadvantaged groups.

African universities continue to be vulnerable to brain drain. However there are promising responses that include encouraging vibrant local academic environments and promoting scholarly networks at home. Support to tertiary education in Africa has been largely ignored by donors, partially by reference to the critical needs in basic

education but also for reasons of perceived regressive, irrelevant and inefficient higher education systems. Should this negligence continue to inadvertently delay the growth and development of the continent? African governments must now look for a reasonable balance between various levels of education in order to develop sustainable and internally coherent national education systems. In this context, setting strategic goals and managing student flows and transition between educational levels is vital in a national development framework. It should also be a condition for effective resource allocation within the sector.

Activity 1

Make a brief presentation of the planning process and the application of a strategy or a communication programme to ensure that institutions of higher education in developed countries will have a social responsibility to help bridge the development gap by increasing the transfer of knowledge across borders, especially towards developing countries, and working to find common solutions to foster brain circulation and alleviate the negative impact of brain drain using transparencies. This will include an analysis of the current situation or a run down, defining a strategy; how to come up with an operation mode of the strategy; execution of the strategy; follow-up and evaluation.

Activity 2

The 2009 World Conference on Higher education held at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris gave special focus to the challenges and opportunities for the revitalization of higher education in Africa – an important tool for the development of the continent. This conference underscored the critical need to confront emerging challenges relating to gender and racial inequality, academic freedom, brain drain and the lack of graduates' preparedness for the labour market. It also underlined new dynamics in African higher education that work towards a comprehensive transformation to sharply enhance its relevance and responsiveness to the political, social and economic realities of African countries. This new momentum can provide a trajectory in the fight against underdevelopment and poverty in Africa. This will demand greater attention to higher education and research than has been given for the last eleven years. Higher education in Africa should foster good governance based on robust accountability and sound financial principles.

Through a question and answer session to sort out the differences and links between policies, programmes, strategies and communication campaigns related to the above, participants are called upon to express their opinions on the process (clear message, simplicity, operational character, ...) The trainer then

ends by stressing the plurality of actors or on the need to bear in mind several requirements : coordination, cooperation, participation, feedback, and credibility to promote higher education in Africa.

Activity 3

Education remains a public good, but private financing should be encouraged in Africa. While every effort must be made to increase public funding of higher education, it must be recognized that public funds are limited and may not be sufficient for such a rapidly developing sector on the continent. Other formulae and sources of funding, especially those drawing on the public-private partnership model, should be found.

Do you agree with this? In what way can journalists and the media contribute towards achieving this?

Unit 2

Access, Equity and Quality

The African Union has a vision of an integrated, peaceful, prosperous Africa, driven by its own people to take its rightful place in the global community and the knowledge economy. This vision is predicated on the development of Africa's human resources. Education is the major means by which Africa's citizenry would be prepared for its key role in the attainment of this vision. According to the Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006- 2015) Plan of Action, ministers of education of the African Union, observed that, Africa entered the Millennium with severe education challenges at every level. To cope with these challenges, Conferences of Ministers of Education have continued to reiterate the need to increase access to education, improve quality and relevance, and ensure equity.

Access and Equity Issues

While African countries experienced exponential growth in higher education enrolments at post-independence, there was no commensurate increase in public funding, largely for reasons to do with donor priorities and conditions. Expenditure on higher education was skewed towards recurrent costs, rather than investment in infrastructure, research and staff development.

Inability to augment infrastructure and resources ultimately reinforced social exclusion in higher education (especially for the poor, the educationally disadvantaged, and women), as access was constricted or distorted by competitive admission policies,

and the admission of privately-sponsored and foreign students. Efforts have been made by institutions in recent years towards redress and equity in higher education access and success (e.g. means-tested scholarships, alternative admissions tests or criteria, and academic development/remedial support programmes). Yet these are in need of much consolidation and must be further bolstered by improving access and quality in primary and secondary education ‘feeding’ the tertiary level, (ADEA Higher Education Working Group, *June 2006 Johannesburg, South Africa*).

Steps for promoting access and equity

- ❖ It is of critical importance to increase and broaden equitable student access to higher education, with the appropriate financial support to students from poor and marginalized communities.
- ❖ African countries should also be able to provide a diverse range of higher education institutions such as research-intensive universities, undergraduate universities, polytechnics, teacher-training colleges, rural institutions.
- ❖ Encourage study of science and technology through scholarships and other incentives.
- ❖ Encourage private sector participation in the provision of private institutions while assuring quality of such provisions.
- ❖ Establish appropriate regulatory mechanisms for cross-border provision of higher education.
- ❖ Encourage the delivery of higher education through Open and Distance Learning and Virtual Universities with appropriate quality assurance mechanisms in place.

Quality Issues

Africa has witnessed a remarkable growth in the number of tertiary institutions during the last fifty years following independence in individual states. Thirty years ago several universities in African countries could be considered as elitist with high academic standards that were equal to the best tertiary level institutions in the developing world. However since the mid 1980s, neglect, inadequate funding, weak governance and a massive expansion of the student body, has resulted in these institutions experiencing a severe diminution of their teaching and learning capacities and deterioration of their physical facilities and infrastructure. In addition, the quality of graduates at all levels has declined and even the leading universities no longer engage in much research. Moreover, research-based linkages with the business sector are very meager in almost every country. In general, this trend still continues and no country in Africa can

convincingly claim to put its tertiary education on a sound financial and institutional footing for long-term development. Unlike thirty years ago, no university from Sub-Saharan Africa is represented in the ranks of the top 200 universities in the world, according to the World Bank.

During the past decade, almost all countries have launched major efforts to ensure that all children will have an opportunity to complete primary education of acceptable quality. Concurrently accelerating economic growth and social change are creating an urgent prerequisite to expand access to further learning in order to strengthen the human resource base on the continent. Sustained growth and development in Africa requires rapid strengthening of the human capital base. Immediate priorities for this strengthening involve improvements in the quality of primary education, increases in primary completion rates, and expansion of access to secondary education. According to the World Bank, GDP growth in Sub-Saharan Africa has accelerated to over 6.0 per cent on average during 2002-2007. This is very good but Africa will need a significant increase in investment in physical and human capital over an extended period if this flow is to evolve into a virtuous spiral that stimulates even higher – and sustained – growth rates on the continent. African countries need to urgently acquire the capabilities that will spawn new industries that create more productive jobs, multiple linkages, and more diversified exports. These capabilities will derive from investment in physical assets, such as infrastructure and productive facilities, as well as in institutions and in human capital.

According to the ADEA Working Group on Higher Education in Africa, quality in higher education is multidimensional, and challenges to its achievement in contemporary African institutions are similarly complex and often systemic. The group outlined the challenges which include: poorly conceptualised curricula that equate relevance and required outcomes with market responsiveness, rather than with broader social and developmental needs.

There are also outdated curricula and teaching and learning methods; limited number and capacity of postgraduate programmes; poor articulation across academic programmes and qualifications; inadequate infrastructural development and academic support services; inadequate numbers of well-qualified academic staff who are further preoccupied by part-time teaching and consultancy, and deflected from research.

Traditional public sector tertiary institutions have not managed the expansion of enrolments in ways that preserve educational quality and provide sustainability in financing. This is a major obstacle for African nations seeking to join the knowledge economy. Arguably, private universities, technical institutes, nonresident community colleges, and distance learning programs could offer financially viable avenues for continued enrolment expansion while public institutions take time to consolidate and concentrate on improving quality, research capabilities, and graduate programs.

Activity 4

Using your newly acquired journalistic skills, outline the new for challenges for “quality” and “equity in tertiary education in your country in a feature story to be published or broadcast in your local media.

Activity 5

Discuss in a group with your facilitator how you think higher education can contribute to the development of the education system as a whole

Activity 6

What are the most significant trends that will shape the new higher education and research spaces in your country?

Unit 3

Solutions - What needs to be done?

A more knowledge-intensive approach to development is emerging as an attractive option for many African countries. This can possibly be the only route that could permit sustained, outward-oriented development. Though social and political demands press for expansion of public tertiary enrolments, these must be balanced against the need to increase the relevance of education and research, and by encouraging the production of the technical skills and applied research capabilities that will promote competitive industries. Too rapid an increase in enrolments, as has happened in the recent past, has eroded quality and is undermining the contribution of tertiary education to growth.

There is need to ensure the provision of sufficient teachers to meet the demands of education systems and to ensure that all teachers are adequately qualified and possess the relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes to teach effectively. Teachers should also be properly supported and adequately remunerated, to ensure high levels of motivation. It is in that premise that proper financing and funding of tertiary institution is a catalyst to achieving quality education. The private sector in Africa which uses much of the talents of beneficiaries of higher education on the continent should play a part in financing tertiary institutions.

There are other cost-cutting, cost-sharing and revenue-generating issues that need to be addressed at the institutional level, as well as other associated concerns, among

them: increased economic hardship of students; decline in quality as expanding enrolments have outstripped infrastructural development; over-commercialisation of academic programmes; and reduction in faculty time for research (see module 38 on financing).

Good governance, management and financing of tertiary institution are critical in the delivery of quality education. Tertiary institutions where there are unclear governance and management systems have undermined efforts to deliver quality tertiary education to learners. Such institutions have been affected by: students-demonstrations, mismanagement of funds, exodus of teachers, poor results and, low moral. All these are signs of bad governance and management of tertiary institutions.

Quality and relevance of higher education must be addressed by overarching regional and national policy frameworks and strategies that address, for example: (a) quality assurance and quality management; (b) programme accreditation and systems of credit transfer, (c) curriculum reform, (d) centres of excellence, (e) inter-institutional partnerships for research, graduate study and staff development, and (f) systems for data collection, analysis and dissemination, and benchmarking.

The Dakar Regional Conference on Higher Education Africa recommended that:

- ❖ All countries without national quality assurance mechanisms or agencies should put these in place without delay
- ❖ Strengthen institutional and human capacity for quality assurance at the national, sub-regional and regional levels.
- ❖ Strengthen the external examiner system and encourage regional and sub-regional peer reviews.

It is therefore, imperative for Communication officers in Ministries of Education, journalists and media practitioners to comprehend the issues raised above and examine whether African countries, especially in their own countries if efforts are being made to meet the commitments set by Africans on higher education. As they execute their duties they need to interrogate such issues and be able to give in-depth reporting and analysis of tertiary education issues.

The involvement and participation of the private sector in tertiary education development

The private sector relays on qualified personnel for it to deliver positive result to enhance economic growth. In most African countries, it absorbs a huge number of

highly skilled and competent personnel more than governments. It therefore, makes business sense for companies and governments companies to plough back on tertiary education through funding learners in a form of scholarships, building of schools and financing of tertiary institutions through subventions as part of their corporate social responsibility.

It is not only the duty of governments to provide funding and financing for universities, colleges and technical colleges etc. The private sector should take a leading role just like missionaries did in the 19th century as they recognized the need for an educated nation when they built and funded schools, colleges and universities for the education of the African child.

Commitment expected of journalists

Education Communications Officers, journalists and media practitioners have a duty to ensure that governments put in place systems and procedures that will enable the African child to have equitable access to higher education. Governments should have policies and legislative frameworks such as national constitutions that will entrench equitable access to not only basic education, but also tertiary education. In achieving this, focus should also be put to learners with special needs such as people living with disabilities and the girl child. Access to basic education is not enough. There is need for African countries to put in place measures to not only access basic education, but also commitment to higher education. For instance, it is not sufficient to enroll a child to higher primary school and not commit to higher secondary school and further to college or university.

Journalists and media practitioners need to hold governments accountable to their commitments to providing education for all. As they say an uneducated mind is a dangerous mind. African cannot afford to have citizens who will have the dependency syndrome. African should be able empowered through quality higher education that will position them to be self reliant and be able to create employment than being job seekers, serving colonial masters.

Journalists and communication officers need to also put to the fore the plight of children coming from impoverished backgrounds, for instance, orphaned and vulnerable children. There is need to ensure that such children also access quality higher education, just like other children coming from families with both parents who can afford to provide decent meal and shelter for their children.

Communication officers in Ministries of Education, journalists and media practitioners need to understand that:

- ❖ With current levels of expenditure, Africa cannot, even with all the best of intentions, aspire to be globally competitive. National commitment should be made to higher education through adequate budgetary allocation.
- ❖ African governments should allocate more resources to education in accordance with the spirit and letter of the Algiers declaration and allocate at least 20% of the education budget to higher education.
- ❖ Encourage cost-sharing or cost-recovery in higher education and the diversification of funding sources.
- ❖ Funds should be provided for improving infrastructure and services, including quality of life of students

Activity 7

To what extent is higher education today a driver for sustainable development in the national and international context?

Activity 8

Does the sector live up to the expectations placed in it to induce change and progress in society and to act as one of the key factors for building knowledge-based societies?

Activity 9

What single advice would you give for the revitalization of higher education in Africa considering any one of these broad sub-themes: (a) Internationalization, regionalization and globalization, (b) Equity, access and quality, (c) Learning, research and innovation.

Recommendations made at the Regional Conference on Higher Education in Africa, held in Dakar, Senegal in November 2008 to enhance efficiency in tertiary education

- ❖ Higher education institutions should be supported to serve the priorities and needs of Africa's development through socio-culturally relevant curriculum and curriculum delivery.

- ❖ National development plans should match graduate output with national human resource needs in order to minimize graduate unemployment.
- ❖ Entrepreneurial skills should be part of higher education training to prepare graduates for the world of work.
- ❖ African indigenous knowledge should be part of the higher education delivery processes and this knowledge should be disseminated widely.
- ❖ All teachers in higher education should be given training in pedagogical skills to enhance efficiency of curriculum delivery.
- ❖ Ensure that values of peace, conflict prevention and resolution as well as the right attitudes, behaviors and ethics are inculcated in students and staff.
- ❖ Build credible statistical databases for evidence-based decision making and planning.
- ❖ Foster a culture of use of ICT for teaching, learning and management.

CASE STUDIES on Swaziland

CASE Study 1

The Times Sunday dated October 4, 2009, reported glaring facts which put to question the quality of education being offered by tertiary institutions in Swaziland. The newspaper reported that there about 90 000 jobless people in Swaziland. “This means that for every 100 economically active persons, there were about 28 persons who were unemployed in 2007, up from 74 676 in 1995”. This is according to a new Labor Force Analytical Report called the Swaziland Integrated Labor Force Survey, 2007- 2008. There are 222 771 people in the gainful employment in Swaziland and these are the workers who pay tax.

These facts put to question issues of quality assurance and relevance of the education system in Swaziland considering the 222 771 people in gainful employment and the about 90 000 unemployed women and men in a country with about 1.2 million people. The 2007/ 2008 unemployment rate in Swaziland stands at 28.2 percent, in a working age population of 599 528 people.

The Labor Force Analytical Report says, there are 899 people with diplomas in Swaziland who are looking for jobs and 642 with degrees and 452 people are in possession of other type of training. These facts put to question the quality of education being offered by tertiary institutions in Swaziland. If a total of 1 993 are struggling not only to find jobs, but create jobs; that is sufficient message to call for a speedy evaluation of the curriculum being offered by institutions of Higher education, not only in Swaziland, but in Africa as a whole.

CASE Study 2

The Times Sunday dated October 4, 2009, reported glaring facts which put to question the quality of education being offered by tertiary institutions in Swaziland. The newspaper reported that there about 90 000 jobless people in Swaziland. “This means that for every 100 economically active persons, there were about 28 persons who were unemployed in 2007, up from 74 676 in 1995”. This is according to a new Labor Force Analytical Report called the Swaziland Integrated Labor Force Survey, 2007- 2008. There are 222 771 people in the gainful employment in Swaziland and these are the workers who pay tax.

These facts put to question issues of quality assurance and relevance of the education system in Swaziland considering the 222 771 people in gainful employment and the about 90 000 unemployed women and men in a country with about 1. 2 million people. The 2007/ 2008 unemployment rate in Swaziland stands at 28.2 percent, in a working age population of 599 528 people.

According to the report most of the unemployed men and women in Swaziland are literate. This is a clear indication that basic education enabling one to read and write is not sufficient to meet the day-to-day challenges, especially in the 21st century where the world is affected by an economic meltdown. The newspaper, further reported that, of the 87 606 people who are unemployed, 76 676 have no training and 1632 received training on previous jobs, while 1452 received informal apprenticeship. It is further reported that 1 539 possessed vocational certificates and 4310 people have college certificates.

The Labor Force Analytical Report says, there are 899 people with diplomas in Swaziland who are looking for jobs and 642 with degrees and 452 people are in possession of other type of training. These facts put to question the quality of education being offered by tertiary institutions in Swaziland. If a total of 1993 are struggling not only to find jobs, but create jobs, that is sufficient message to call for a speedy evaluation of the curriculum being offered by institutions of Higher education, not only in Swaziland, but in Africa as a whole.

These are not just statistics, but men and women who have family responsibilities. These are people who by now should be contributing economically in the development of the Kingdom of Swaziland. It is apparent that the limited resources invested on them through scholarships to acquire tertiary education seem to have been wasted if they cannot put their skills to good use through the creation of job. It is also clear that the skills given to the learners are no longer relevant to meet labor demands.

Out of the total number of persons who were unemployed (87 606), 64.3 per cent were single, 32.7 per cent were married and the remaining three per cent were widowed, divorced and separated. A higher proportion, it has been found, of unemployed males were single (70.8 per cent) than was the case with unemployed females (57.9 percent). On the other hand, it is stated in the report that a higher proportion of unemployed females were married (37.2 percent) than unemployed males (27.9 percent). About 42 percent of the unemployed were below 25 years. Of the unemployed males, 41.6 percent were below 25 years and 43.1 percent of the unemployed females were below 25 years.

Recommendations

As part of the recommendations to fight unemployment in Swaziland, the Labor Force Analytical Report calls for the review of the educational system, with the view to changing it from supply- driven to demand driven, and from placing emphasis on basic literacy and numeracy to industrial skills. Also the education needs to instill the culture of self- employment to young people and that vocational education needs to be reoriented away from regular skills (carpentry, metal works, building, dressmaking, etc), to training in skills that are demanded in priority and growing sectors of the economy. It further calls for the establishment of enterprise based training for the youth. The program should include basic skills training, internship and business start - up financial support, amongst others.

Conclusion

Africa tertiary education promises to serve as the engine of growth for Africa's human capital development. It is crucial that all the promises made to ensure efficiency and excellent management in the sector be a fulfilled dream for Africa's socio-economic development.

Supporting Materials

- ❖ Tertiary Education Annual Reports
- ❖ Reports/ Communiqués national, regional, and international conferences on tertiary education
- ❖ Relevant Treaties/ Conventions
- ❖ Reports from Tertiary Education Councils
- ❖ NIS reports
- ❖ Research Findings

Further Reading

1. Global Report on Adult Learning and Education. UNESCO Institute of Lifelong Learning. 2009.

References

1. Akilagpa Sawyerr (2000) Challenges Facing African Universities. African Studies Association.
2. Education for the Knowledge Economy. <http://web.worldbank.org>
<http://answers.yahoo.com>.
3. The Alternative Tertiary Education Sector: More Than Non- University Education, Samih W. Mikhal, May 2008.
4. Cross- Border Tertiary Education, A Way Towards Capacity Development, The World Bank, Washington DC, 2007.
5. Knowledge and Skills Development in Developing and Transitional Economies, The World Bank and DFID, 2006.
6. Regional Conference on Higher Education in Africa, Dakar, Senegal, November 2008.
7. Suava Bjarnason, Kai-Ming Cheng, John Feidon, Maria-Jose Lamaitre, Daniel Lery, N.V. Varghese, A new Dynamic Private Education, UNESCO, World Conference on Higher Education, 2009.
8. CRESA, The New Dynamics for Higher Education and Research: Strategies for Change and Development (Preparation for WCHE + 10). UNESCO et al, Dakar, Senegal 2008.
9. Philip G. Altbach, Liz Reisberg, Laura Runbley, Trends in Global Higher Education; Tracking an Academic Revolution: A report Prepared for the UNESCO 2009. World Conference on Higher Education, UNESCO, 2009.
10. Global University Network for Innovation, Higher Education at A Time of Transformation; New Dynamics for Social Responsibility; GUNI.
11. Roger B. Ludeman, Kenneth J. Osfield, Enrique Iglesias Hidalgo, Danja Oste, Howard S. Warg, Student Affairs and Services in Higher Education: Global Foundation, Issues and Best Practices, UNESCO, WCHE, 2009.
12. Janil Salmi, Le défi d'établir des universités de rang mondial, Banque mondiale, Washington DC, 2009.



Section 3

Life-Long Learning







Module 9

Adult Education

Overview

Adult Education is a discipline that cut across several boundaries in the educational field. The adult young, middle aged and the old are the focus on which development activities at all levels are directed at. It is known that adults are in control of development activities at the household, local, national and regional levels and so they need education and training to face and adjust to emerging challenges that confront them in their world of work, at the household and in their communities. The developmental stages of men and women often brings with it new challenges of which education plays a critical role in facing it. Through adult education, African men and women are able to perform their productive roles effectively. This invariably enhances development on the continent.

General Objective

To equip the users with the competencies and knowledge that adult education provides for the developmental stages of adult men and women in their fields of endeavours.

Specific Objectives

By going through Module 9, users should be able to:

- ❖ Understand the real meaning of adult education;
- ❖ Identify the categories of adult education and apply them;
- ❖ Know the role of adult education in development issues;
- ❖ Decide what type of adult education he/she could embark upon to enhance his/her productive work; and
- ❖ Take advantage of using any of the various opportunities that adult education offers for all workers in Africa.

Expected Outcome

The practitioners' capacity would be enhanced to raise the consciousness of adults in their communities and on their quest to embark on life-long learning for national development in Africa.

Introduction

Many people who are involved in adult education (AE) of a kind are not aware of it. A need for a clearer understanding of the concept becomes imminent. The opportunities that “AE” offers for individual’s development, is often neglected. Unit I will discuss the concept ‘Adult Education’ and its various dimensions. Unit II will discuss the different forms of Adult Education and how they can be used to enhance development on the continent. It will also highlight some of the benefits of adult education enterprises on Non – Formal Education projects and programmes through some case studies.

Unit 1

What is Adult Education?

Adult Education is a growing discipline which has been defined in varied ways by many educators the world over. Let us examine a few of the definitions:

Liveright (1968:9) Says, “*Adult Education is a process whereby persons no longer attending on a regular full-time basis, undertake activities with a conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding, skills, appreciation and attitudes or identify and solve personal or community problems*”.

This definition demonstrates that the field of adult education is as broad as human interests and needs.

This is explained further by Liveright who provides four (4) areas of Adult Education. These are:

- ❖ Education for Occupation, Vocational and Professional competence;
- ❖ Education for personal or family competence;
- ❖ Education for social and civic competence; and
- ❖ Education for self-realization.

These areas portray the vision or philosophy of adult education that it engages in a life-long process which must be relevant to the needs and interests of all adults no matter what situation they find themselves. Hence, as emphasized by Linderman that, the approach to adult education will be via the route to situations and not subjects. In effect, this shows that adult education in some respects, especially non-formal adult education does not restrict itself to specific subjects in certain situations due to

peculiar situations with respect to one's work, recreation, family and community life, all of which requires some adjustment of a kind. Through education.

This implies that adult education is directed at helping people to develop themselves and their potentials in every possible way. This shows that, the point of service and the area of application of adult education are many and occur in different settings. This is so because adulthood stretches for many years, of which the diversity of life style becomes many and varied. Consequently, education of adults occurs in many ways and it takes countless forms.

According to Darkenwald, *“Adult education is concerned not with preparing people for life, but rather helping people to live more successfully”*. In effect, it is to assist adults to increase competence

- ❖ or negotiate transition in their social roles, as e.g. worker, parent or retired person;
- ❖ to help them gain greater fulfillment in their personal lives and to
- ❖ assist them in solving personal and community problems.

Brookfield (1986:20) who is a reknown writer says:

“the best way to teach adult education course is to encourage students to learn and provide them with projects related to the real world of work”.

In line with this, one would find that, the training tool kit that have been designed for competency skill development of users is a real adult education programme/enterprise directed at enhancing the entire educational system on the continent for development at individual, institutional, state and regional levels. At this point one may ask the question: *Who is an adult?*

Who is an Adult

In many African societies, adults are regarded as functional beings that can take control of their own lives according to the societies where they originate. Generally, young males and females in traditional African societies have to be initiated through puberty/initiation rites before they are considered and accepted into adulthood by their communities. After the initiation they are expected to perform certain socio-cultural roles and functions.

However, in modern day Africa one could be considered an adult from a biological state, a legal state from 18 years and above, a psychological state when he/she is

expected to adopt a certain kind of behaviour and perform some social roles including work and marriage.

Terms Used Within the Framework of Adult Education

Several terms are applied in the field of adult education. These include, life-long Education/Learning, Continuing Education, Further Education, Distance Education. Some of these could be used interchangeably and could have the same objective. (A few of these would be covered).

Continuing Education (CE)

As already stated, the developmental stages of an adult requires some adjustment mechanisms, and education serves as a key tool that facilitates the process. In this direction one would need to have continuing education which could be regarded as a form of adult education “that seeks to link the needs, interests and aspirations of individuals with educational activities that are directed at enhancing their capacities, that could lead to the development of their potentials and that of their communities”.

Continuing Education (CE) has thus become a major tool for building and sustaining the human capital base for many economies including that of Africa in the global system in the 21st century. CE is usually provided through short and long-term courses, some could be provided on part-time basis including on-the-job training apprenticeship, off-the-job training, workshops, conferences and seminars among others. It is through CE that adults in the productive sector are able to catch up with the fast space in which new skills, knowledge are being transmitted to catch up with development activities in today’s global world. A good example is the benefits of digital literacy today.

Distance Education (DE)

This is also a key component of adult education that could serve the interest of all adult age groups, particularly working adults who cannot leave their work and so could combine work with study.

This form of education widens access and equity to all. Through DE programme, the unreached can be reached with specialized study materials. With the use of the multi-media, learners can be reached wherever they are located. E-learning forms part of distance education. With the use of technology several adult education learning enterprises can be carried out to improve the development of educational systems in Africa.

Definition of Life-Long Learning

Life-long learning is the type of adult education that an individual decides to take up throughout life in ones daily encounters at home, work, and within the environment one finds him/her self.

Activity 1

Discuss two terms used in the field of adult education and select one that could be used in your community and how you will use it to cover an issue in your media.

Unit 2

Forms of Adult Education

There are three main forms of Adult Education:

- ❖ Formal;
- ❖ Non-formal; and
- ❖ Informal Adult Education.

Formal Adult Education

Under this the discipline of adult education is taught at certificate, diploma, degree, masters, MPhil and Phd levels and certificates are awarded by recognized tertiary institutions spread throughout the continent.

Various courses are handled, these include:

- ❖ Philosophy of Adult Education;
- ❖ Contemporary Issues in Adult Education;
- ❖ Research;
- ❖ Community Education and Development;
- ❖ Gender and Development; and
- ❖ Andragogy.

Non-formal Education (NFE)

The term non-formal education has been described differently by many authers in the field of adult education. It is a concept that is geared towards satisfying the educational needs and interests of adults outside the formal school system.

What is Non-formal Education?

Coombs, Prosser and Ahmed (1973), in categorizing learning systems examined the concept as any organized educational activity outside the established formal system that is directed at identifiable groups with specific learning objectives aimed at competency and skill development, they regard it as “on-the-job training” and accelerated training” which are complement to the formal system of education.

Simkins (1977), on the other hand sees it as “out-of-school education which is generally targeted at marginalized groups who are often excluded from development activities.

The Uniqueness of Non-formal Education

In its usage emphasis is put on the use of local resources to meet community needs. As such, it normally responds to the socio-economic needs of community people without strict restriction on entry requirement and often lays emphasis on grassroots participation, but could also target specific target professional groups, like teachers, nurses, farmers and doctors and women who are illiterates can enjoy any NFE programme such as functional literacy (FL) In this beneficiaries are expected to be literate in their world of work and to have some understanding about issues that relate to their work. This is normally designed in a way that would promote effective development as well as acquiring the skill to manage their lives socially, economically and politically in such a way that would enhance national development.

In other words, non-formal literacy programme is meant to extend literacy opportunities to disadvantaged adults who missed formal education and need to learn while working. Non-formal education could be designed for specific target groups, it could be designed and plan within a stipulated time frame.for workers of all professions

Features of Non-formal Education

Fordham (1993), provides some features of non-formal education. According to him educational activities are generally short-term and specific, short cycle, part-time; It is community-based, out-put centered and generally practical, flexible, learning-centered and self-governing. He concluded that education provided should serve the needs and interests of learners.

Programme beneficiaries are expected to participate in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the educational activity. Through non-formal education a lot of literacy projects have been successfully carried out on the continent. The process of achieving basic literacy has often created further demands for post literacy education. In this direction, some younger adults have taken the opportunity to continue in the formal school systems while others gained practical competency skills to enhance their productive works.

Informal Education

This is the type of adult education that generally occurs in traditional African societies. In some cases it is orally based. In this, the socialization by the family is transmitted in an informal way to members of the family. Aside these, many learning activities that are carried out in our natural societal settings and members of communities acquire knowledge of various forms without being aware of it. Cultural norms and values are passed on to the younger ones as well as adults through informal education.

Through the open broadcast media (radio and television), many people acquire knowledge on self-development as well as community issues. Thus, adults who regularly use the electronic media could be said to be engaging themselves in life-long learning which could contribute in changing their behaviour due to knowledge gained in diverse ways. Combs, Prossers and Ahmed (1973), see informal education as:

“the truly life-long process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experiences and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment – from family and neighbours, from work and play, from the market place, the library and the mass-media”.

It would be appropriate to comment that, the provision of formal, non-formal and informal educational activities for adults of diverse socio-economic backgrounds helps to promote a learning society which would eventually enhance development at all levels. This shows that adult education is linked with people’s day-to-day lives.

Non-formal and informal adult education provide useful tools for enhancing education and training to satisfy all categories of people, since the formal educational system cannot carry the full load on its head and bear the total cost involved as well as the complexities of population growth and development issues, such as literacy and basic education, out-of-school youth, rural development and the role of women as partners in development.

Role of the Mass-Media and Adult Education

The mass media is a major adult education institution that reaches adults of all age groups at all levels. These include:- the electronic media (radio and television) and the print media.

Radio is a major tool which is transient in carrying out developmental messages to all and sundry. Through radio, non-formal education as well as informal education can be carried out to the entire population of a country. For example, through radio, farm forum many productive groups, such as farmers, and fishermen are engaged in dialogues during which good farming practices are discussed and adopted by programme beneficiaries.

In Ghana for instance, radio farm forums were established to educate farmers in different farming communities to discuss developmental issues relating to their work, competencies were enhanced and new skills were developed, new modern methods were adopted. This eventually increased productivity for both literate and illiterate farmers.

Films were also shown through mobile cinema vans which displayed educational programmes and projects. These were integrated with entertainment (edutainment) to sensitize people on good nutrition, good health, home management and good governance, among others.

Community Newspapers

These serve as a medium which provide space for neo-literates to engage themselves in further reading in their own local languages and participate in covering developing activities in their community newspapers. In some communities, readers clubs are formed to enhance the reading skills of beneficiaries of literacy classes.

Activity 2

Design any adult education programme to sensitize parents to be committed towards the education of their children in the media where you work.

Conclusion

It is recognized that adult education plays a major role in development across the continent. Universities and tertiary institutions like Polytechnics have various courses in the humanities and sciences all geared towards human capital development.

Adult education offers special opportunities for adults who are working and want to have further education. They register for continuing education programmes which provide them with social mobility by getting promotions in their jobs, changing jobs for better paid salaries, establishing their own businesses and shifting to new challenging areas which may increase job and business satisfaction.

Through adult education various forums of non-formal education projects and programmes are directed at enhancing capacities and training for employable skills in the informal sector economies, illiterate adults are made literate through functional literacy programmes which help beneficiaries to increase their productivity in their entrepreneurial endeavours.

Adult education provides space for liberal education for adults who have achieved their self-actualization and want to learn for leisure for aesthetic satisfaction. In effect, adult education provides satisfaction in fulfilling Maslow hierarchy of human needs, basic needs shelter and food, safety needs, need for belongingness, self-esteem and self-actualization. All one needs to do is to understand the philosophy of adult education that the individual is to be helped through education and training to have better life and live responsibly and contribute to development in his/her society. In effect the field provides space for all, the rich, poor, literate and non-illiterate to lead meaningful life.

Case Studies

We now provide you with some case studies involved with non-formal educational projects in some African countries.

Guinea

In 1989 a women's literacy group in Guinea in the Foutah-Djalou region, the women acquired the skill of reading, writing and calculating and applied it to develop themselves socially and economically as attested in the following words:

“we embarked on literacy project and became literate. We did what no one else had thought of, we introduced and mastered the techniques of making soap and we built the best building in the locality”.

The women worked as committed identified group and embarked on income-generating activities. through the competencies they gained.

Burundi

Reading, writing and numeracy brought positive changes to the lives of women who lived in poverty and were deemed worthless by their husbands. Deo, one of the husbands of a member of the group who decided to join the group literacy class learned to respect and valued his wife as a partner. Through the “Mothers’ Union literacy circle”, the couple are now running a successful business.

With the Union holistic approach, many women were empowered with new skills, which have transformed their lives.

“we can now express our ideas, know our rights and can now participate in development” Annonciate.

Ghana

English Literacy Programme for Informal Sector Workers

The Institute of Continuing and Distance Education Literacy Research Centre of the University of Ghana is providing literacy classes for out-of-school youth and adults. Some graduates from the programme have managed to gain admission into the diploma and Degree programmes of the University of Ghana.

*Source: IAE Research report, May 2009
(May 2009:28)*

Nigeria

Oladele (2007), gave a report on a literacy project carried out for 250 local cassava farmers in the Ogun State in Nigeria. Farmers applied the knowledge they gained and this eventually gave them a higher yield which brought in an improvement that enhanced their economic status. The farmers agreed that, they were in a better position to take good care of their children. Other farmers involved in a similar functional literacy Isoya Rural Development programme had a similar experience which improved their lives. Over 86.6% had a positive attitude towards literacy and made efforts to read their local newspapers.

Senegal

World Education has mounted a special Education project for Women and girls who are in vulnerable positions in contracting HIV due to lack of information. It mobilized a federation of 150 local women associations with over 8,000 members. It adopted an integrated approach by combining a training on HIV/AIDS with trainers, inter-village action planning sessions, HIV information market stands and village theatre to provide women and adolescent girls with life-saving information to protect themselves and their families from HIV.

This project has helped beneficiaries to take full control of their lives by building their Knowledge and Confidence to fight HIV.

References

1. Adoo-Adeku, K. K. (1992) Utilization of Radio and Television for Adult Education in Ghana. – Journal of Education in Africa. Vol. I. No. 2.
2. Coombs, P. H.; Prosser; Ahmed, N. (1973) . News Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth, New International Council for Education Development.
3. Coombs, P. H.; Prosser; Ahmed, N. (1974). Attacking Rural Poverty. How non-formal education can help. Baltimore. John Hopkins Press.
4. Fordham, P. E. (1993) “Informal, non-formal and formal Education Programmes” in Y.W.C.A. George Williams College. ICE 301, Life-long Learning Unit 2. London.
5. <http://www.worlded.org> (2009) World Education Projects by Region - Africa
- Nafukho, F.; Amutabi, N; Otunge, R. (2005). Foundations of Adult Education in Africa. African Perspectives on Adult Education. UNESCO Institute for Education.
6. Oladele, J. (2007) “Benefits of Literacy Development Programme to Illiterate Cassava Farmers in Western Nigeria. Paper Presented at 5th Pan-African Reading for All Conference, August 2007.
7. Thompson, A. R. (1981). Education and Development in Africa. London Macmillan
8. Titmus, C. J. ed (1989. Life-Long Education for Adults. An International Handbook. Pergamon Press.
9. UNESCO (2010). Confintea VI : Balém Framework for Action : Harnessing the power and potential of adult learning and education for viable future. UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning. <http://www.unesco.org/en/confinteavi>

Module 10

Principles of Adult Learning

Overview

Political, social and economic development activities are generally under the control of adults at the household, community and national levels. For effective performance there is the need for regular education and training. The world of work also poses its own challenges as one struggles for advancement in career development. It is at this point that the adult learning principles become crucial to the media practitioner who needs to learn to enhance his or her competency skills to make effect the required impact on education and development.

General Objective

Professionals in the field of education and communication would have been exposed to the key principles involved in adult learning enterprises.

Specific Objectives

- ❖ By the end of Module 10, users would have been exposed to the basic principles involved in adult learning;
- ❖ Have learnt the skills of handling adult learners;
- ❖ Have acquired some additional knowledge on adult teaching methods for handling training programmes in the field of journalism.

Expected Output

Media Practitioners would have acquired the competency skills to organise training programmes to enhance the capacities of media personnel in African countries to widen access of the training tool kit to all who may need it.

Introduction

Module 10 is divided into 2 units. Unit 1 provides opportunities for professionals who would like to use the training tool kit for other training programmes. It discusses the principles involved in adult learning and why it is important for adults to learn.

Unit 2 highlights the reasons why adult learners should be treated differently and discusses some adult teaching methods.

Unit 1

Factors that Promote Adult Learning

The development stages of man require that adults embark on continuing education to enhance their capacities to face the challenges that confront them at each stage of their lives.

Adults perform several roles as parents, workers, community leaders and could perform additional roles as learners/students.

There are several factors that promote adult learning. For example, every adult that enters the field of work would like to have social mobility to get better paid jobs as he or she grows. Better pay would enhance one's state of life to be able to care and support the family as expected. Children would be exposed to good education to enhance their future lives.

The environment of the adult learner

A major difference between pedagogical and androgical learning is that, whereas children normally bank most of the knowledge they acquire for future use, adult learner make immediate use of the knowledge they get in their everyday life.

The adult learner as he/she grows gathers experiences through the challenges that evolve in his/her life. These experiences are often shared during learning enterprises through group discussions, syndicate work and seminars among others. Thus, in adult educational sessions, both the educator and the educatee share knowledge through their lives experiences.

Adult learners are volunteers, in that they decide when to engage themselves in learning. Therefore they should be allowed to put their new knowledge into practice to contribute their quota towards development first to themselves as individuals, their communities and their nations.

Respect and dignity of the learner must be recognised and maintained. Factors that limit a quick grasp of issues being discussed should be considered, because some may have some kind of limitations with their eye-sights and hearing. As such there should be favourable learning environment.

What is learning?

Learning is the act of acquiring some knowledge that leads to a change in behaviour which can be cognitive (gaining new knowledge), affective (gaining knowledge which will change one's attitude in life towards developmental issues) and psycho-motor (acquiring the skill of using one's competency for practical development purposes).

Why Do Adults Learn?

- ❖ A distinctive feature of human beings is their ability to acquire new patterns of behaviour to modify responses to changing social structures;
- ❖ We need to learn to meet the changing challenges/demands of our various occupations/work. All adults work, and tasks call for new knowledge, new skills and new attitudes at various stages;
- ❖ The need to learn as part of our individual development provides one's self-fulfillment and a major element in lifelong learning;
- ❖ Indeed, learning is part of the process of living as some skills decline new ones are learned to replace earlier ones.
- ❖ With the new challenges of the global world media practitioners would need constant update to face new situations

Principles of Adult learning

What is Pedagogy?

- ❖ *It is the art and science of helping children to learn.*
- ❖ A key element in the pedagogical principal is that it is teacher-dominated and prescriptive, in that, the teacher prescribes what the learner should learn.
- ❖ "The banking system" which is the act of transferring information from the teacher's head and depositing it in the student's head prevails.
- ❖ It is assumed that the teacher knows everything, while the learners know nothing. In effect there is an authority dependency relationship.

What is Andragogy?

- ❖ It is the art and science of helping adults to learn.
- ❖ An Andragogy principle shows clearly that once a person matures his /her self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality towards one of being a self-directing human being.

- ❖ He/she accumulates a reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.
- ❖ The readiness to learn becomes oriented to the development tasks of his/her social roles.
- ❖ An adult time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediate application.
- ❖ Consequently, the adult's orientation towards learning shifts from one of subject-centredness to one of problem-solving.

Applying the andragogical principle to the situation of media practitioners who want to take advantage of this-training tool kit, interested persons are expected to be the main focal persons to apply their newly acquired knowledge to strengthen the change process in the educational sector in Africa by making the media landscape the engine to speed up all the educational development on the African continent.

Advantages of Andragogy

Learning experience provides adult learners with opportunities to analyse their environment critically for:

- ❖ deepening their self perceptions;
- ❖ building confidence in their own creativity and capabilities for action which should be seen on Africa's media landscape;
- ❖ be responsible for self-direction creativity, productivity, and exhibit high quality product in the media field;
- ❖ have the opportunity to combine work with study and enhance capacity in the educational field

Activity 1

List the principles you will adopt if you are to organise a training advocacy programme for young men and women in the media to campaign for community participation for an activity that would promote education in a community that is apathetic to education.

Unit 2

Why Adult learners Need to be Treated Differently?

- ❖ Adult learners are mature and have rich experience and therefore need to be treated with respect as unique human beings.
- ❖ Adults should not be embarrassed or judged even if they make mistakes. They are volunteer learners who tend to resist learning under conditions that are incongruent with their self-concept.
- ❖ Once the adult learner makes the discovery that he/she can take responsibility for learning, the adult would enter the learning environment with “deep ego involvement” and would eventually come out with positive results such that, the learning activity becomes a most rewarding experience.
- ❖ The learner will have the full confidence that our media practitioner will stand the test of time for the task of moving Africa’s educational sector to its highest level for development.
- ❖ Since adults would like to combine work with study, the training toolkit provides one of the best opportunities for all to gain from programmes, distance education as well as face to face learning enterprises.

Adult Teaching Methods

Several teaching methods can be used to enhance learning and teaching programmes for adult learners. A few examples are the following:

- ❖ Lecturing - In this the trainer can take for instance a full hour to be talking to an audience with little interaction.
- ❖ Discussion - Many adult learners enjoy group discussions because they often get the chance to share their experiences. The idea of agreeing and disagreeing normally prevails.

- ❖ Drama this is an advance form of role play in this a plot is designed and often it is organised for a particular audience Drama normally works well at the community levels in many rural communities in Africa. The media practitioner will have a face to face interaction with community people to share ideas on issues raised.
- ❖ Plenary discussion and group exercises offer other opportunities to adult learners. Plenary sessions give learners the chance to listen and openly discuss opinions and views expressed by other group members in the training programme.
- ❖ Field trips to media houses offer yet another opportunity to learn some of the best practices in other media houses.
- ❖ Other methods could be designed depending on the situations the trainer encounters.

Conclusion

Module 10 has exposed users to some of the main principles and advantages of andragogy in adult learning and the importance of adults embarking on continuing education for competency skills and career advancement.

References

1. Bandura, A (1977) Social learning theory. Eglewood Cliffs, NJ:Prentice Hall. ILO (1986). Workers”education Techniques.
2. Nkum, John (2003), Training of Trainers in Participatory Methods for Facilitating Adult Learning.(Unpublished)
3. Fredrick Nafukho, Maurice Amutabi and Ruth Otunga (2005). African Perspectives on Adult Learning: Foundations of Adult Education in Africa. Co-published by the UNESCO Institute for Education, Feldbrunnenstr. 58,20148, Hamburg, Germany, and Pearson Education South Africa, corner of Logan Way and Forest Drive, Pinelands, Cape Town, South Africa, in

collaboration with the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association, Obere Wilhelmstr. 32, 53225 Bonn, Germany, and the Adult Education Department of the University of Botswana.

5. Bob Moon, The Open University (U.K); Jenny Leach, The Open University (U.K.); Mary-Priscillia Stevens, Harvard University, Graduate School of Education (US) (September 2005).
Designing Open and Distance Learning for Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Toolkit for Education and Planners. Human Development Sector Africa Region, The World Bank Washington, D.C

Module 11

Parental Education

Overview

Education involves different actors within the community. Parents are one of the key actors of education. They need to prepare their children before they get to school and therefore need to be an integral part of the entire schooling process. Parents remain the prime educators of children. It is in line with this recognition that one finds parental education very important. However, parents who are less educated, poorer or from underprivileged backgrounds may not have the knowledge, awareness and ability to support their children's education in the same way as wealthier, middle class, educated parents who are often more aware of their civic and other rights. Educating parents on their rights, responsibilities and role in their children's education is therefore crucial.

General Objective

To help the user understand the importance of parental education and their involvement in the entire education system.

Specific Objectives

By the end of the module the user will be able to:

- ❖ Understand the role of parents in education and the need for parental sensitisation and capacity-building.
- ❖ Grasp governance and policy issues related to parental rights and responsibilities in education.
- ❖ Understand the benefits of parental education.

Expected Outcome

Users will understand the need for parents to be an integral part of the process set in motion to strengthen the education system.

Introduction

Module 11 is divided into two units. Unit 1 examines the creation of awareness among parents and sensitisation on the importance of parental involvement in education, their roles, rights and responsibilities. It also looks at capacity-building of parents to handle specific issues such as sexual maturation management and other forms of support to their children. Unit 1 also touches on non-formal education for parents such as literacy, income-generating activities, etc.

Unit 2 looks at governance and parental involvement in school management, including parental control, decision-making and management of school activities. It also examines policy issues such as re-entry policy for teenage mothers.

Unit 1

Who is a parent?

In the African context, a parent is not necessarily the biological mother or father of a child. In most cases the primary care-giver is a woman and may be a grandmother, an aunt or another member of the extended family. Despite the fact that the primary care-giver may not be the biological mother or father, she or he is still seen as the parent and has to assume the rights and responsibilities of educating the child.

What is parental education?

For the purposes of this module, parental education is the sensitization of parents on the important role they play in their children's education, informing them of their rights and responsibilities in this area, and building their capacity to support their children's education through literacy, income-generating activities and other skills.

What is the role of parents in education?

Socialisation of children and imparting norms and values begins in the home from birth and is an important aspect of the formative years of the child.

Early childhood development starts through parenting in the home context and lays the foundation for the social and academic development of the child at school. In many countries, particularly those which have Education For All (EFA) policies, parents are obliged to send their children to school for a minimum number of years so that they can acquire basic education.

Parents support children's education not only by fulfilling an obligation but also by preparing them psychologically for school life. Aside from the high and sometimes disproportionate percentage of the family income that parents dedicate to school-related costs for their children, they are also active advocates for education by encouraging their children's schooling and academic performance.

Parents also have a role to play in their children's physical and psycho-social development. For example, sexual maturation issues will affect the morale, behaviour, learning and academic performance of both boys and girls.

The role of parents during this transformation period is critical, not only in helping their children negotiate this period of their lives but also in enabling them to understand and deal with potential abusive situations in the school context.

Capacity-building of parents

❖ Rights in education

Parents should be sensitized about their rights and those of their children in order to be able to monitor and question the context in which education takes place.

They must be knowledgeable about education authority guidelines and regulations that ensure safe and healthy environments for learning, for example well-placed infrastructure, provision of learning materials, guidelines for discipline and reporting of abuse.

They must also be aware of what their ministry of education and local education authorities are obliged to provide their children in terms of education.

❖ *Responsibilities of parents*

Many countries have put in place laws requiring parents to send their children to school for a minimum number of years so that they acquire minimum basic education. It is important that parents are given an in-depth knowledge on the benefits of fulfilling this responsibility to send their children to school.

Many parents do not see the value of educating their children. Even with the introduction of free primary education in many countries, these parents still see an opportunity cost in sending their children to school when these children could be out earning a living instead. Many of these children are employed in precarious and often dangerous income-earning activities.

❖ *Non-formal education*

Many parents need to acquire specific skills that will empower them to support their children's education better. This includes literacy skills to equip non-literate parents with basic reading, writing and calculating competencies to enable them to contribute more actively and meaningfully to the socio-economic development of their families.

Many literacy programmes now integrate developmental activities to enhance parents' capacities to generate income (IGA-Income Generating Activities) which makes them economically independent, allowing them not only to support their children's education financially but also empowers them to be more actively and meaningfully involved in the education of their children.

Literate parents may also require empowerment through other non-formal education activities that enhance their ability to be involved in ensuring better education opportunities for their children and participate actively in governance issues related to education such as school management activities.

Activity 1

Write an article highlighting the education provisions, regulations and guidelines that parents need to know and advocate for in your local education context.

Summary

We have seen that parental education is key to ensuring that children's education is supported and enhanced at all levels by parents themselves. We have also seen the importance of ensuring that parents are aware of their rights and responsibilities so that they can monitor and support education more effectively and the competencies needed by parents to enable them to provide meaningful support for their children's education.

Unit 2

What is governance in education?

Governance involves exercising power and decision-making on behalf of a group of people. Good governance in education ensures that education systems and institutions are 'accountable, effective and efficient, participatory, transparent, responsive, consensus-oriented, and equitable'.

Enabling parents to increase and improve their involvement in school management through adequate information will ensure that their children receive quality education in a fair and conducive learning environment. This involvement is primarily through school management structures such as Parents'/Teachers' Associations (PTAs), school governing bodies, student representative bodies, etc.

Policy issues and parental education

National education authorities have policies in place for implementation at local level. However, it has been recognised that many parents are not aware of the policies and plans that affect their children's education or that they have a say in the implementation of these policies in their school communities. Consequently, many parents normally have little say in the implementation of these policies in their school communities. For example, many parents do not know the guidelines for discipline in schools or how to deal with cases of sexual, physical and other abuses.

Re-entry policy of teenage mothers

Certain countries also have policies in place to enable parents such as teenage mothers to return to school and improve their life chances and those of their children through effective education. Dropout due to schoolgirl pregnancy seems to be a

persistent issue across Africa which seems to be on the increase. A re-entry policy allows young mothers to be re-admitted and complete their schooling, thereby ensuring a better future for their own children. Only some countries in Africa have a re-entry policy in place. They include Botswana, Kenya, Uganda, Zambia and Zanzibar.

Activity 2

Guidelines were implemented in 2007 in South Africa to advocate for the right of pregnant girls to remain in school. However, these guidelines suggested a two-year waiting period before girls could return to school after giving birth in the interests of the rights of the child. Prepare a human interest

Conclusion

Managing an educational system requires the active involvement of all stakeholders, including parents. It is essential that at the levels of school governance, where important decisions are taken, parents should participate in this process to ensure relevance, fairness and education quality. Governance issues include management and sustainability of financial, human and other resources, as well as ensuring that effective teaching and learning takes place. It is also important that parents are aware of not only the national education policies in place but also how these policies are implemented within their school contexts. It is in this context that parental education becomes important.

Further Reading

1. National Policies on Pregnancy in Education Systems in Sub-Saharan Africa: the case of Botswana.
2. Bagele Chilisa *Gender and Education*, 1360-0516, Volume 14, Issue 1, 2002, Pages 21 – 35.

References

1. <http://issues.tigweb.org/civilsociety>
2. Alexander, Elsie M. “Ministerial Consultation on School Drop Out and Teenage Pregnancy Under the Theme: ‘Counting the Costs’, September 15-18, 1994, Mauritius: A Botswana Case Study: The YWCA Education Centre for Adolescent Women.” Nairobi: Forum for African Women Educationalists. 1994. 11p.
3. Panday, S., Makiwane, M., Ranchod, C., & Letsoala, T. (2009). *Teenage pregnancy in South Africa – with a specific focus on school-going learners*. Child, Youth, Family and Social Development, Human Sciences Research Council. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education.
4. <http://issues.tigweb.org/civilsociety>.

Module 12

Alternative Schooling

Overview

Every student can learn! And every student should have the opportunity to learn and to achieve a quality of life they desire based on their educational efforts and achievements. If every school board member, school administrator, teacher, parent, community and business leader believes that statement, then alternative schooling cannot be considered an option but rather a requirement in every community in Africa. Alternative schooling opportunities will be needed to accommodate the educational needs of its youth because the traditional school system, and particularly the traditional post-primary school, can no longer serve the needs of all students. Alternative schooling does meet the variety of student and family needs and the social behaviors required for youth in today's world. Alternative schooling also offers school and community leaders the opportunity to fulfill their legal responsibility to provide equal access to education for all students. The most critical question that must then be answered is what kind of alternative schooling should be designed and offered in our public schools? What should the alternative programs look like and how should they be integrated with the regular school programs in each community? In this module, we examine the above issues, and relate them to the specific situations in African educational systems as they evolve at the present time.

General Objective

This module should enable journalists and all media practitioners to develop concrete appreciation of how alternative educational opportunities that are offered in African societies contribute towards providing quality basic education for every child and youth in society to meet the EFA and MDG goals, and what role the media can play in promoting alternative schooling in Africa.

Specific Objectives

The user should be able to:

- ❖ Explain the meaning of Alternative Schooling from a human rights perspective and justify the theoretical and ideological perspectives of the various conventions and declarations put forth by the international community for every African child to have access to basic education.
- ❖ Appreciate the practical issues regarding the provision of schooling for every child born in the African continent.

- ❖ Identify strengths and weaknesses that exist in the traditional formal schooling system inherited from colonizers at independence vis-à-vis the alternative schooling that is currently the subject of much reflection in Africa today.
- ❖ Examine the role that communities can play without Government interference in establishing and running alternative forms of schooling that can run parallel and compete with schools established by Government.
- ❖ To develop and advise on a model specific to his or her environment on what the features of the alternative school should comprise of.

Expected Outcome

The user will be able to better articulate and disseminate information on the importance of the use of alternative schooling as a means to achieving most of the objectives set out in the Dakar Declaration on Education for All and meeting the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.

Introduction

Alternative Schooling has been expanding in Africa and many parts of the developing world as various actors and institutions have pooled resources and efforts to provide basic learning for the estimated 72 million children who remain out of school (UNESCO, 2010). Defined broadly by any set of educational models or programmes existing outside formal school systems, alternative schooling has become an essential catalyst for the achievement of the Education for All (EFA) goals related to access, literacy, and gender equity targets. Alternative Schooling tends to serve diverse populations with varying needs in Africa where there are more out-of-school children than anywhere else in the world. In some African countries, Community Schools and other approaches to Alternative Schooling have increased access to primary education for underserved populations as a major goal of the EFA movement. While advocates have praised community schools for their focus on disadvantaged children, community control, and relevance to students' everyday lives, critics argue that these schools are “second-rate education for second-rate students”, that perpetuate a system of inequality in which governments play a minimal role in ensuring both access and quality for all students. This module has four units that examines the merits and demerits of Alternative Schooling provided in African countries. Unit 1 focuses on the definition and meaning of alternative schooling and the need for them and concentrating on the fundamental problems that have given rise to the use of alternative schooling as a solution. Unit 2 looks at the policies that are in place to support education of disadvantaged children. Unit 3 examines the challenges facing alternative schooling, while Unit 4 gives an overview of indigenous education in Africa. Unit 5 delves into lessons we are beginning to learn.

Unit 1

What is Alternative Schooling?

The term *alternative schooling* has always referred to nontraditional public and private educational approaches available by choice to parents and students. In developed countries such as the United States of America, these programmes, ranging from actual schools to programmes within schools to single classrooms, began to evolve during the late 1960s and grew from a few isolated innovations in local communities into an educational reform involving millions of students.

For a concept that has had such a revolutionary impact on public education, the idea of alternative schooling and public schools of choice is really quite simple. It involves little more than diversifying public education by creating distinctive educational programmes designed to meet the needs and interests of specific groups of students and providing these programs to parents, students, and teachers through voluntary choice.

In the more developed western countries, the underlying definition and characteristics of alternative schools include:

- ❖ **Voluntary participation:** Students, parents, and teachers voluntarily participate in a school of their choice.
- ❖ **Small school size:** Schools of choice (alternative, magnet, and charter schools) have sought to humanize and personalize learning by creating small educational options. The average enrollment for a school of choice has remained at approximately 250 students for more than twenty years.
- ❖ **Caring teachers with high expectations:** Since teachers voluntarily participate in schools of choice, they become highly invested in the school. This investment translates into a strong motivation for both student achievement and school success.
- ❖ **Customized curriculum/personalized instruction:** Schools of choice offer students, parents, and teachers opportunities to participate in a highly focused curriculum with value-added enhancements. Students in public schools of choice meet state requirements for high school graduation through participating in a curriculum designed to both motivate student learning and provide experiences that relate to individual needs, interests, and career aspirations.
- ❖ **Safe learning environment:** Research has documented a remarkable lack of violence, vandalism, and disruptive behavior in schools of choice. Students and families consistently report feeling both physically and emotionally safe to participate and learn.

In Africa, community schools are one type of alternative schools. These are ‘schools established, run, and largely supported by local communities, whether they are geographic communities (villages or urban townships), religious groups or non-profit educational trusts’ (Hoppers, 2006, p 63). There are also other types of schools that depend on *international* religious groups and non-profit organizations for funding and support. While local communities may be involved in planning, teacher recruitment, and income generating activities, stakeholders *outside* of the physical community often play a significant role in guiding management, governance, and school finance. Furthermore, several schools identifying themselves as “community-based” increasingly work directly or indirectly with Ministries of Education to condense national curricula into shorter, more locally appropriate material for community schools.

Such type of alternative schooling in poor countries are established under the assumption that governments do not have the capacity to provide free primary education to all children as declared by the Education for All (EFA) Movement following the Jomtien Conference in 1990. Those most disproportionately affected groups include children living in deep poverty, geographic isolation, and other marginal conditions (i.e. orphans, street children, and children infected with or affected by HIV/AIDS). Community schools vary with respect to factors such as (a) links with and integration into the public system (school accreditation, curriculum, and testing), (b) costs (most schools exact minimal fees from students, while others accept payments in cash or kind), (c) teacher recruitment, retention, and quality (including various standards for and approaches to training, some involving Ministries of Education and others pooling resources and support from local and international organizations), (d) teacher salaries (who pays them and at what levels), (e) degrees of community engagement (building of schools, hiring and firing of teachers, school decision-making and management, and curriculum development and implementation), (f) school goals (short and long-term), (g) student characteristics and expectations of schools, (h) and school quality.

Activity 1

Explain the meaning of the word Alternative Schooling from a human rights perspective referring to all the Conventions and Declarations that existed since 1948 to enable Education for All. Draw some specific examples of moves to implement Alternative Education in your country.

Activity 2

Do you have community schools in your country? If yes, who runs them and how? If not what other Alternative Schooling facilities exist in your community?

Activity 3

Do some further investigation on Alternative Schooling as practised in the more developed countries and compare and contrast some of these practices with what you see in Africa. Prepare a special feature story for publication in a weekly journal to convince the general public about the merits of Alternative Schooling for your country.

Unit 2

Policy Options

Following independence from colonial rule in the late 1950s and early 1960s for most African nations, education policies in many countries emphasized free primary education, and the expansion of secondary and university education for all, and providing access for previously underserved populations. Global economic hardships of the late 1970s placed significant strain on educational systems. As a result, community-based schools gained popularity during this period. This was prompted to a large extent by macro-economic and social policies encouraged and even imposed by international institutions to cut government spending on education and other social services. With financial and technical support from donor agencies, non-governmental organizations established alternative primary schools in many countries and operated with little or no support from African Ministries of Education.

Access to education has increased tremendously during the past two decades due to efforts such as the Complementary Basic Education Programme in Tanzania (COBET - a national effort geared towards vulnerable children who cannot afford direct school fees, or who live too far from a government school); Mobile Schools in Kenya; Tent Schools in Algeria and Sudan (serving nomadic communities); Shepherd Schools in Botswana; School for Life (SFL) in Ghana; Market Schools in Nigeria (linking schooling to employment opportunities); and community schools in Egypt and Zambia. Currently Zambia has more than 500,000 students enrolled in an estimated 2,500 community schools - approximately 20% of the country's basic education enrolment.

Most alternative schools are decentralized to increase access, minimize bureaucratic control, increase efficiency, and enhance accountability to communities. Teachers are hired and fired by community members, schools are built with local materials and labour, and parents may participate in curriculum planning. The locally controlled nature of such schools frequently improves student retention relative to government schools by maintaining a school calendar that takes into account harvesting seasons and other social and cultural practices that may prevent attendance. Alternative schools implement policies to increase gender equity, as they enroll girls who are unable to attend school or are discouraged for practical, financial, religious, and/or cultural reasons. It is also argued that the successes of these schools have the

potential to impact national policies related to curriculum and pedagogy, as the successful transition to government secondary schools for some students encourages policymakers to seek more cost-efficient and effective approaches to public schooling.

Alternative schools are inspired to implement innovative approaches to teaching and learning given the background and various characteristics of students. With increased community engagement and input from teachers, parents, and occasionally students, alternative schools have more teacher/student and teacher/parent interaction than government schools, more “student-centered” learning, and more locally relevant curricula, including but not limited to life skills, health, and vocational education. Some community schools in Africa claim that their students outperform government school students as a result of the use of local languages of instruction, more dedicated teachers, and teaching and learning methods not utilized in public schools.

Activity 4

Research on the global economic hardships that affected African economies in the 1970s and 1980s, and compare that situation with the economic crisis that started in 2008, focusing on how these crises have affected the education sector. Comment on how our various African governments have reacted to these in terms of introducing radical policies to ensure that all their citizens have access to basic quality education.

Activity 5

The community school in Africa does not have all the formal bureaucratic hurdles that the traditional school has. Would you consider this to be an advantage or a disadvantage with regard to learning and achievement by its students? What kind of policies would you encourage for the running of community schools? Write a short feature story to elaborate on this issue.

Activity 6

Describe what you perceive to be the role of teachers, parents and government officials in relation to alternative schooling in Africa.

Unit 3

Challenges for Alternative Schools

Given the decentralized nature of alternative schooling, communities assume responsibility for tasks otherwise funded and managed by national ministries. One of the most significant of these tasks is the hiring and firing of qualified and certified teachers. With limited resources for teacher recruitment and remuneration, alternative schools resort to hiring community members as teachers, some of whom may not have more than a primary school certificate. As opposed to public and private school teachers who have undergone a minimal level of training, alternative school teachers are often not held to any national standards, which may have implications for student achievement. Insufficient resources can lead to teacher shortages, as teachers become unmotivated without sustainable compensation.

In some countries, lack of government responsibility and support for alternative schools has become a serious issue, particularly between civil society organizations and Ministries of Education. In addition, data on community school students are generally absent in national statistics with the exception of a few countries where questions are raised about the scope and capacity of community school providers and the financial and structural limitations to their work in theory and practice. Limited data on enrolment, student characteristics, achievement, and educational outcomes create challenges for policymakers, teachers, and researchers alike.

With few policies guiding the administration of alternative schools, particularly in the areas of teacher recruitment, teachers' rights and responsibilities, and remuneration, alternative schools in most African countries have a range of teachers with various qualifications. Limited teacher support and supervision remain a challenge in contexts where head teachers have minimal technical skills for monitoring and evaluation, and non-governmental organization and donor agency assessments are sporadically conducted. Finally, the broader problem of poverty and illiteracy among teachers and students creates a harsh and challenging environment for teaching and learning; health and nutrition of teachers and students, family life, and responsibilities outside of the classroom can further complicate the process of schooling.

Comprehensive analysis of outcomes for alternative school students, such as the percentage of students who progress to higher levels of education and/or participate in formal or informal employment or vocational training, remains incomplete. The few published programme assessments show that poor student performance and high dropout and repetition rates prevail in several alternative schools. External conditions may also play a role in the opportunities accessible to completers. It is also argued that alternative schooling accentuates social stratification, as these schools are considered inferior to the government public schools. Besides, community schools may not provide access to inclusion in broader societal life. By not participating in national systems of education, students may be excluded from participation in the dominant

economic, social, and political milieu. For example, tent and mobile schools for nomadic children have only short-term goals of basic literacy and numeracy. Such cases could indicate that alternative schooling maintains social disadvantage by isolating communities from larger societies, and emphasizing immediately relevant education, rather than a long-term investment.

Various studies cite alternative schools as exacerbating issues of cost (placing responsibility on communities rather than the state), accountability, regulation, monitoring, and evaluation of school quality and student outcomes. Given the diversity of alternative school models, significant challenges remain for students attending community schools for the purposes of economic and social mobility. Moreover, the conditions in which community school management and governance take place cannot be ignored.

On the positive side, some have also argued that students gain *more* from their experiences in community schools (as opposed to government schools) as they learn in ways that promote critical thinking, independence, and self-reliance, thereby encouraging a sense of confidence for subsequent levels of schooling and/or employment. Community schools can become sites of social capital formation by promoting communication and collaboration among students, teachers, parents, and community members in areas beyond academic instruction. Alternative schools may have the potential to build stronger relationships between supply and demand side variables by catering costs, community engagement, and teaching and learning approaches to the lives of students. These links are not generally characteristic of national education systems in which teacher certification and qualifications, and curricula are more stringent. As one of the most decentralized efforts at the primary level, alternative schools may be held more accountable and responsive to local needs in relation to public schools.

Activity 7

What would you consider to be the most serious challenge facing community schools in Africa today? If they exist in your country, would you consider them to be inferior to normal governmental schools? Why?

Activity 8

Investigate the way in which at least five community schools are governed and managed in your country, and produce an investigative feature story on their conditions of management and governance emphasizing on issues such as the financial responsibilities placed on communities rather than the state, accountability, regulation and monitoring and evaluation of school quality and student outcomes.

Activity 9

To what extent do you think that alternative schools are more accountable and responsive to local needs in relation to public schools?

Unit 4

Indigenous Education

Increasingly, the inclusion of indigenous models of education (methods and content) as an alternative within the scope of formal and non-formal education systems, has come to represent a significant factor contributing to the success of those members of indigenous communities who choose to access these systems, both as students/learners and as teachers/instructors.

As an educational method, the inclusion of indigenous ways of knowing, learning, instructing, teaching and training, has been viewed by many critical and postmodern scholars as important for ensuring that students/learners and teachers/instructors (whether indigenous or non-indigenous) are able to benefit from education in a culturally sensitive manner that draws upon, utilizes, promotes and enhances awareness of indigenous traditions.

For indigenous students or learners, and teachers or instructors, the inclusion of these methods often enhances educational effectiveness, success and learning outcomes by providing education that adheres to their own inherent perspectives, experiences and worldview. For non-indigenous students and teachers, education using such methods often has the effect of raising awareness of the individual traditions and collective experience of surrounding indigenous communities and peoples, thereby promoting greater respect for and appreciation of the cultural realities of these communities and peoples.

In terms of educational content, the inclusion of indigenous knowledge, traditions, perspectives, worldviews and conceptions within curricula, instructional materials and textbooks and course books have largely the same effects as the inclusion of indigenous methods in education. Indigenous students and teachers benefit from enhanced academic effectiveness, success and learning outcomes, while non-indigenous students/learners and teachers often have greater awareness, respect, and appreciation for indigenous communities and peoples in consequence of the content that is shared during the course of educational pursuits.

In Africa, traditional learning and knowledge production form indigenous education. Moumouni in his book *Education in Africa* summarized indigenous education in the following four strands. Firstly, great importance is attached to education in society,

especially to its collective social nature, meaning that it is holistic or all-encompassing. Secondly, it is intimately tied to the social life of the people, both in a material and spiritual sense. Thirdly, it is multivalent in character, both in terms of its goals and the means it employs. Finally, it is gradual and progressive in its achievement and in conformity with the successive stages of the physical, emotional and mental development of the learner. Admittedly, Africa has many cultural areas but there are some similarities in cultural pursuits and objectives. Indigenous education is passed on from adults to children, and is of general nature, which is supposed to be disseminated to everyone in society at certain stages in life. Indigenous education systems are very useful areas for understanding contemporary educational issues, especially in adult education.

Fafunwa identified seven cardinal goals of traditional African education. They include (a) developing a child's latent physical skills, (b) fostering character, (c) inculcation of respect for elders and those in positions of authority, (d) developing intellectual skills, (e) acquisition of specific vocational training and instilling a positive attitude towards honest labour, (f) promoting a sense of belonging and active participation in family and community affairs, (g) and helping to understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community at large. However, the creative and innovative traditions in Africa have been masked by historical mis representations by outsiders, as well as obscured domestically and internationally for reasons of pedagogy and policy. From an early age students in Africa learn about the major inventions of the Europeans , but they seldom learn about grassroots or higher level interventions and innovations developed by individuals, institutions or communities within Africa.

Activity 10

In traditional African societies education served the purpose of enabling the individual to play societal roles. List the various aspects of traditional African education that still exists today and show their relevance to contemporary African societies.

Activity 11

Provide relevant examples of how young people in traditional societies learnt from older members of society. Describe some of the activities that took place in your society when learning took place through apprenticeship and when learners acquired knowledge through observation, learning and doing (e.g. circumcision, traditional medicine, blacksmithing, hut building, fishing, hunting).

Activity 12

Prepare a feature story to be published in the *Le Monde* or *The Financial Times* to convince westerners that Africa had strong traditional education systems which can still be fully utilized today and which can even be of great significance to Western countries, arguing that there has been widespread historical misrepresentation of Africa's cultures, traditions and values.

Unit 5

Lessons from Alternative Schooling

The most important thing which the alternative schooling programmes teach us is that the traditional formal model in education can be changed, on a large scale. And this can clearly be done in very poor places, with very limited resources, with very strong results. These programmes demonstrate that child-centred, active pedagogy, with heavy involvement of the parents and their community in general in the learning of their children, works. But the challenge is always how to implement this model in any particular place, rich or poor, and the appropriate solution will differ from place to place depending on local history and traditions, socio-cultural and political-economic conditions. Secondly, these successful change programmes have not simply altered one feature or another of the forms of formal schooling, but represent a comprehensive reorganization and revision of the standard model of schooling, in such a way that the learning programme which may be taking place a building called a school, is far more effective than what we have typically seen, even in very good schools for very well-off children

These programmes also demonstrate that teachers are not obstacles to fundamental school change, and that they can be the promoters and agents of such change, even when they are working in very difficult situations, are not necessarily formally well educated, and are often very poorly paid. They, like the equally disadvantaged young people for whom they are responsible, can and do accomplish remarkable feats of learning and change in quite short periods. These successful change programmes typically spread by an innovation diffusion process – teachers learning from other teachers, sharing their practical professional knowledge and teaching skills with other teachers, and together exploring how their shared and growing knowledge and experience can help them all.

While some alternative schooling programmes have grown under government sponsorship, others have never received any governmental support, and many others have been or are working well under various forms of combined sponsorship/ownership. This is a critical issue as government agencies and bureaucracies (and private sector ones as well) have a predictable tendency to want to command, decree,

regulate, control, supervise, organize, and generally keep things that fall within their jurisdiction “administratively tidy”. In contrast, alternative schooling programmes can be haphazard in nature, not fully predictable or controllable, and constantly changing at the local level as experiences are learnt. Sometimes, these programmes have encountered at least some form of resistance from the administrative officials of the formal traditional education systems. Governments may therefore try to promote cases such as these by getting out of the way, and loosen control and regulation. They can also provide space for, and indeed encourage, such experimentation, uncomfortable as that may sometimes be.

Another lesson is that children do not have to be forced or coerced into learning. Traditional schooling restricts and tries to channel the learning potential of children; these programmes work to unleash it. The multi-grading system used in alternative schools has proven to be pedagogically superior to age-graded schooling. It matches much more closely what is now known about how children actually develop. Early childhood education is as important (probably more so) as the primary school itself in developing ultimate learning outcomes. People start learning at birth, and learn continuously thereafter. Most of these programmes have broken the age-specific patterns of the forms of formal schooling. Continuing education or lifelong learning is not something that starts after one has completed formal schooling. It starts at birth and ends at death, and formal schooling can be as much a hindrance as a help in its continuance in the crucial years between early childhood and adulthood and beyond. These alternative programmes demonstrate that, even with limited resources, a dysfunctional pattern can be broken.

In Africa, alternative schooling programmes exist in large part with support of local and international organisations and donor agencies. The most pressing substantive concerns for these programmes are whether or not (and for how long) various schools will last, given the involvement of and dependence on various organisations for their survival. While not all schools share such challenges, closer attention must be paid to the foundations of these institutions, and their sustainability in the event that support is no longer available. With the Education for All targets set at least until 2015, it is not quite clear whether or not agencies will continue their support if and when primary education is no longer popular.

While alternative schooling increases access and facilitates an ‘Opportunity to Learn’, questions have been raised about the long-term goals of alternative schools, as well as their relevance and value in the face of macro-structural challenges such as high unemployment rates, urban/rural disparities, and local political, cultural, and social conditions. Whether alternative education is reproducing existing inequality among resource-scarce country youth is one of the most imperative concerns to be explored in future investigations. Acknowledging that alternative schooling now plays an integral role in resource-scarce contexts, a more constructive debate will focus on local responses, long-term educational, employment, and other outcomes, and the



policy implications for relationships among governments, civil society organisations, and donor agencies. Statistics such as the number of schools, the names of local and international organisations involved, and student performance on national examinations are essential for policy improvement in this sub-sector.

Activity 13

Write a feature story to be published in a major daily newspaper in your country on the most important lesson that you have learnt after receiving training from this module.

Activity 14

For questions of sustainability, would you recommend that donor agencies continue to provide financial and even technical support to community schools in Africa? If your answer is no, what other recommendation would you make?

Activity 15

Which areas concerning alternative schooling would you want to see further research on? As a journalist, can you make a case for this?

Conclusion

Alternative schooling exists in Africa because country governments do not have the capacity to provide primary schooling for all. Generally, public school systems include the promulgation of a national, standard curriculum, the establishment of sanctioned institutions of learning, the linking of selected forms of education within national systems of examination, qualification, and certification, and the legitimisation of certain socially acceptable values and ideals. Alternative schools on the other hand are set up by individuals or groups in communities to cater for the learning needs of millions of young people who have had no access to primary schooling, or start but never finish, or finish but do not attain basic levels of learning. There are many underlying issues associated with this including the question of lack of resources, or resources poorly used. It should however be noted that the current traditional forms of education does not fully serve the learning needs of vast numbers of young people, particularly those marginalized by circumstances of birth.

Further Reading

1. Alternative Primary Education and Social Stratification in Resource-Scarce Countries: Theoretical, Substantive and Methodological Debates in Educate Vol. 10, N°1, 2010, pp. 6 - 18 by Michelle Chama Mwalimu.
2. Planning for successful alternative schooling : a possible route to Education for All in 2008 by Joseph P. Farrell and Ash Hartwell, International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO.
3. Nonformal and Alternative Approaches to provide Primary Level Education for Out-of-School Children in May 1990 by UNESCO Institute for Education.

References

1. Abbot, J.; Ryan, T. 2001. The unfinished revolution: Learning, human behavior, communities and the political paradox. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
2. Ahmed, M. 1975. The economies of non-formal education: Resources, costs and benefits. New York: Praeger.
3. Ahmed, M. 1993. Primary Education for All: Learning from the BRAC experience. A case study. Dhaka: Abel Press.
4. Arboleda, J. 1994 "Participation and partnership in the Colombian Escuela Nueva". In: S. Shaeffer (Ed.), Partnerships and participation in basic education (Vol. 2, Case 5). Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
5. Association for the Development of Education in Africa (2006) Complementary Education Programs in ADEA Countries. Paper prepared for the Biennale on Education in Africa. Libreville, Gabon, 27-31 March, 2006.
6. Bah-Layla, I. 1998. Les classes multigrades en Guinée. Formation et emploi des formateurs. Les centres NAFA ou écoles de seconde chance. Le programme de petites subventions aux écoles. Country case paper prepared for the UNESCO/World Bank seminar: Improving Learning: Perspectives for Primary Education in Rural Africa. Lusaka, Zambia.
7. Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (2008) About Us. Available from: <http://www.brac.net/> [accessed 15 October 2008].

8. Casely-Hayford, L. and Gharthey, A. (2007) *The Leap to Literacy and Life Change in Northern Ghana: An Impact Assessment of School for Life (SFL)*. School for Life Impact Assessment Division.
9. Chisamu, Y. (2008) *The Role of Community Participation in Running Community Schools in the Face of Declared Free Primary Education in Zambia: A Study of Lusaka*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Rotterdam, Netherlands: Lund University.
10. Chondoka, 2006 *Situation Analysis of Community Schools in Central Province of Zambia*. Lusaka: University of Zambia.
11. Coombs, P. 1976. "Nonformal education: myths, realities and opportunities." In: *Comparative Education Review*, 20(3), 281-293.
12. Coombs, P.; Ahmed, M. 1974. *Attacking rural poverty: How nonformal education can help*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.
13. DeStefano, J. 2005. *Meeting EFA: Mali - Community schools*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development. Retrieved from www.equip123.net in October 2007.
14. DeStefano, J. 2006. *Meeting EFA: Zambia community schools*. Washington, DC: Academy for International Development. Retrieved from www.equip123.net in October 2007.
15. DeStefano, J.; Hartwell, A.; Schuh Moore, A.-M.; Benbow, J. 2005. *Meeting EFA: Cost effectiveness of complementary approaches*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development. Retrieved from www.equip123.net in October 2007.
16. Evans, D.R. 1981. *The planning of non-formal education*. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.
17. Farrell, J.P. 1989. "International lessons for school effectiveness: The view from the developing world". In: M. Holmes, K.A. Leithwood and D.F. Musella (Eds.), *Educational policy for effective schools* (pp. 57-70). New York: Teachers College Press/Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
18. Farrell, J.P. 1997. "A retrospective on educational planning in comparative education". In: *Comparative Education Review*, 41(3), 277-313.
19. Farrell, J.P. 1998. *Improving learning: Perspectives for primary education in rural Africa*. Core comparative background paper prepared for the UNESCO/World Bank seminar on Improving learning: Perspectives for primary education learning:

- Perspectives for primary education in rural Africa, 6 - 11 December 1998, Lusaka, Zambia.
20. Farrell, J.P. 2000. "Why is educational reform so difficult? Similar descriptions, different prescriptions, failed explanations". In: *Curriculum Inquiry*, 30(1), 83-103.
 21. Farrell, J.P. 2001. "Can we really change the forms of formal schooling, and would it make a difference if we could?". In: *Curriculum Inquiry*, 31(4), 289-308.
 22. Farrell, J.P. 2002. "The AKF experience compared to emerging alternatives to formal schooling". In: S. Anderson (Ed.), *Improving schools through teacher development: Case studies of the Aga Khan Foundation projects in East Africa* (pp. 247-270). Amsterdam: Swets and Zeitlinger.
 23. Farrell, J.P. 2004a. *Alternative pedagogies and learning in alternative schooling systems in developing nations*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Comparative and International Education Society, 9-12 March 2004, Salt Lake City, UH.
 24. Farrell, J.P. 2004b. *The Egyptian community schools program: A case study*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development, www.equipl23.net
 25. Farrell, J.P. 2007a. "Community education in developing countries: the quiet revolution in schooling". In: F.M. Connelly, M.F. He, and J. Phillion (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Curriculum and Instruction* (pp. 369-391). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
 26. Farrell, J.P. 2007b. "Education in the years to come: What we can learn from alternative education". In: M. Mason and J. Hawkins (Eds.), *Changing education: Leadership, innovation, and development in a globalizing Asia Pacific* (pp. 199-224). Honolulu and Hong Kong: University of Hong Kong, Comparative Education Research Centre.
 27. Farrell, J.P. 2007c. "Literacy and international development: Education and literacy as basic human rights". In D. Olson and N. Torrance (Eds.), *Cambridge International Handbook of Literacy*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
 28. Farrell, J.P.; Connelly, F.M. 1998. *Final retrospective report: Forum workshops on educational reform in Egypt*. Report to UNICEF-Egypt and the Ministry of Education-Egypt.
 29. Farrell, J.P.; Heyneman, S.P. (Eds.). 1989. *Textbooks in the developing world: Economic and educational choices*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

30. Francis, P. A. et al (1998) *Hard Lessons: Primary School, Community, and Social Capital in Nigeria*. World Bank Technical Papers No. 420. Africa Region Series. Washington DC: World Bank.
31. Gardner, H. 1993. *The unschooled mind: how children think and how schools should teach*. New York: Basic Books.
32. Hamaimbo, G. (2006) *Community Schools in Zambia*. Unpublished manuscript. Lusaka, Zambia: University of Zambia School of Education.
33. Hartwell, A. 1995. *Review of Egypt's community school project*. Cairo: UNICEF-Egypt.
34. Hartwell, A. 2006. *Equip 2 case study: School for life. Northern Ghana*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development. Retrieved from www.equip123.net in October 2007.
35. Hoppers, W. (2005) *Community Schools as an Educational Alternative in Africa: A Critique*, *International Review of Education* 51, 2/3, 115-137.
36. Hoppers, W. (2006) *Non-Formal Education and Basic Education Reform: A Conceptual Review*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP); United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
37. Jones, P. W. (2007). *World Bank Financing of Education: Lending, Learning, and Development* (2nd edn.). Abingdon: Routledge.
38. Kelly, M. J. (1991) *Education in a Declining Economy: The Case of Zambia 1975-1985* (EDI Development Policy Case Series. Analytical Case Studies; no. 8. Washington, DC: World Bank.
39. Kelly, M.J. 1998. *Initiatives from Zambia. Multigrade teaching, initial literacy in a local language, community schools. Determining learning outcomes for the improvement of quality*. Country case paper prepared for the UNESCO/World Bank seminar: *Improving Learning: Perspectives for Primary Education in Rural Africa*, 6-11 December 1998, Lusaka, Zambia.
40. Miller-Grandvaux, Y. and Yoder, K. (2002) *A Literature Review of Community Schools in Africa*. Washington, DC: USAID, Bureau for Africa, Office of Sustainable Development.
41. Olson, D. 2003. *Psychological theory and educational reform: How school remakes mind and society*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

42. Report 2010. Available from <http://www.unesco.org/en/efareport> [accessed 29 March 2010].
43. Republic of Mali, Ministry of Basic Education. 1998. Amélioration de l'apprentissage. Les perspectives pour l'enseignement primaire en milieu rural en Afrique. Country case report prepared for UNESCO/World Bank seminar Improving Learning: Perspectives for Primary Education in Rural Africa, 6-11 December 1998, Lusaka, Zambia.
44. Shadiduzzaman, A.; Haggerty, M. 2005. Reflections and perspectives of BRAC trainers on monthly refresher programmes. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/University of Toronto. Comparative International and Development Education Centre.
45. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. 2005. Children out of school: Measuring exclusion from primary education. Montréal: UNESCO.
46. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2008) EFA Global Monitoring Report. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2010) EFA - Global Monitoring.
47. USAID (2004) Meeting EFA: Zambia Community Schools. Available from <http://www.egui123.net/docs/e2-ZambiaCaseStudy.pdf> [accessed 20 October 2007].
48. Zaalouk, M. 1995. The children of the Nile: the community schools project in Upper Egypt. Paris: UNICEF.
49. Zaalouk, M. 2004. The pedagogy of empowerment: Community schools as a social movement in y Egypt. Cairo: The American University in Cairo Press.
50. Zambian Open Community Schools (2007) ZOCS Profile. Lusaka, Zambia: ZOCS.

Module 13

Inclusive Education

Overview

According to UNESCO, inclusive education is a process that involves the transformation of schools and other centres of learning to cater for all children – including boys and girls, students from ethnic and linguistic minorities, rural populations, those affected by HIV and AIDS, and those with disabilities and difficulties in learning and to provide learning opportunities for all youth and adults as well. Its aim is to eliminate exclusion that is a consequence of negative attitudes and a lack of response to diversity in race, economic status, social class, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation and ability. The module introduces media practitioners and communication officers in government education ministries and NGOs to the concept of inclusive education, which is an important component of the education system in the world and particularly in Africa. Education takes place in many contexts, both formal and non-formal, and within families and the wider community. Consequently, inclusive education is not a marginal issue but is central to the achievement of high quality education for all learners and the development of more inclusive societies. Inclusive education is essential to achieve social equity and is a constituent element of lifelong learning.

General Objective

To provide information and awareness to journalists and other media practitioners that would enable them to participate effectively in both national and international debates and discussions on EFA for the promotion of access for all learners.

Specific Objectives

By the end of this module, the user should be able to:

- ❖ Understand the meaning of inclusive education and demystify the notions surrounding inclusion demonstrating that challenges can be overcome through a willingness to change attitudes regarding inclusion.
- ❖ Appreciate the practical issues surrounding inclusion at the school level examining the roles of teachers, parents and educational policy makers as well as curricula in dealing with inclusive education.

- ❖ Identify gaps and strategies in order to take steps to ensure that inclusion is achieved within the educational systems of their countries and that every child has access to a quality education.
- ❖ Elaborate on at least two policy and practice issues around inclusive education in their communities.

Expected Outcomes

- ❖ Demonstrated knowledge of inclusive education and prevailing policy and practice issues in African countries, and how these relate to factors such as quality and cost-effectiveness.
- ❖ Increased competencies in reporting on issues around inclusive education in various forms of the media in Africa.
- ❖ Increased support towards inclusive education by educational policy-makers, educators, governments, NGOs and international organizations impacting policy on both private and public education in Africa.

Introduction

While progress is being made towards the Education for All (EFA) goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as demonstrated by the drop in numbers of out-of-school children and increasing enrolment rates, there is now a stronger focus on those learners who are still out of school or are hard to reach. More attention is also being paid to the many children and young people who attend school but who are excluded from learning, who may not complete the full cycle of primary education or who do not receive an education of good quality. In Unit 1, users are introduced to the rationale for inclusive education. In Unit 2 the focus is on situations in which children are excluded. Unit 3 tackles policy and practice issues around Inclusive Education. Unit 4 gives some insight into ways in which policies can be better pursued. Unit 5 examines how people's attitudes and values should change for effective policy development. Unit 6 discusses how the Policy Cycle can be supported at varying levels.

Unit 1

Rationale for Inclusive Education

The World Declaration on Education for All, adopted in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990, sets out an overall vision: universalizing access to education for all children, youth and adults, and promoting equity. This constitutes identifying the barriers that many

encounter in accessing educational opportunities and identifying the resources needed to overcome those barriers. Inclusive education is a process of strengthening the capacity of the education system to reach out to all learners. This makes it a key strategy to achieve Education for All. As an overall principle, it should guide all education policies and practices, starting from the fact that education is a basic human right and the foundation for a more just and equitable society.

The World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, held in Salamanca, Spain, June 1994 considered the fundamental policy shifts required to promote the approach of inclusive education, thereby enabling schools to serve all children, particularly those with special educational needs. Although the immediate focus of the Salamanca Conference was on special needs education, its conclusion was that: ‘Special needs education – an issue of equal concern to countries of the North and of the South – cannot advance in isolation. It has to form part of an overall educational strategy and, indeed, of new social and economic policies. It calls for major reform of the ordinary school’. An ‘inclusive’ education system can only be created if ordinary schools become more inclusive. They should become better at educating all children in their communities. The Conference proclaimed that: ‘regular schools with [an inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system].’

This vision was reaffirmed by the World Education Forum meeting in Dakar, April 2000, held to review the progress made since 1990. The Forum declared that Education for All must take account of the needs of the poor and the disadvantaged, including working children, remote rural dwellers and nomads, ethnic and linguistic minorities, children, young people and adults affected by conflict, HIV and AIDS, hunger and poor health, and those with disabilities or special learning needs. It also emphasized the special focus on girls and women.

According to UNESCO, inclusion is a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all children, youth and adults through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing and eliminating exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision that covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children.

There are several justifications for this. First, there is an *educational justification*: the requirement for inclusive schools to educate all children together means that they have to develop ways of teaching that respond to individual differences and that therefore benefit all children. Second, there is a *social justification*: inclusive schools are able to change attitudes toward diversity by educating all children together, and form the basis for a just and non-discriminatory society. Thirdly, there is an *economic justification*: it is less costly to establish and maintain schools that educate all children together than to set up a complex system of different types of schools specialising in different groups of children.

Legal frameworks in support of inclusion 1948-2007

- 2007 - United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples
- 2006 - Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
- 2005 - Convention on the Protection and Promotion of Diversity in Cultural Expressions
- 2005 - UN Disability Convention (in progress) Promotes the rights of persons with disabilities and mainstreaming disability in development.
- 2001 - EFA Flagship on The Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities: Towards Inclusion
- 2000 - World Education Forum - Framework for Action, Dakar, (EFA goals) + Millennium Development Goals Ensuring that all children have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education by 2015. Focus on marginalized + girls.
- 1999 - Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour
- 1994 - Salamanca Statement & Framework for Action on Special Needs Education “... *schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. “ This should include disabled and gifted children, street and working children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities and children from other disadvantaged or marginalised areas or groups.” (para 3)*
- 1993 - The UN Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities Rule 6 Not only affirms the equal rights of all children, youth and adults with disabilities to education but also states that education should be provided in “an integrated school settings” and in the “general school settings.”
- 1990 - The World Declaration on Education for All (*Jomtien Declaration*)

- 1990 - International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families.
- 1989 - UN Convention on the Rights of the Child - Ensures the right for all children to receive education without discrimination on any grounds
- 1989 - Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries.
- 1979 - Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.
- 1965 - International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.
- 1960 - Convention against Discrimination in Education.
- 1948 - Universal Declaration of Human Rights - Ensures the right to free and compulsory elementary education for all children.

Inclusive education differs from previously held notions of ‘integration’ and ‘mainstreaming’, which tended to be concerned principally with disability and ‘special educational needs’ and implied learners changing or becoming ‘ready for’ accommodation by the mainstream. By contrast, inclusion is about the child’s right to participate and the school’s duty to accept. Booth (1996) described inclusive education as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education.

This notion is supported by the MINEDAF VII Declaration. In 2002, in Dar es Salaam at MINEDAF VIII, African ministers adopted inclusive education as ideal for addressing exclusion and discrimination in the education systems of their respective countries. They also preferred inclusive education to special education. They argued that “It has been proven that the methods used in inclusive classes make it possible to improve the performance of all pupils. Contrary to the special education institution which has the risk of maintaining children and teenagers with special educational needs outside the pale of society for the rest of their lives, the inclusive school constitutes an ideal training ground for them to succeed their social integration.”

Activity 1

Write down key words you may use in defining inclusive education
From the definition above what challenges are countries likely to face when implementing inclusive education

Unit 2

Situations in Which Children Can be Excluded in Education

Proponents of inclusive education aim at ending exclusion in the education system. This Unit looks very briefly at the various situations in which children are excluded.

(a) Children with Disabilities

Children with disabilities include those with learning, hearing, and developmental handicaps. There are several situations in which children with disabilities are excluded from attaining education. Some traditional beliefs and practices have greatly contributed to this. In some communities today, parents still view disabled children as a curse on their families. Some families keep their children indoors and do not allow them to go to school. However, there are a number of challenges in regular schools. Most of the schools in African countries do not have structures or facilities that are disabled-child friendly and this discourages the disabled children and as well as their parents. For instance most schools do not have disabled-friendly sanitary facilities such as toilets that can take care of children with walking difficulties. Children also with visual impairment and mental retardation problems are also affected. They are mostly not given an opportunity to attend school. At times the school environment itself is not friendly. Fellow pupils are not friendly and most teachers do not have skills and competencies to attend to special needs education children. Consequently such types of children do not get much needed attention and they are left out of the learning process. To respond to this issue, a few countries in Africa have recently introduced special needs education or introduced policies that mainstream such children in the regular school system.

(b) Gender

Issues of gender also continue to contribute towards discrimination in education. Some traditional practices in some communities have preferred to focus on educating boys rather than girls and this deprives girls their right to education. In responding to that disparity many programmes in the education sector run by various stakeholders have been focusing more on the education of girls. This has resulted in getting more girls attending school and achieving than previously. In some African countries, the trend is already being reversed with more boys dropping out of school or not attending school at all. Currently different institutions and educationists are promoting co-education to provide an equal footing for both boys and girls. Refer to Section IV, Module 14 on Education and Gender for more information.

(c) Ethnic Minorities

On account of cultural, ethnic or religious practices a number of children get excluded from school. Groups identify each other with a particular cultural heritage in what can be called ethnic group. Examples of minority ethnic groups include, the Bakilayi, and Karimajong in Uganda, the Ijaw, and Ogoni in the Rivers State of, Nigeria, the Wayeyi, Bakalaka and, the Bakagaladi in Botswana, the Herero in Angola, the Konkomba in Ghana, the, Twa in Burundi, the Bakweri and, Bagyeli in Cameroun, the Sengwer, Maasai and Ogiek in Kenya, the, Haratin and Black Africans in, Mauritania, the Afar in Djibouti, the, Khoisan in South Africa. (Recognizing Minorities in Africa, Briefing Paper by Samia Slimane). Due to discrimination based on politics and religion, children from such ethnic groups are denied some rights or privileges in society. UNESCO for instance, established in 2008 that in Nigeria, for example 15% of children aged between 6 and 16 were not in formal school because their parents preferred them to attend Quranic School. Awareness or community mobilization campaigns can help address these anomalies.

(d) Language Minorities

Minority languages are those spoken by very few people in a particular society and are often disregarded during the teaching and learning processes. According to Wikipedia majority of languages in the world are minority as statistics show that there are roughly 5,000 to 7000 languages spoken worldwide against a total of 193 sovereign states. These languages include those spoken by remote ethnic groups and sign language and are often marginalized. Children from language minorities are unlikely to attend school or continue with education. To address marginalization of education for minority groups, some countries have introduced teaching in the mother tongue. UNESCO GMR 2009 indicates that children learning in their local language in their study increased attendance by 10%, which means rural disadvantaged children who do not learn in their language have higher chances of dropping out.

(e) Fragile States

Exclusion from education is also common in fragile states. By definition, 'States are fragile when state structures lack political will and/or capacity to provide the basic functions needed for poverty reduction, development and to safeguard the security and human rights of their population' (OECD DAC, 2007). According to UNESCO, many children in fragile states grapple with conflict, unrest and volatile political environments. These countries are characterized by a lack of political commitment,

weak institutions or a deliberate disregard for human rights. These citizens include a third of all people living on less than a dollar a day and half of all children who die before the age of five. Categories of fragile states include (a) those manifesting deterioration (conflict/risk of conflict, (b) declining capacity and/or will), arrested development (lack of will; moderate or high capacity), (c) post-conflict transition (risk of conflict; low capacity, (d) high or low will) or early recovery situations (may be post-conflict or not, (f) high will but low capacity). Addressing governance issues and increased investment in education in these states is key to ensuring access to human rights including education.

(f) Children from poor or remote areas

In many cases poverty or lack of resources contributes to high levels of illiteracy in communities. According to UNESCO, “Being poor is a universal marker for a restricted opportunity in education (UNESCO, GMR 2009, page 78). Rural or remote areas like slums, nomadic areas make it difficult for children to access resources for education. The resources include trained teachers, teaching and learning materials and classrooms. Similarly countries that are poor are more likely to have many out of school children than the rich ones. Deliberate programs to provide education resources to poor countries and remote areas make it easy for children to attend school.

Unit 3

Policy and Practice Issues Around Inclusive Education

Provision of inclusive education is being challenged by a number of policy and practice issues. For instance, some countries do not have comprehensive policies on Inclusive Education. In terms of financing the cost of special education for children with serious physical or mental problems is much greater than for normal children. Consequently, many developing nations feel they must give it lower priority than that for normal children. Teachers who can deal with handicapped or problem children and those in need of remedial teaching must receive special training. As yet the provision of such training in Africa is limited. Few countries have offered any significant incentives by way of salary increments or career prospects to encourage teachers to take up the special training required for special or remedial education. Gifted children tend to get an inappropriate type of education because their teachers are usually not trained to dealing with their needs. The tendency for school authorities to provide education geared for the average child militates against making special provision either for gifted

or less able pupils. Very few organisations have focused campaigns on inclusive education.

Overall, we cannot speak about inclusion without considering issues of costs. National budgets are often limited, official development assistance is lacking and parents often cannot afford the direct and indirect costs of education. Families often have to prioritize between sending a child to school or having him/her bring in revenues to feed the family. There is a risk, therefore, that inclusive education is considered too costly for governments, agencies and even parents, although the amount estimated to reach EFA (US \$11 billion) is exceedingly small viewed on a global scale.

Estimated additional costs to reach EFA

According to estimates by Oxfam, the financial support needed to reach EFA corresponds to:

- ❖ four days' worth of global military spending
- ❖ half of what is spent on toys in the United States every year
- ❖ less than what Europeans spend on computer games or mineral water per year
- ❖ less than 0.1 per cent of the world's annual gross national product

Source: Oxfam 2000. Achieving Universal Primary Education. London, Oxfam.

A more cost-efficient education system would provide the miracle. The institutional context in which public spending takes place requires more attention than it has so far received. This includes optimizing the use of resources in order to achieve a higher cost-benefit relationship between inputs and results. In OECD countries between 5 per cent and 40 per cent of students drop out, finishing with low skills and high rates of unemployment. Among those who drop out from schools are many pupils with negative learning experiences and a history of having to repeat years because of poor performance.

The financial resources aimed at the students who repeat could be better spent on improving the quality of education for all, especially if we consider the low impact of repetition on the level of students' outcomes and its negative effect on students' self-esteem. Such investment would include teachers' training, supply of material, ICTs and the provision of additional support for students who experience difficulties in the education process.

In reality, interventions to promote inclusion do not need to be costly. Several cost-effective measures to promote inclusive quality education have been developed in countries with scarce resources. These include multi-grade, multi-age and multi-ability classrooms, initial literacy in mother tongues, training-of-trainer models for professional development, linking students in pre-service teacher training with schools, peer teaching and converting special schools into resource centres that provide expertise and support to clusters of regular schools.

Case Study 1

Challenges of learning difficulties programme in Malawi

The Learning Difficulties Programme is one of the major Special Needs Education Programmes in Malawi. The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training established this programme in 1996 to provide special needs education to children with learning difficulties in primary and secondary schools.

The programme has two main sub-programmes namely Teacher Training and Resource Classroom service.

The term “Learning Difficulties” in Malawi encompasses all primary and secondary school learners with mental retardation, specific learning disabilities, behavioural /emotional difficulties, language and communication difficulties, physical and health impairments.

The Learning Difficulties Programme is one of the major special needs education programmes in Malawi. Its mission is to effectively include, educate, retain and support all learners with learning difficulties in Malawi through provision of quality special needs education. The Learning Difficulties Programme includes teacher training, resource classroom service, assessment and placement, and parent support groups.

The Learning Difficulties Programme was established after it was realised that only the visually and hearing impaired learners were being catered for in the education system. This programme is the least developed special needs education programme. In most educational decisions, the programme is usually omitted; for instance, during the procurement of resources and monthly funding.

The programme has established 75 resource classroom centres in primary and 3 in secondary schools serving 1,115 learners. However, according to EMIS (2007) there are 25, 076 learners identified having learning difficulties in primary schools in Malawi. This clearly demonstrates that many learners with learning difficulties are not accessing quality special needs education.

These resource classroom centres aim at preparing learners with learning difficulties before inclusion into the mainstream as the government policy emphasizes the inclusion of learners with special educational needs as much as possible into the regular schools.

The major challenge in the management of special needs education for learners with learning difficulties is inadequate funding. The prioritisation of resources leaves out the learners with learning difficulties. Most schools do not receive specialised teaching and learning resources neither from the district education office nor Supplies Unit.

Specialist teachers are not requested to budget for their resource centres. There is the wrong thinking that provision of resources to resource centres is the responsibility of Montfort teachers alone.

From 2000-2007, the head of the Learning Difficulties Programme has been submitting to the Director of Supplies Unit in Blantyre the list and quantity of teaching, learning and assistive device resources required for all resource classroom centres across the country. Surprisingly, the Supplies Unit has only been procuring and distributing specialised teaching learning and assistive device resources for learners with visual and hearing impairments. This has resulted into constricting the specialist teachers' choice of teaching strategies and in turn affecting the learner performance. Specialist teachers have only been using the locally available resources. The teaching of learners with learning difficulties requires both local and commercial resources.

Activity 2

Discuss (as individual, in pairs or in groups) the main challenges of the learning difficulties program. What actions should stakeholders undertake to address the challenges?

Unit 4

Advancing Policy

Creating inclusive education as a key to establishing inclusive societies would depend on getting all stakeholders agree on a common vision supported by a number of specific steps to be taken to put this vision into practice. The move towards inclusion should be based on clearly articulated principles that address system-wide development and multi-sectoral approaches involving all levels of society. The barriers to inclusion can be reduced through active collaboration between policy-makers, education personnel and other stakeholders, including the active involvement of members of the local community, such as political and religious leaders, local education officials and the media.

For this UNESCO recommends the following important steps:

- ❖ Carry out local situation analyses on the scope of the issue, available resources and their utilization in support of inclusion and inclusive education
- ❖ Mobilize opinion on the right to education for everybody
- ❖ Build consensus around the concepts of inclusive and quality education
- ❖ Reform legislation to support inclusive education in line with international conventions, declarations and recommendations
- ❖ Support local capacity-building to promote development towards inclusive education
- ❖ Develop ways to measure the impact of inclusive and quality education
- ❖ Develop school- and community-based mechanisms to identify children not in school and find ways to help them enter school and remain there
- ❖ Help teachers to understand their role in education and that inclusion of diversity in the classroom is an opportunity, not a problem

Case Study 2:

Poor, ethnic-minority children make slow start

By Rikard Jozwiak

The European Commission today warned that children from ethnic minorities and from low-income families are particularly at risk of emerging from nurseries and kindergartens with a poor education.

The Commission's study of early-childhood education and care in Europe, based on findings in the 27 member states as well as Norway, Iceland and Liechtenstein, found that a fifth of all households with a child aged of six or younger live below the poverty line and that a low income, particularly coupled with membership of an ethnic minority, can have serious consequences.

The report comes out strongly in favour of day-care centres over home-based education, saying that parents often lack the skills needed to provide a good pre-school education. It highlights the choice made by families from some ethnic minorities to keep their children at home until they start school as one factor that puts them at a disadvantage later in their school life.

In 2006, 87% of all four-year-olds four participated in some form of pre-school education, close to the 90% target that European Commission is suggesting for 2020. However, the report published today suggests that there should be a shift away from the type of pre-school education most commonly available in Europe. Most member states have separate systems for children aged 0-3 years and 3 to 6 years; the report favours the single system found particularly in Nordic countries. It adds that countries that educate children younger than three separately from older children should invest more than they do, particularly to ensure that staff are adequately trained.

The report also calls for lower costs for parents, lower child-to-staff ratios across the educational system and for all teachers to have a tertiary education.

<http://www.europeanvoice.com/article/2009/02/poor,-ethnic-minority-children-make-slow-start/63986.aspx>

Activity 3

From this case study, what are the main issues that the European Commission discovered regarding education for minorities? Based on the study findings what recommendations can you give for African Countries?

Unit 5

Attitudinal Change for Effective Policy Development

Inclusion often requires a shift in people's attitudes and values. Such change takes time and involves significant reassessment of conceptions and role behaviour. Awareness raising should involve both better understanding of inclusive education and that societies become more tolerant and understanding. National policies on inclusion, local support systems and appropriate forms of curriculum and assessment are important to create the necessary context for the development of inclusion.

Educational institutions should not see themselves as the only experts on education. Expertise need not always be available in every school, but it is important to secure access to specific competences when needed. This is reflected in the gradual transition in some countries of special schools into resource centres with outreach services to support the regular school system and offer guidance to families in their efforts to support their children.

Teachers, other educators, non-teaching support staff, journalists and all media practitioners, parents, communities, school authorities, curriculum developers, educational planners, the private sector and training institutes are all among the actors that can serve as valuable resources in support of inclusion. Some (teachers, parents and communities) are more than just a valuable resource; they are the key to supporting all aspects of the inclusion process. This must be based on a willingness to accept and welcome diversity and to take an active role in the lives of students, both in and out of school.

Checklist on attitudinal change

- ❖ Is the concept of inclusive education well known and accepted?
- ❖ Do parents take an active role in education?
- ❖ Have awareness programmes been launched to support inclusive education?
- ❖ Are the local community and the private sector encouraged to support inclusive education?
- ❖ Is inclusive education seen as an important factor for economic and social development?
- ❖ Are competencies available at special schools or institutions well used to support inclusion?

Source: UNESCO 2009, Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education

Activity 4

Users should be asked to tackle the following assessment/discussion questions:

- ❖ What arguments would you raise for and against policies for inclusive education ?
- ❖ Find out from the country what the policy is regarding inclusive education and analyse the successes and challenges.

Unit 6

Supporting the Policy Cycle

Inclusive education systems and societies can only be realized if governments are aware of the nature of the problem and are committed to solving it. This must be reflected in the willingness to undertake in-depth analysis of the size and character of the out-of-school populations and ensure their integration into quality school and other kinds of education and training programmes. Such analysis would frequently require improved data systems and data collection methods.



Education for all boys and all girls in Mozambique

Government commitment would also express itself in appropriate legal frameworks established in accordance with relevant international conventions and recommendations ensuring that inclusive education is appropriately understood and interpreted as a rights issue. Its priority in national policy, planning and implementation should be reflected in the comparative allocation in national budgets and in requests for development assistance from international partners and the private sector. Appropriate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms need to be put in place to evaluate the impact of inclusive education policies as regards the learner, the education system and wider societal development.

Assessment approaches that promote a development towards inclusion need to be elaborated. The European Agency for Development in Special needs education has as one example developed outline indicators stressing that:

- ❖ All pupils should be entitled to be involved in all assessment procedures as long as they are relevant and adapted to accommodate their needs
- ❖ Initial identification of pupils' needs should not be the only mechanism for resource allocation
- ❖ Legal definitions and subsequent assessment procedures based on medical/deficit approaches lead to labelling and categorisation that often reinforces segregation and separate approaches to provision
- ❖ Curriculum, program reform should be centred upon learning needs and not be content lead/driven. (Quoted in UNESCO 2009, Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education)

Activity 5

Undertake a documentary regarding a child with special needs: please consider the following: The child special characteristics, child main interest, problems faced, as well as what special attention is required in school for the child to be helped get his or her potential.

Ten questions on inclusive education

1. Beyond the figures, what do we know about the excluded?

Exclusion has many faces. Despite real progress since 2000 towards universal primary education, 72 million children are still not enrolled at all in school. More than

half are girls. Seven out of ten live in sub-Saharan Africa or South and West Asia. Poverty and marginalization are major causes of exclusion. Households in rural or remote communities and children in urban slums have less access to education. Disabled children suffer from blatant educational exclusion – they account for one third of all out-of-school children. Working children, those belonging to indigenous groups and linguistic minorities, nomadic children and those affected by HIV/AIDS are among the vulnerable groups. Some 37 per cent of out-of-school children live in 35 states defined as fragile by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, but these do not include all places facing conflict and post-conflict situations. In every case children are at enormous risk of missing out on an education.

2. Research on out-of-school children suggests that many countries are now promoting access to school but not ensuring decent education quality. Why?

Once you identify who the excluded are and why they are not in school, strategies can be developed to get them into school and keep them there. The challenge is to implement policies and practices to overcome the sources of exclusion. It is necessary to look at what happens in and out of school – from children’s daily reality in their homes and communities to what happens when they go to school: what they are actually learning and in what conditions.

3. How does inclusive education promote successful learning?

Efforts to expand enrolment must be accompanied by policies to enhance educational quality at all levels, in formal and in non-formal settings. We have to work on an ‘access to success’ continuum by promoting policies to ensure that excluded children get into school coupled with programmes and practices that ensure they succeed there. It is a process that involves addressing and responding to the diverse needs of learners. This has implications for teaching, the curriculum, ways of interacting and relations between the schools and the community.

4. What are the principles of inclusion?

Inclusion is rooted in the right to education as enshrined in Article 26 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. A number of treaties and normative instruments have since reaffirmed this right. Three deserve specific mention. UNESCO’s 1960 Convention against Discrimination in Education stipulates that States have the obligation to expand educational opportunities for all who remain deprived of primary education. The 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights reaffirms the right to education for all and highlights the principle of free compulsory education. Finally, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the most widely ratified human rights treaty, spells out the right of children not to be discriminated against. It also expresses commitments about the aims of

education, recognizing that the learner is at the centre of the learning experience. This affects content and pedagogy, and - more broadly - how schools are managed.

5. The notion of inclusion is still often associated with children who have special needs. Why?

Too often programmes targeting various marginalized and excluded groups have functioned outside the mainstream – special programmes, specialized institutions and specialist educators. Too often the result has been exclusion – second-rate educational opportunities that do not guarantee the possibility to continue studying. In developed countries, the move towards more inclusive approaches is often complicated by the legacy of segregated or exclusive education for groups identified as “difficult” or “different”. But there is increasing recognition that it is better for children with special needs to attend regular schools, albeit with various forms of special support. Studies in both OECD and non-OECD countries indicate that students with disabilities achieve better school results in inclusive settings.

6. How does education need to change to accommodate everyone?

The overall goal is to ensure that school is a place where all children participate and are treated equally. This involves a change in how we think about education. Inclusive education is an approach that looks into how to transform education systems in order to respond to the diversity of learners. It means enhancing the quality of education by improving the effectiveness of teachers, promoting learning-centred methodologies, developing appropriate textbooks and learning materials and ensuring that schools are safe and healthy for all children. Strengthening links with the community is also vital: relationship between teachers, students, parents and society at large are crucial for developing inclusive learning environments.

7. How do curricula need to change to improve learning and encourage the inclusion of all pupils?

An inclusive curriculum addresses the child’s cognitive, emotional and creative development. It is based on the four pillars of education for the 21st century - learning to know, to do, to be and to live together. This starts in the classroom. The curriculum has an instrumental role to play in fostering tolerance and promoting human rights and is a powerful tool for transcending cultural, religious and other differences. An inclusive curriculum takes gender, cultural identity and language background into consideration. It involves breaking gender stereotypes not only in textbooks but in teachers’ attitudes and expectations. Multilingual approaches in education, in which language is recognized as an integral part of a student’s cultural identity, can act as a source of inclusion. Furthermore, mother tongue instruction in the initial years of school has a positive impact on learning outcomes. In Zambia, for example, mother tongues are used as a medium of instruction for the first three years of schooling with positive effect.

8. Teachers have a foremost influence on learning. Yet their status and working conditions in many countries make it difficult to promote inclusion. What can be done to improve their lot ?

The way teachers teach is of critical importance in any reform designed to improve quality. A child-centred curriculum is characterized by a move away from rote learning and towards greater emphasis on hands-on, experience-based, active and cooperative learning. Introducing inclusion as a guiding principle has implications for teachers' practices and attitudes – be it towards girls, slow learners, children with special needs or those from different backgrounds. Adequate pre-service and in-service teacher training is essential to improve learning. Moreover, policies must address their status, welfare and professional development. But there exists not only a severe teacher shortage, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia, but a lack of adequately trained teachers. This shortage has unfortunate consequences for the quality of learning. A new curriculum cannot be introduced without familiarizing teachers with its aims and contents. Assessment can help teachers to measure student performance and to diagnose difficulties. But teachers need to understand the value of good assessment practices and learn skills to develop their own tests.

9. Is inclusive quality education affordable?

It is inefficient to have school systems where children are not learning because of poor quality. Schools with high repetition rates often fail to work in preventive ways. The expenditure incurred by schools when students repeat a grade would be better used to provide additional support to those who encounter difficulties. Several cost-effective measures to promote inclusive quality education have been developed in countries with scarce resources. These include training-of-trainer models for professional development, linking students in pre-service teacher training with schools and converting special needs schools into resource centres that provide expertise and support to clusters of regular schools.

10. Does inclusive quality education lead to more inclusive societies?

Exclusion starts very early in life. A holistic vision of education is imperative. Comprehensive early childhood care and education programmes improve children's well being, prepare them for primary school and give them a better chance of succeeding once they are in school. All evidence shows that the most disadvantaged and vulnerable children benefit most from such programmes. Ensuring that adults, particularly mothers, are literate has an impact on whether their children, and especially their daughters attend school. Linking inclusion to broader development goals will contribute to the reform of education systems, to poverty alleviation and to the achievement of all the Millennium Development Goals. An inclusive system benefits all learners without any discrimination towards

any individual or group. It is founded on values of democracy, tolerance and respect for difference.

Conclusion

This module has brought to light many of the issues and conceptions related to inclusive education. The user would have learnt that the notion of inclusion must be borne in mind if Education for All and the Millenium Development Goals are to be achieved. Governments, civil society, and all other stakeholders in Education for All must recognise this factor in order to realise the MDG and EFA codes. Journalists and communicators have a crucial role to play in disseminating information on this.

Further Reading

1. UNESCO 2009, Policy Guidelines on Inclusive education, UNESCO, Paris, 2009
2. UNESCO 2005, Ensuring Access to education for All, UNESCO, Paris, 2005
3. Peter Mittler, Helle Mittler, Helen MC Conachie. Working together: Guidelines, for partnership between professionals and parents of children and young people with disabilities, UNESCO, 1986.
4. UNESCO Bangkok, 2006. Positive discipline in the inclusive, learning-friendly classroom: a guide for teachers and teacher educators (Embracing diversity: Toolkit for creating inclusive, learning-friendly environments Specialized Booklet 1) 1. Inclusive education. 2. Classrooms. 3. Teacher's guide. 4. Corporal punishment. 5. Positive discipline.
5. UNESCO/ Ministry of Education and Science, Spain 1994. The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education: World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, Salamanca, Spain, 7- 10 June 1994
6. R. Govinda, National University of Educational Planning and Administration India, UNESCO Paris 2009, Towards Inclusive School and Enhanced learning: A synthesis of Case Study Findings from Different Countries.
7. UNESCO 2001, Understanding and Responding to Children's Needs in Inclusive Classrooms: A Guide for Teachers, Inclusive Education, Division of Basic Education, UNESCO, Paris

References

1. Ainscow, M. 1999. *Understanding the Development of Inclusive Schools*. Oxford, Routledge.
2. Ainscow, M. and Booth, T. 1998. *From Them to Us: An International Study of Inclusion in Education*. London, Routledge.
3. Ainscow, M., Booth, T. and Dyson, A., with Farrell, P., Frankham, J., Gallannaugh, F. Howes, A. and Smith, R. 2006. *Improving Schools, Developing Inclusion*. London, Routledge.
4. Bernard, A. 2000. *Education for All and Children who are Excluded*. Paris, UNESCO. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001233/123330e.pdf>
5. Booth, T. and Ainscow, M. 2002. *The Index for Inclusion*. Bristol, Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education.
6. J.S Farrant, *Principles and practice of education*, Longman, New Edition, 22nd impression, 2008...pp94-105
7. Freire, P. 1970. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. London, Penguin Education.
8. Kugelmass, J. 2004. *What is a Culture of Inclusion?* School of Education and Human Development. Binghamton, University, USA.
9. Chavuta, A; Nsapato, L.. O'dele A,: *An evaluation on Special Needs Education in initial Teacher Training Colleges in Malawi*, August, 2008
10. McGregor, G. and Timm Vogelsberg, R. 1998. *Inclusive Schooling Practices: Pedagogical and Research Foundations*.
11. Consortium on Inclusive Schooling Practices. Missoula, Mon., University of Montana Rural Institute.
12. McKinsey & Company. 2007. *The World's Best Performing School Systems*.
13. Meijer, C. 1999. *Financing of Special Needs Education*. Middelfart, Denmark. European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education.

14. Save the Children. 2000. Access for All: Helping to Make Participatory Processes Accessible to Everyone. London, Save the Children.
15. UNESCO. (2003) Overcoming Exclusion through Inclusive Approaches in Education: a Challenge, a vision-Conceptual Paper, Spain, Paris: UNESCO
16. UNESCO Global Monitoring Report 2009, UNESCO Office Paris.
17. Wood J.W. (1998) Adapting Instruction to Accommodate Students in Inclusive Settings. New Jersey, U.S.A: Prentice Hall
18. United Nations, Convention on the Rights of persons with Physical Disabilities, 2006
19. Watkins, A. (Editor). 2007. Assessment in Inclusive Settings: Key Issues for Policy and Practice. Odense, Denmark: European Agency for Development in Special needs Education.
20. World Bank. Peters, S. 2004. Inclusive education: an ERA strategy for all children. Washington DC, World Bank.
21. World Conference on Education for All. Meeting Basic Learning Needs. 1990. World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs. New York, NY, Inter-Agency Commission for the World Conference on Education for All.
22. World Education Forum. 2000. The Dakar Framework for Action: Education for All – Meeting our Collective Commitments. Paris, UNESCO.
23. <http://www.un.org/disabilities/>
<http://portal.unesco.org/education/>
<http://www.ancefa.org/>
<http://www.education.gov.ck/>
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Inclusive_education



Section 4

Current Issues in Education





Module 14



Education and Gender

Overview

Gender equality in education is crucial for Africa's development. When a large proportion of the population remains uneducated, this retards overall development on the continent. Girls and women account for more than half of Africa's population yet they have far fewer opportunities than their male counterparts to benefit from education. Of the 35 million children of primary school age in sub-Saharan African who are not enrolled in school, 54% are girls and 72% of these have never been to school at all¹. Cultural practices and attitudes, lack of gender sensitivity within the school system, and poverty are some of the major barriers to providing Africa girls with a decent education.

“If you educate a man, you educate an individual. If you educate a woman, you educate a nation” Kwegyir Aggrey



Eikwe Catholic School in Ghana

¹ UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009

General Objective

Module seeks to provide a deeper and broader understanding of key issues related to gender and education in Africa in order for the user to communicate effectively as expected.

Specific Objectives

Module will enable the user to:

- ❖ create awareness on why it is important to promote gender equality in education,
- ❖ identify factors contributing to inequality in education,
- ❖ Engage stakeholders on issues concerning gender equality in education
- ❖ Examine measures that can be used to address inequality in education through effective communication.

Expected Outcome

By the end of this module the user will be able to understand the key issues in gender and education and be equipped to address them appropriately in their media and advocacy work.

Introduction

Unit 1 of this module discusses the current context of gender in education in Africa and the barriers to gender equality in education. It looks at policy issues, the school environment, socio-cultural issues and socio-economic contexts that have an impact on gender equality in education. Unit 2 looks at measures that have been taken towards gender-responsiveness in education and best practices emerging from initiatives by governments, communities and civil society groups.

Unit 1

It is recognised that gender disparities in education have a negative effect on overall development. Women who lack education cannot participate meaningfully in the economy or in developmental activities of their societies. Conversely, ‘the empowerment of girls and women through education brings immense benefits not only at individual level but also at community and country levels too. Livelihoods are improved, families are healthier, civic education and liberties are enhanced. Educated

girls become educated women who have the knowledge, skills and opportunity to play a role in governance and democratic processes and to influence the direction of their societies in an effective manner.’

What is Gender?

Gender refers to the status, roles and responsibilities assigned to individuals by societies based on their sex. Gender is socially constructed, and the gendered roles and responsibilities assigned to men and women and boys and girls are culture-based and differ from one society to another.

In a large number of African societies, the gendered roles assigned to girls and women can be perceived as discriminatory. For example, girls are expected to be nurturing and are given the roles of childcare domestic chores like cooking and management of the home. Boys on the other hand are expected to assume leadership roles, have more free time and their education takes priority. It must be noted that sex and gender are two different things. Sex refers to the biological difference between males and females.

Gender disparities in African education today

The World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) tasked nations to achieve two specific goals in relation to gender equality in education:

EFA goal 2

To ensure that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.

EFA goal 5

To eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals also set education and gender equality goals for nations:

MDG 2, target 1

Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

MDG 3, target 1

Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education not later than 2015.

However, although African governments have ratified these and other instruments geared towards achieving both universal primary education and gender equality in education, gender disparities are prevalent in the majority of African education systems. Many African countries missed the gender equality education targets set for 2005 and will need to take concrete and urgent measures to meet 2015 targets.

Some African countries have reached gender parity in enrolment in primary education. Only Mauritius and Swaziland have achieved parity in secondary education enrolment, while Botswana and Swaziland are the only two sub-Saharan African countries that have reached parity in tertiary enrolment. This means that in many countries African girls do not receive primary education; and only a few reach secondary education level. The situation worsens at tertiary education level, with only an insignificant percentage receiving post-secondary education.

Experiences of Disparities

It must however be noted that, gender disparities do not always favour boys. In certain countries, including Cape Verde, Lesotho, Namibia, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles and South Africa, disparities tend to favour girls rather than boys.

Factors contributing to gender disparity in education

❖ Poverty

Poverty is a major contributing factor to gender disparity in enrolment at school and completion of education. In many societies in Africa, it is a common occurrence that when families cannot afford to educate all their children and must make a choice, preference goes to boys.

❖ Policies

Many African countries, for example, Kenya, Namibia, Rwanda and Senegal have specific policies in place to ensure girls' access to school as well as their retention, completion and performance. However, policies on their own are not enough. Policy formulation and implementation of action plans should take into account the specificities that have an impact on gender equality in education.

❖ Learning environment

A number of factors within the learning environment have an impact on gender equality. In many cases, teaching practices and teachers' attitudes do not give girls and boys equal treatment or equal opportunity to participate and tend to discriminate in favour of male students. This is particularly the case in Mathematics, Science and Technology subjects.

Teaching and learning materials often aggravate this bias through stereotypical and often negative portrayal of the role of girls and women. School environments too, including school infrastructure and facilities, can be very insensitive to the physical needs of girls and discourage effective participation, for example, separate toilet facilities. Sexual harassment, from both teachers and students, cause many girls to drop out of school. And pregnancy among schoolgirls remains the leading cause of dropout for girls.

❖ Cultural attitudes and practices

Socio-cultural practices have an impact on how boys and girls participate in education. Practices such as early marriage, female genital mutilation, vestal virgins given to religious shrines are particular barriers to girls' education. Religious beliefs are also often used to deny girls an education. This is an extremely controversial and sensitive area which people tend to look at with emotion. However it must be noted that generally no religion bars girls from the right to education. Traditionally assigned roles, principally domestic and reproductive roles, affect the total amount of time girls spend in school, while herding and other roles affect boys' participation. Many African societies also believe that as girls will eventually marry and leave the family, it is not worthwhile investing in their education.

CASE STUDY

I want to study peace studies and human rights because of my experience: the fact that women and girls are victims of violence and their rights are suppressed. I want to be in a position to change things for them. At the age 9, I was a victim of early forced marriage. My parents were poor and illiterate and their only option was to give me away in marriage. My sister was supposed to get married before me but she refused. Dowry had already been paid for her (she was about 11) and once dowry has been paid, it cannot be returned. So



Faith Nenkai Meitiaki
20 years
Kenya

my father decided I should get married in her place. My sister and I decided to run away from home. Our neighbour was a student at AIC Kajiado and told us about the rescue programme there.

I have a dream – I want to go to Harvard for my Masters. It is associated with great achievers and I want to be an achiever too. But I have my community in my mind. When you go and see the light, you have to go back and spread the light. Learned people have to go back and be part of the change.

Progress Made

Progress towards EFA and Millennium gender and education goals have been made in a number of African countries. As noted, 15 African countries have reached gender parity in primary school enrolment. For instance, ‘In Lesotho... parity was achieved through public policies that corrected a bias against boys linked with livestock herding.’ At secondary education level, gender disparities were reduced between 1999 and 2006 in two-thirds of countries covered by the UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report of 2009.

Activity 1

Examine the specific policy measures that have been taken by your country to achieve gender equality in education and prepare a feature on this topic.

Activity 2

Prepare a short and high impact awareness campaign on one of the factors contributing to gender inequality in education discussed in Unit 1.

Unit 2

Initiatives towards gender equality in education

This unit looks at measures that have been taken by governments, civil society groups and communities to create greater gender equality in education and best practices emerging from these initiatives. These measures include abolition of school fees, non-formal education, mobile schools, community schools, curricular initiatives including Science and Mathematics programmes, life skills training, affirmative action, gender-responsive pedagogy training, safety measures, community participation and mass media.

❖ Abolition of school fees

As noted in Unit 1 of this module, poverty is a major contributing factor to gender disparity in access to and completion of education for girls. Abolition of school fees is one of the key measures used to address this barrier to education. This increases enrolment for both boys and girls and enables them to complete a full cycle of primary education. Abolition of school fees eliminates the economically motivated choice that poorer parents have to make about educating girls as well as boys. Other financial incentives that have had a positive impact on girls' access and retention include scholarships, grants and stipends.

❖ Non-formal education

Non-formal education programmes provide an opportunity for boys and girls left out of the formal education system to acquire education within their life contexts, for example children from nomadic communities. Programmes include functional literacy

and skills training and are delivered in a flexible and often mobile manner so that children's normal duties such as farming, herding and childcare are not disrupted. For girls in particular, these programmes empower them to be able to participate effectively in the community and make informed choices on issues pertaining to their lives. One such initiative targeting out-of-school village girls in Guinea provided opportunities for over 5,000 girls to acquire basic education. Seven percent of these girls were able to gain entry into formal schools.

❖ **Mobile schools**

Through mobile schools, teachers or facilitators move from one community to another or accompany nomadic communities to provide education and training. Mobile schools have been used to reach children in nomadic and fishing communities in Nigeria as well as nomadic communities in post-conflict areas in northern Uganda. This form of schooling involves flexible school schedules, open-air classes, collapsible classrooms such as tents, and motorised boats used as classrooms for fishing communities in particular. In Nigeria such initiatives have reportedly reduced gender inequality in primary school enrolment by 85% and increased enrolment for girls more than tenfold. For a more in-depth discussion of alternative schooling structures see Module 12.

❖ **Community schools**

Community schools are built and managed by local communities while teachers are provided and paid by the government. This provides schooling structures in communities where schools either do not exist or are not easily accessible, for example through long distances to school, and addresses parental concerns about girls' safety.

❖ **Curricular initiatives**

Various curricular initiatives aim to enhance girls' participation in education and improve their academic performance. For example, Science, Mathematics and Technology programmes are a particularly important initiative to encourage greater participation by girls. Many girls do not participate significantly or perform well in these subjects and this is due to a number of factors, including societal and teachers' attitudes about girls' ability to excel in these subjects as well as biased teaching and learning materials.

Initiatives that aim to demystify these subjects for girls include the Female Education in Maths and Science in Africa (FEMSA) programme and FAWE's Science, Mathematics and Technology (SMT) programme . Some countries such as Ghana have special SMT programmes in place for girls in particular but also for boys.

❖ **Life skills training**

Life skills training involve educating both girls and boys, but particularly girls, about realities that have a direct bearing on their education and life chances. Issues include sexual maturation, HIV and AIDS and other STIs and the rights. Such training develops self-confidence as well as inter-personal and leadership skills among school children and empowers them to be able to negotiate issues and make informed decisions that enhance their personal development and potential for future productivity. The Tuseme youth empowerment programme, originally developed by the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania is one of such programme that has had a tremendous impact on girls' participation and retention in school.

❖ **Affirmative Action Initiatives (AAI)**

Many African countries have embraced AAI, for example Rwanda, South Africa and Ghana have implemented policies and programmes aimed at bridging the gap between girls and boys, men and women in the educational and other development spheres.

❖ **Gender-responsive Pedagogy Training**

It is imperative that at the teacher training level, curriculum at training colleges should be engendered in order for teachers to acquire the skills and knowledge on gender issues before they enter the classrooms. Once they acquire these skills they will be able to address issues in the classroom through a gendered lens. These skills include gender-responsive pedagogy training for teachers, gender sensitization, guidance and counselling and child-centred teaching methodologies with particular focus on Science, Mathematics and Technology (SMT) subjects.

This is an ongoing process that is currently being addressed in many countries on the continent. However a successful implementation requires a holistic approach which includes ensuring that educational materials and curricula are gender-responsive. This requires systematic monitoring and evaluation and assurance of the process.

❖ **Safety and Security**

Generally schools in Africa do not consider the different needs of boys and girls when it comes to provision of safe schools. For example, in areas where there are no separate toilets for girls and boys, this gives rise to the incidents of absenteeism, sexual abuse and high incidents of girls dropping out of school.

For example, when girls are not afforded separate toilets at schools, they do not attend classes when menstruating for fear of being taunted by boys. Due to lack of privacy girls are forced to stay at home at certain times and have difficulties in catching up on time missed in class. This contributes partly to the high dropout rate of girls at school. In addition, sexual abuse has a negative impact on many girls and often results in teenage pregnancy with all the social implications related to it. A general lack of security at schools, including fencing, exposes girls and boys to negative influences and unforeseen dangers.

❖ **Community participation and mass media**

Community participation is vital in ensuring that girls and boys are exposed to gender-sensitive education. Community involvement in school management and strong sensitization and mobilization programmes are important to gain active community support for improved enrolment, attendance and performance of girls. (Refer to Module on Parental Education)

Community and traditional media also play an important role in disseminating information on handling girls and boys education for the benefit of the entire society. For instance, in many African countries radio, in particular community and private radio, is widely used to discuss issues pertaining to gender and education. This is one of the most effective ways of communicating and ensuring community participation in education. Phone-in programmes, drama, discussions with experts and programmes run by youth for youth are significant forums for community participation. Television and print media also contribute to this process, for example supplements carried in newspapers, youth magazines and youth television programmes where young people are able to voice out their concerns.

Activity 3

Visit a school in your area and investigate the measures that have been put in place to ensure the safety of school children with particular reference to the safety of girls by interviewing key stakeholders including students. Pay particular attention to the following:

- ❖ Distance from home to school
- ❖ School environment e.g. separate toilets for girls and boys
- ❖ School infrastructure e.g. fencing and secure access

Activity 4

- ❖ Design a media activity of your choice which demonstrates the importance of community participation in education.

Conclusion

Given the challenges that we are facing in promoting gender equality in education in Africa there is a need for media practitioners to put in place a plan to report these issues in a sustained way. A systematic monitoring and evaluation mechanism will facilitate monitoring of how the media covers gender in education and enable advocacy work by communities, media practitioners and other stakeholders.

Supporting Materials

- ❖ Give Girls a Break – Radio Play
- ❖ South Africa soap operas www.sabc.co.za
- ❖ FAWE information

Further Reading

1. Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA, 2001). What Works and What's New in Education: Africa Speaks. Paris: ADEA.
2. FAWE: 15 years of advancing girls' education in Africa.
3. http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/dakfram_eng.shtml. 11 Sept. 2009.
4. <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals>. 11 September 2009.
5. UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009.
6. Gender Equity in Junior and Senior Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Esi Sutherland-Addy. 2008.

References

1. USAID. Educating Girls: A Development Imperative. Conference Report, May 6-8, 1998, Washington D.C.
2. ADEA. Working Group on Higher Education. A Toolkit for Mainstreaming Gender in Higher Education in Africa, Accra. August 2006.
3. Eileen Kane. Seeing for Yourself: Research Handbook for Girls' Education in Africa. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank Washington D.C. 1995.
4. African Development Bank Group. Checklist for Gender Mainstreaming in the Education Sector with a Special Focus on Higher Education, Science and Technology Sub Sector. January 2009.
5. Working with the Media on Gender and Education: A Guide for Training and Planning. Institute of Education, University of London; Oxfam, March 2006.

Module 15

HIV and AIDS Issues in Education

Impact of HIV and AIDS on Education

Overview

Issues that deal with HIV and AIDS have been an area of great concern for many people including stakeholders in the educational sector. Statistics have shown that Sub-Saharan African region has the highest burden of AIDS with HIV spreading faster in areas that are linked by major transport routes, for example, Malawi, South Africa and Zimbabwe (UNAIDS 2006). The challenges that the disease poses to mankind need to be tackled effectively through the media which provides a wider access for people to get information to protect themselves.

It is known that the disease has impacted negatively on many development activities including human capital. Teachers and students at all levels as well as orphans have seriously been affected by the impact of HIV.

General Objective

The general objective of module is to equip user with a better understanding of what HIV and AIDS are, and the effect they have on Africa's education and development activities.

Specific Objectives

The user is enable to :

- ❖ have knowledge about the impact of the disease on education
- ❖ employ relevant communication channels for advocacy on HIV and AIDS prevention and management.

Expected Outcome

The user by the end of the module will develop clear understanding about HIV and AIDS and be able to discuss and write about its impact on education and development.

Introduction

Module 15 is divided into three units. Unit 1 discusses facts about HIV and AIDS and gives a brief on the state of HIV and AIDS from global and African perspectives. It also discusses the impact of the disease on the educational sector and also highlights the vulnerability of the disease on men, women. Unit 2 examines violence and gender dimensions of HIV and AIDS and the state of orphans and vulnerable children affected by HIV. Unit 3 discusses the issue of stigma and discrimination which cause a big threat to the spread of HIV.

Unit 1

What is HIV?

HIV stands for “Human Immunodeficiency Virus”. It is a virus that attacks and weakens the immune system. The human body eventually becomes weak, because it is rendered defenceless against infections. HIV is the virus that causes AIDS.

There are two main types of HIV. HIV1 is found in East and Southern Africa and across the world. HIV2 has been found to be more common in the West African sub-region.

What is AIDS?

AIDS stands for “Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome” and implies that the condition of AIDS is acquired from somewhere. Immune means the body’s ability to resist and fight against diseases are weakened to make the required stand; while syndrome means a set of sicknesses that occur together in the body.

When a person has AIDS it means the disease has reached an advance stage where the immune system becomes very weak to resist opportunistic infections associated with HIV. Examples of opportunistic infections are Tuberculosis (TB) and pneumonia. AIDS is the terminal stage of HIV and the infected persons could easily die during this period.

Modes of Transmission

The main modes of transmission are through heterosexual (80%), mother-to-child (15%) and others including blood transfusion, and sharp contaminated objects (5%).

It is important to note that during the “Window Period”, which lasts between six weeks and three months many infected persons may not know that they are infected. Consequently, during this period the unaware infected person can easily transmit the virus to another person if they indulge in unprotected sex.

The State of HIV – Global

UNAIDS (2007) estimated that 33.2 million people worldwide were living with HIV, while 2.5 million became newly infected. Between 2.1 million and 2.4 million people lost their lives through AIDS. The infection rate in Africa stood at 6.2%, while that of Sub-Saharan Africa was 7.5% (source UNAIDS Programme on HIV/AIDS, 2007)

Africa and HIV and AIDS

Africa has been recognized to be the epicentre of the AIDS epidemic. South Africa, according to UNAIDS 2007 Report, has a prevalence of 30% among pregnant women in 2005 and 29% in 2006.

Prevalence rates among adults 15-49 years in some African countries.

Country	2008 Prevalence rates (%)
Botswana	23.09
Lesotho	23.2
Swaziland	26.01
South Africa	20.1
Zambia	15.02
Zimbabwe	21.5
Mozambique	12.05
Namibia	15.03
Kenya	8.03
Ethiopia	2.00
Rwanda	2.08
Burkina Faso	1.06
Ghana	1.07

Source: Wikipedia.org/wiki/listbyHIV/AIDS

Adult Prevalence Rate 6/22/09, 22/6/09

As shown in the Table1 some African countries in the southern part of the continent have been hardly hit and experience high prevalence rate while a few seem not to

have serious problems although such countries are also experiencing steady growth infection rates.

A worldwide coverage shows the highest prevalence rate with over 60% of the AIDS – infected population. South Africa is reported to have the highest population living with the disease over 5 million people infected.

What is Impact?

Impact is a concept that has different meanings in particular contexts in which it is used. In applying impact to HIV and AIDS, it can be referred to as the effect and repercussions the disease has on the socio-economic sectors of state institutions in our African countries.

Roche (1992), also defines impact as “the systematic analysis of the lasting or significant changes – positive or negative intended or not – in people’s lives brought about by a given action or series of actions”.

Impact of HIV and AIDS

It is recognised that HIV is not only a health but also a developmental issue. The disease has an impact in all sectors of development. The impact is on the household where the family is greatly affected. The health, business, agriculture, as well as the educational sectors have their share of the effect of the disease.

The Family

Every household consist of a family which comprises both the nuclear and extended families, but more often the nuclear family. When a parent (father or mother) is infected, the entire family is also affected, in that, parents get psychosocial problems, which eventually also affect children the lives of children.

The most serious effect is the impact it has on the education of school children at all levels.

Impact of HIV and AIDS on the Educational Sector

Education and training are essential tools for growth and development. Education has an effect on overall development. Education includes, school, out-of school, teaching and learning activities, early childhood schooling, as well as adult literacy programmes. In-service training and on the job-training could all be said to be part of programmes in the educational sector. Through all these programmes the human factor capacity is enhanced. The impact of HIV and AIDS on education can be summarised as follows:

- ❖ Demand for Education is likely to fall as children infected with HIV may not live to reach even the school-going age.
- ❖ Children infected with HIV may drop out of school because of discrimination and stigmatisation among peers and community people.
- ❖ Supply of Teachers, managers, administrators and planners in the sector are also likely to be affected if personnel in these areas are infected with HIV and AIDS.
- ❖ There are instances in some African countries where schools were closed down because of high incidence of HIV infection among teachers.
- ❖ Resources for Education - There will be demand for the training of more teachers to replace those dead. This would affect the quality of teaching since the newly trained ones would not be as experienced as the ones who had died, and many schools are likely to be denied of qualified teachers. Potential clientele of Education would be affected due to deaths of teachers, lecturers and managers. There could be frequent absence of teachers.
- ❖ The acute shortage of teachers at the primary level may result in a high drop-out rate among pupils.
- ❖ So also the death of lecturers at tertiary institutions may deprive the sector of the benefits of the huge investment in producing manpower.
- ❖ Finally, the request for donor support for education would increase.



Participants in a programme for HIV/AIDS sensitization in Ghana

It is for this reason that users need to have a deeper understanding of the real impact of HIV and AIDS on the sector which serves as the nerve centre and the focal point human development.

Gender as a concept is often confused with sex which is biologically determined by nature by which people are born into the world as either male or female.

Gender HIV and AIDS, and Violence

HIV and AIDS affect men and women differently as well as girls and boys. However, gender becomes very important in the fight against HIV and AIDS, because women and girls are often more at risk and therefore more vulnerable to the disease.

What is Gender?

It is a socially constructed concept that deals with the roles and responsibilities of men and women in societies. Gender is culturally determined by the society in which one lives. In effect, socio-cultural practices depict the differences between men and women and the ways through which they interact with each other. This shows that there are differences in the roles performed by men and women in different cultures.

In Africa, societies inculcate cultural norms and values through society's socialization mechanisms. This shows that Gender roles are learnt and vary according to one's geographical and cultural background.

Gender as a concept is often confused with sex which is biologically determined by nature. People are born into the world as either male or female. Gender roles affect society's social organisation where power relations are exhibited what men and women should do and how they should behave. It is in fact through this process that gender inequality is largely created between men and women. This inequality puts women at a disadvantage positions in their societies in terms of power and allocation of resources.

Socio-culturally in Africa men are expected to have power over women, and so a man determines what sexual relations should exist between him and his female partner.

Generally, women have low educational and economic levels and therefore many remain powerless and do not have access to the necessary information to protect themselves. Women also do not have the required skills to negotiate with their partners

during sexual intercourse. In addition, women's biological state, make them more vulnerable to HIV than men.

Gender HIV and AIDS and Vulnerability

Socio-Cultural Factors

In Africa, socio-cultural factors play a major role in making women more vulnerable to HIV and AIDS. As such, socio-cultural practices depict the differences between men and women and the ways in which they interact with each other. This eventually affects the different roles they play.

Gender roles and responsibilities have some influence on the way men and women are infected, the care they get and the prevention strategies they adopt.

The socio-cultural factors that make women more vulnerable to HIV and AIDS include the following:

- ❖ In Africa, many women find it difficult to refuse their partners sex demand, even if their men are in polygamous unions with other women. A man can get infected by one of his partners and he would in turn infect the others;
- ❖ Cultural practices like FGM and Widowhood rites, forced marriages and harmful wife inheritance;
- ❖ Sexual violence such as rape which many young girls suffer often put young females at a greater risk of HIV and AIDS infection;
- ❖ Young girls are also at a greater risk of the disease because they are inexperienced, have no access to information, lack the required skill to negotiate on the use of condom
- ❖ They lack the resources to decide, because many have low literacy and economic levels;
- ❖ Many females lack access to education and sufficient personal income to care for themselves and their families. Women's low financial levels make them heavily dependent on men and so become more vulnerable.

Factors that Make Men Vulnerable to HIV and AIDS

- ❖ Some men are known to involve themselves in risky sexual behaviours which are fuelled by gender, economic and social inequalities;
- ❖ Men are more likely to rape women and girls, some of whom could be infected with STI's and HIV that could also be passed on to other men;
- ❖ The African Youth who are sexually active are also sometimes infected through their risky sexual behaviours, such as:
 - Unprotected sex;
 - Multiple sex partners;
 - Rape;
 - Alcohol consumption;
 - Drug abuse; and
 - Peer pressure.

Activity 1

Do a story/programme using a media of your choice for the youth in your country against the “Risky sexual behaviours and drug abuse” which make the youth vulnerable to HIV and AIDS.

Unit 2

Violence and Gender Dimension of HIV and AIDS

Socio-economic factors, beliefs, ideologies, customary law and practices have been found to be central to women and girls greater vulnerability for HIV infection. The issue of gender differences in education which limit their access to information, again limited access to knowledge and economic opportunities put women at a great disadvantage position which make them poorer in their societies.

Poverty among women forces them to be more dependent on their partners economically. This phenomenon has its social implications. Because of poverty, women hardly refuse sex with their partners. They encounter several domestic violence behaviours from their sex partners.

Younger girls are often raped or defiled with its numerous consequences. Some get infected with STI's and HIV. Those that are forced into early marriage when they are not yet matured also suffer emotional stress and some lose their lives.

Many victims of these violence acts suffer in silence because they are voiceless and therefore cannot be heard.

Through violence, women's human rights are infringed upon. If women are empowered socially and economically, as well as politically, their capacities would be enhanced to be independent. They would also acquire the skills for negotiation during sexual intercourse with their partners.

Socio-Cultural Violence

There are sexual and non-sexual violence practices that women suffer. The unequal gender relations between men and women have their roots from patriarchy through which men exercise power and control over women.

Violence is used as an instrument for reinforcing social control where women are socialized to be passive and dependent on men for decisions affecting their own lives including their reproductive rights.

Female's Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C) is upheld by cultural reasons that include the preservation of tradition, virginity and pursuit of aesthetics. Child betrothal and early marriage could be regarded as violence against women since they have negative social implications towards the development of females.

Due to the unequal power relations between men and women in Africa, women do not have the power and control to make the choices regarding their sexual and reproductive health. Unfortunately, because women are socialised to be submissive, they cannot negotiate sex and use condom. A few who try to be assertive sometimes face physical assault and beatings. Consequently, more women are infected with HIV.

Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC)

Who is an OVC?

An OVC is a child who has lost either a parent or both parents through AIDS. Children who are in this situation suffer a lot and their plight has several social implications which include the following:

- Poor socialization which could be due to improper care from guardians and foster parents and therefore as a consequent become wayward;
- The risk of a lost generation;
- Some orphans may themselves be infected with HIV and would suffer all the effects of the disease including the problem of good care, stigmatisation and discrimination.

The State of Orphans in Africa

According to UNAIDS (2002), about 13 million children under the age of 15 years lost either a mother or father or both to AIDS mostly in Sub-Saharan Africa. Looking at the global scene, UN Statistics shows that 35 countries in the world have experienced a doubling, tripling or even quadrupling of the number of orphans between 1994 and 1997 (UNAIDS 2000).

From 1990 to 2003 in Sub-Saharan Africa alone, children orphaned by AIDS increased from less than one million to more than 12 million. In Uganda, although AIDS epidemic declined from 14% to 4.1% from late 1980 to 2003, the number of orphans less than 15 years continued to increase for 10 years (UNAIDS 2004).

There is a big social impact on the fate of orphans and schooling. It is noted that, children that live in high zero-prevalence areas have less access to education. Again infected teachers output affect the quality of education. For instance, Kenya faces the loss of over 6,000 teachers annually due to HIV and AIDS. In the Central African Republic, two-thirds of schools were closed down in 1998 because many teachers died of AIDS, and a significant percentage also retired between 1996 and 1998.

The Effect of HIV and AIDS on OVCs

Orphans are generally susceptible to several forms of hardships like psycho-social problems, hunger, malnourishment and other forms of exploitation and abuses. Many orphans are forced to drop out of school because they cannot support themselves and so they are forced to live rough lives to sustain themselves.

According to Lamptey et al (1999), “Some of the orphans will grow without being exposed to mentoring and leadership skills for their future development”.

Child Labour

Many children in Ghana for instance are engaged different types of economic activities to either sustain themselves or supplement families’ income. According to Ghana Statistical Service survey conducted in 2003, about 1.27 million children between 5 and 17 years are engaged in activities classified as child labour. And children identified in child labour were over 1.03 million. These activities include:

- ❖ Sex work;
- ❖ Domestic work;
- ❖ Animal rearing;
- ❖ Peddling;
- ❖ Fishing;
- ❖ Stone breaking;
- ❖ Farming;
- ❖ Sand Mining

Child Trafficking

Some of the children are involved in child trafficking, through which they are treated as commodities. Child trafficking has become a big international issue. Children are taken across sub-regional and international borders. Some initiatives have been taken to arrest the situation of child trafficking, both by national governments and at the international levels.

Studies on trafficking in Ghana, for instance, indicate a widespread of physical, sexual and emotional abuses against vulnerable children who should be in school to acquire some skills and knowledge for their future development and roles in society.

Activity 2

What Role can the media play to save the future of children from becoming drug addicts, armed robbers, street children and engaging in other social vices which would affect education and Development Efforts on the Continent?
Do a feature using a media of your choice.

Unit 3

Stigmatisation and Discrimination

What is Stigma?

Stigma is defined as “feelings of disapproval that people have about particular illness or way of behaviour” (Oxford Advance Learners Dictionary). To stigmatise on the other hand means “to treat somebody in a way that makes him/her feel that he/she is very bad or unimportant”.

The Nature of Stigma

HIV and AIDS related stigma builds upon and reinforces prejudices. In many African countries people living with HIV and AIDS, are often believed to deserve their illness because they have done something “wrong” which is often linked to sex or socially frowned upon activities.

Women with HIV and AIDS are often viewed as having been promiscuous although many could be infected by their husbands and regular male partners or by other modes of transmission.

The portrayal of women in the media reinforces such stereotypes. Stigmatisation is the attitude a person develops about what he/she sees as unacceptable and harmful. This kind of attitude leads to acts that bring disrespect, pain and disgrace to people who suffer stigma. People Living with HIV and AIDS (PLHAS) who are stigmatised often have their dignity threatened and their self-esteem lowered.

What is HIV Discrimination?

HIV discrimination occurs when a distinction is made against an infected person that results in a person being treated differently and unfairly. HIV related discrimination contributes to processes of social exclusion. For example, when an employer decides to terminate an employee’s work due to HIV status, such an act constitutes discrimination. To address this trend, some institution has put in place HIV and AIDS work policy.

Levels of Discrimination

Discrimination can occur at different levels including individual, family and community levels. HIV discrimination at the individual causes distress and an undue anxiety. The person may experience neurosis which will weaken his/her health status.

Effect of Stigmatisation and Discrimination

One sees that a vicious cycle exists between stigma, discrimination and human rights violation. Stigma is harmful, such that it can lead to feelings of shame. It creates prejudiced ideas in the minds of people, which can eventually lead individuals to do things that could harm others. Violation of the rights of HIV persons increases the negative impact of the epidemic at many levels.

PLHAS could suffer discrimination in the following ways:

- ❖ Segregation in school
- ❖ Segregation in hospital
- ❖ Denial from family members
- ❖ Denial of employment
- ❖ Ejection from rented house

Generally, there is a negative public reaction which can shape the behaviour of people living with HIV. This can lead to a further spread of the disease.

Infected persons fear of losing their identity would continue to keep their HIV status to themselves.

Activity 3

Do a feature or documentary on the effect of stigma and discrimination using a media of your choice.

Voluntary Counseling and Testing (VCT)

VCT provides an important source of information through which individuals would get to know their health status whether positive or negative.

Benefits of VCT provide a link and an entry point to HIV prevention, care and support.

- ❖ VCT promotes and sustains behaviour change negative test would normally help people to be more careful not to fall into the trap or being infected, while the individual with the positive test would be counseled to change risky behaviour to avoid infecting others;
- ❖ Counselors normally assess the care, coping and the psycho-social supports those tested positive would need.
- ❖ Many PLHAS learn many coping strategies to enable them live positively through counseling both pre-test and post-test.

Tips for Media Coverage on HIV and AIDS Issues

- ❖ Don't use HIV and AIDS interchangeably
- ❖ Adhere to confidentiality by avoiding disclosure of people living with HIV
- ❖ People should be conscientised to do Voluntary Counseling and testing (VCT) to know their HIV status
- ❖ Challenge social taboos and stereotypes and talk about prevention of HIV
- ❖ Diversify sources of information
- ❖ Avoid discriminatory or derogatory language as well as complex and technical words. In other words be simple when packaging messages on HIV and AIDS for prevention and management.

Conclusion

If Africa wants to develop steadily in the social, economic and political fields, then its human resource development efforts would need to be strengthened. This could only be achieved if the threats that HIV and AIDS and its related issues pose to the educational sector are addressed. Media practitioners have a key role to play in the various initiatives that have been put in place.

Supporting Materials

1. UNAIDS 2005 Report
UNAIDS 2007 Report
UNAIDS and World Health Organisation (WHO) AIDS Epidemic Update.
December, 2004
2. UNFPA/IAE (2004) Distance Education course on HIV/AIDS counselling and care-giving Module 1 & 2.
3. Ghana Statistical Service (2003) Ghana Child Labour Survey.
4. 2001 Gender and AIDS. Almanac Joint United Nations Programme, New York, USA.

Further Reading

1. Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE/ADEA) Higher Education Institution in African Responding to HIV/AIDS 2008.
2. HIV and AIDS Research Report and Media Guide –published by International Federation of Journalists, IFJ Africa Regional Office, 2006.

References

1. Kelley, M. The Encounter between HIV/AIDS and Education, University of Zambia. 2000.
2. Origo and Shem (2005) In I.A.E./UNFPA Distance Education Course on HIV/AIDS counselling and care-giving Module 4:3
3. Peter Aggleton, Richard Parker & Mirima Maluwa (2009) Stigma Discrimination and HIV/AIDS, Latin America and the Caribbean Inter-American Development Bank. Washington DC.
4. Roche, M. (1999) “Impact Assessment for Development Agencies – Learning to Value Change. Oxford. GB. UK.

5. Tiaji Salaam (2005) AIDS Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) Problems Responses and Issues for Congress. Congressional Research Service. The Library of Congress.
6. Association of African Universities / ADEA WG on Higher Education. An HIV/AIDS Toolkit for Higher Education Institutions in Africa. Johannesburg, 2004.
7. Martha Ainsworth, Lieve Fransen, and Mead Over. Confronting AIDS: Evidence from the Developing World. Selected background papers for the World Bank Policy Research Report, Confronting AIDS: Public Priorities in Global Epidemic. Published by European Commission. 1998.
8. The World Bank . Confronting AIDS. Public Priorities in a Global Epidemic. Published for the World Bank, Oxford University Press. 1997.
9. World Bank, UNICEF, FNUAP, PNUD, UNAIDS, United Nations UNESCO. VIH / SIDA et éducation : une approche stratégique. Mai 2002.
10. Sexuality and Life-Skills, International HIV/AIDS Alliance. 2008.
11. Gill Gordon & Tony Klouda , traduit par Isabelle Van der Borgh. LE SIDA : PARLONS-EN. Guide à l'usage des agents communautaires. The MACMILLAN PRESS LTD. Juillet 1989.

Module 16

Education and Human Rights

Overview

Every person is entitled to certain rights – by the simple fact that he or she is a human being. They are “rights” because they are things human beings are allowed to do or to have. These rights are there for protection from people who might want to harm, exploit or hurt others. They are also there to help individuals to get along with each other and live in peace. All human beings have an inalienable right to live and enjoy themselves in peace as much as possible through rights as enshrined in global conventions, declarations, charters and constitutions of states all over the world.

General Objective

To expose users to the key principles of Education as a basic human right and other Human Rights issues.

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives are to:

- ❖ Create awareness on the existing conventions and commissions on human rights
- ❖ Enhance knowledge of user on basic human rights
- ❖ Enhance the skills of user on how to cover human rights issues, particularly rights in education in the media

Expected Outcome

The user would have acquired knowledge on the broad principles of education and human rights and the linkages.

Introduction

Module 16 is divided into 2 units. Unit 1 discusses and exposes the user to different aspects of human rights and the issues that need to be articulated to promote issues of education and human rights in Africa. Unit 2 examines gender and human rights and its implications on education. It also examines other rights that enhance governance and development.

Unit 1

The Birth of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) was born out of the atrocities and enormous loss of life during World War II. The UDHR was promulgated by the United Nations in 1948 to provide a common understanding of what everyone's rights are. It forms the basis for a world built on freedom, justice and peace.

The rights within the UDHR are also seen to be entirely interrelated and interdependent. No one category of rights (for example, civil and political or economic and social) is more important than another. This is in some respects the most radical challenge presented by the UDHR.

Although most governments claim to subscribe to the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in practice almost all tend to prioritise one set of rights over the other. This is not to say that every right is of equal importance. The right to life, for example, is held to be a core right that cannot be derogated from. Other rights – for example the rights of freedom of expression and privacy – may in practice be conflictual.

The third defining characteristic of human rights is that they are enforceable. What distinguishes rights from values is that they are claims that individuals make against the state. By signing up to human rights treaties, states undertake to protect and promote the rights of their citizens. These particular characteristics of the modern human rights system distinguish it from what preceded it.

The fundamental values underpinning human rights are to be found in a variety of cultures and religions, from Islam to Christianity, Buddhism, to a variety of traditional and animist beliefs. This is not to deny that such belief systems also contain many elements that stand in contradiction to modern notions of human rights.

Education and Human Rights

Every woman, man, youth and child has the right to education, training and information, and to other fundamental human rights dependent upon realisation of the human right to education. The human right of all persons to education is explicitly set out in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenants, the Convention on the Rights of the Child and other International Human Rights Treaties and Declarations – powerful tools that must be adhered to in realizing the human right to Education for All.

The human right to education entitles every woman, man, youth and child to:

- ❖ The human right to free and compulsory elementary education and to readily available forms of secondary and higher education,
- ❖ The human right to freedom from discrimination in all areas and levels of education, and to equal access to continuing education and vocational training,
- ❖ The human right to information about health, nutrition, reproduction and family planning.

The human right to education is inextricably linked to other fundamental human rights – rights that are universal, indivisible, interconnected and interdependent including:

- ❖ The human right to equality between men and women and to equal partnership in the family and society.
- ❖ The human right to work and receive wages that contribute to an adequate standard of living.
- ❖ The human right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief.
- ❖ The human right to an adequate standard of living.
- ❖ The human right to participate in shaping decisions and policies affecting one's community, at the local, national and international levels.

The Rights of Children in Education

Convention on the Rights of the Child, Articles 28 and 29

“The States Parties ... undertake ... to ... discontinue any ... practices which involve discrimination in education....; to formulate, develop and apply a national policy which

... will promote equality of opportunity and of treatment in ... education and in particular:...To make primary education free and compulsory; make secondary education in its different forms available and accessible to all; make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity; assure compliance by all with the obligation to attend school prescribed by law...; To encourage and intensify ... the education of persons who have not received any primary education or who have not completed the entire primary education.... It is essential to recognize the right of members of national minorities to carry on their own educational activities, including the maintenance of schools and ... the use or the teaching of their own language....”

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, Article 5

“States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and ... shall ... make primary education compulsory and available free to all; ... make [secondary education] available and accessible to every child...; make higher education accessible to all...; make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children...; take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates....

States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to: ... the development of the child=s personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential; the development of respect for human rights...; the development of respect for the child’s parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values....”

Activity 1

Prepare a feature article on the commitments of your government in ensuring the realization of the Human Right to Education for all focusing on children.

Unit 2

Gender and Human Rights

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, Articles 10 and 14.

“States Parties undertake to prohibit and to eliminate racial discrimination ... and to guarantee the right of everyone, without distinction as to race, colour, or national or

ethnic origin, to equality before the law ... in the enjoyment of ... the right to education and training....”

Beijing Platform for Action, paras. 69, 80, 81, and 82.

“We ... commit ourselves to promoting and attaining the goals of universal and equal access to quality education,... making particular efforts to rectify inequalities relating to social and economic conditions ... without distinction as to race, national origin, gender, age, or disability, respecting and promoting our common and particular cultures. Quality education for all [is] fundamental to ensuring that people of all ages are able to develop their full capacities ... and to participate fully in the social, economic and political processes of human settlements.... We ... commit ourselves to ... Promoting ... appropriate facilities for ... education, combating segregation and discriminatory and other exclusionary policies and practices, and recognizing and respecting the rights of all, especially of women, children, persons with disabilities, people living in poverty and those belonging to vulnerable and disadvantaged groups....”

Gender Based Violence (GBV)

It is generally recognised that more women suffer violence than men in diverse ways. Gender-based violence, or violence against women (VAW), is a major public health and human rights problem throughout the world. VAW has profound implications for health but is often ignored. WHO’s World Report on Violence and Health notes that “one of the most common forms of VAW is that performed by a husband or male partner.”

This type of violence is frequently invisible since it happens behind closed doors, and effectively, when legal systems and cultural norms do not treat as a crime, but rather as a “private” family matter, or a normal part of life. Violence or the threat of violence deprives women of bodily integrity by eliminating their ability to consent to sex or to negotiate safer sex (Human Rights Watch).

Women are two to four times more likely to contract HIV during unprotected sex than men, their sexual physiology places them at a higher risk of injuries; and they are more likely to be at the receiving end of violent or coercive sexual intercourse (UNAIDS 2001). Women’s lack of control over their own bodies and sexual lives, thus, is a key factor contributing to their vulnerability.

Increasingly, women are dealing not only with violence itself but also with its by-product, HIV&AIDS. The pandemic is claiming more and more women, and violence is fuelling their susceptibility to it. The exponential growth of HIV infections amongst

women in turn makes them more vulnerable to violence and stigma from their partners, families and communities.

Around the world, women face an epidemic of violence in different spheres of life, from different actors. Women experience violence in their homes, communities, schools, workplaces, streets, markets, police stations, hospitals, and so on. Violence, or the threat of it, not only causes physical and psychological harm to women, it also limits their access to and participation in society.

Case Study

The WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women

This landmark study, both in its scope and in how it was carried out, shows that VAW is widespread, with far-reaching health consequences. It calls on governments to take concerted action and makes recommendations for the health, education and criminal justice sectors to take the problem seriously.

This groundbreaking research has gathered comparable data from over 24,000 women interviewed in 15 sites in 10 countries. This report presents initial results based on interviews with 24 000 women by carefully trained interviewers. It covers 15 sites and 10 countries: Bangladesh, Brazil, Ethiopia, Japan, Peru, Namibia, Samoa, Serbia and Montenegro, Thailand and the United Republic of Tanzania.

Report findings document the prevalence of intimate partner violence and its association with women's physical, mental, sexual and reproductive health.

Data is included on non-partner violence, sexual abuse during childhood and forced first sexual experience.

Information is also provided on women's responses: Whom do women turn to and whom do they tell about the violence in their lives? Do they leave or fight back? Which services do they use and what response do they get? Data from the report show that violence against women is widespread and demands a public health response.

Other Human Rights Issues

All human beings need to have the right to freedom of association, the rights to freedom of speech and expression as well as the right to access information. In this direction UNESCO supports actions that are designed to empower people so that they can access and contribute information and knowledge flows. UNESCO works to create an enabling environment, which is conducive to and facilitates universal access to information and knowledge, including setting standards, raising awareness and monitoring progress to achieve universal access to information and knowledge.

Activity 2

Do a content analysis of an article or programme on education and human rights issues using the following questions as guide.

1. What aspects of education and human rights are covered?
2. Who are the sources?
3. What international instruments support education as a human right?
4. What national instruments support the right to education?
5. Are the issues adequately covered?

Conclusion

Human Rights constitute the cornerstone of good governance since they ensure that the citizen can fully enjoy his or her inalienable rights. Whilst it is true that most states have signed onto international conventions and treaties, in practice many states flout these lofty principles enshrined in charters, declarations and national constitutions.. A vigilant media and civil society playing their watchdog and advocacy roles can influence adherence and respect for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Convention on the Rights of the Child and other treaties that can ensure the full development of societies through education.

Supporting Materials

1. (e.g. videos, pictures, audio, diagrams, news clips, websites)
2. Publications, websites, international and national instruments e.g conventions, charters, protocols and constitutions.

Further Reading

1. The Virtual Freedom of Expression Handbook (Article 19)
2. The book includes cases and key documents in the main areas of restriction on freedom of expression: broadcast/film regulation, concentration of ownership, content restrictions, defamation, freedom of information, minorities, national security, print regulation, privacy, protection of sources, public order, public service broadcasting.
3. Practical Guide for Journalists (Reporters sans frontières)
4. This handbook is intended to provide practical guidelines for journalists conducting investigations into violations of freedom of expression and freedom of the press.
5. Reporting Human Rights and Humanitarian Stories: a Journalist's Handbook (Jo-Anne Velin)
7. This handbook aims to support journalists who report stories with human rights or humanitarian components. It includes chapters on international human rights law and international humanitarian law; topical chapters (disasters and war; migrants and refugees; minorities and indigenous/tribal peoples; women and children); country profiles with basic statistical data and a thesaurus.
8. Discovering the UDHR (Patrick Manson) By examining two real cases of human rights abuses students are introduced to the contents and spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). The UDHR is presented as a document that extends the ideas of tolerance and defending others to the areas religious and political thought, security of person, fairness and justice.
9. Windhoek Declaration on Press Freedom
10. FOI information and bills

References

1. Practical guide for journalists- (Reporters sans frontiers),
2. Reporting human rights and humanitarian stories: a journalists handbook-Jo-Anne Velin, Discovering the UDHR-Patrick Manson, WHO UNIFEM, 2001, *Turning the Tide: CEDAW and the Gender Dimension of the HIV&AIDS Pandemic*. Available at: www.unifem.org/index
3. Garcia Moreno C., Sexual Violence, IPPF Medical Bulletin, December 2003.
4. UNAIDS, 2001, *Gender and AIDS Almanac*, Geneva

Module 17

Education in Conflict and Post-Conflict Situations

Overview

The universally accepted right of the child to education in practice has never been fully respected in many African countries. The situation grows worse when societies are hit by conflicts, natural disasters, pandemics and emergencies. Such situations demand relevant measures and strategies to ensure that the negative effects of such abnormal situations do not damage the education and future of children. The education of the child must not stop because of conflict and post-conflict situations because education is very crucial in the reconstruction and reshaping of post-conflict societies.

General Objective

The general objective of Module 17 is to discuss and examine the effect of emergency situations like natural disasters and armed conflicts on the educational system and also appropriate responses and strategies to ensure that the education of the child is not compromised to sustain the development of his or her potentials to become a functional citizen.

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of Module 17 are to enable user to:

- ❖ Understand the impact of natural and man-made disasters on the educational system
- ❖ Appreciate the impact of conflicts and emergencies on the education of children, particularly the girl child
- ❖ Learn about possible strategies and responses towards ensuring education for children in such situations

Expected Outcome

User by the end of module will have a better understanding and appreciation of issues in education in conflict and post conflict societies and develop the confidence to discuss such issues in the media.

Introduction

Many African countries have in the decades since independence witnessed a spate of armed conflicts which have destroyed the fabric of society, destroyed infrastructure, halted development and inflicted great human suffering on populations, particularly

women, the aged and children. The well-documented armed conflict in Angola, Mozambique, Liberia, Sierra Leone, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and other countries not only destroyed the economies but damaged entire educational systems. Natural disasters such as HIV and AIDS pandemics and floods also wreck havoc on societies. Unit 1 examines some of these man-made and natural disasters and their effects on the educational system. Unit 2 discusses appropriate responses and strategies to address the education of children in conflict situations. Unit 3 examines education in post-conflict situations, the special needs of vulnerables like child soldiers and sexually abused children and the need for reconstruction of the educational system.

Unit 1

Types of Disasters

Disasters are of two kinds—man-made and natural. Man-made conflicts are accidents or events which result from the actions and decisions of men with negative consequences for societies. Classic examples of man-made disasters are the many armed conflicts that have characterized the history of mankind. For almost three decades a bitter civil war devastated newly-independent countries like Angola and Mozambique. Civil wars have raged on in other parts of Africa like the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Chad, the Sudan and Somalia. Within national borders ethnic conflicts and chieftaincy disputes have resulted in losses to lives and property.

Wikipedia defines natural disaster as “a natural hazard (e.g. flood, tornado, volcanic eruption, earthquake or landslide) that affects the environment and leads to financial, environmental or human losses”. Natural disasters also include the breakout of pandemics such as HIV and Aids, and famine that could result among other things from climatic changes since the resultant emergencies lead sometimes to evacuation and displacement of people and disruption of social, economic and educational activities.

Effects of Conflict and Emergencies on Education

- ❖ It has been said that truth is the first casualty of war. However education is not only one of the first casualties of conflict but a permanent casualty with very negative consequences for the education and future of children. The following are some of the negative effects of conflict on society and education:
- ❖ War Scare and school attendance—attendance at schools drops drastically when an armed conflict begins because the environment for learning becomes dangerous resulting in low morale among teachers and pupils. Parents, teachers and children for their safety stay home and eventually flee as the conflict draws nearer.

- ❖ Destruction of School Buildings and Equipment-School buildings and logistics like desks and chairs as well as books are targeted and destroyed by warring factions. In both the Liberian and Sierra Leonean civil wars, which were launched from the country side, the existing poor educational infrastructure were occupied by soldiers and rebels and subsequently razed to the ground beyond use by school pupils
- ❖ Internal Displacement-Schooling totally ceases as the fighting becomes fierce and parents flee their homes to escape the scourge of war. With uncertainty about when there would be peace, safety becomes the main consideration of internally displaced people and not the education of children. Families eventually are located in camps where minimum schooling activities may take place.
- ❖ Recruitment of children as child soldiers and sex slaves-thousands of children have been forced to become child-soldiers in some of the recent armed conflicts in Africa, notably in the Sierra Leonean and Liberian civil wars. The rebel LURD movement which has waged a rebellion in Northern Uganda for over 20 years is accused of recruiting child soldiers. Thousands of young girls have also been abused as sex slaves by both rebels and national soldiers. In the process of such forced recruitments, the normal development and education of millions of African children have been disrupted. Many of such children are over-aged beyond primary education when peace finally comes. According to the NGO-Save the Child-an estimated 60 per cent of primary school children were over-aged after 14 years of civil conflict
- ❖ War Orphans-another effect of armed conflict is the loss of parents and the deprivation of parental support and care which is necessary for the education of the child. In a UNICEF survey of 3030 children in Rwanda in 3030, nearly 80 per cent had lost immediate family members.
- ❖ Disrupted Health Service and food supplies-Health facilities, food supplies, transportation and other health activities that support the educational system are also disrupted when there is an outbreak of conflict. Since it takes a long time for reconstruction to take place, education suffers in both the conflict and post conflict situations.

Effects of other Emergencies on Education

Educational activities either come to a halt or are disrupted when natural disasters hit a society. The famine in Ethiopia in the 80s disrupted the educational system of the country. An earthquake could lead to the same internal displacement that closes down schools. The HIV and AIDS pandemic which has killed many teachers across the continent and its associated stigma has similarly affected education in many ways.

Activity 1

Identify any conflict or emergency situation in your country. Write an article to highlight the impact of the identified event on education.

Activity 2

There has been a great flood that has affected a capital city in Africa with over 4 million people displaced. Identify what would be the immediate needs of men and women. How would you select the most relevant strategic needs to be addressed?

Unit 2

Education in Conflict and Post Conflict Societies

It is important that children from birth to adolescence have continued education as mandated by various declarations and conventions on the right of the child to education. It is therefore important that educational activities are carried on, no matter how difficult the circumstances may be. Of course the pressures and challenges cannot be discounted but any interruption in the educational and socialization process affects the psychological and mental development of the child.

Strategies for Continued Education in Conflict Situations

It is not imaginable to have normal schooling activities in areas of conflict but outside the conflict zones. Measures that can be taken to ensure that children have some education include the following:

- ❖ Where camps have been established in relatively safe zones protected by international peacekeepers as was the case in Sierra Leone, make-shift facilities should be established for children of school going age. Running of shifts would ensure that all children attend school.
- ❖ Special arrangements for admission to schools should be made if and when some children relocate in very safe areas. Such children may have lost some years of schooling as a result of the conflict hence the need to create such special conditions.
- ❖ Communities affected by conflict must team up to mobilise resources, both human and material, no matter how simple they are to address the educational needs of children.

- ❖ Teacher Mobilisation and Training- One consequence of conflict is the shortage of teachers. To address situation, efforts should be made to identify and mobilise community members who are qualified and have the experience and interest serve as teachers.
- ❖ Older children/adolescents who have leadership qualities and have some basic education should be mobilized to teach younger children. Volunteers could also be encouraged to give their support.

Provision of Basic Equipment and Materials for Teaching

Conflicts invariably destroy the infrastructure and materials needed for education of children. Necessity, it has been said, is the mother all of invention. Communities are therefore urged to show some creativity in dealing with the problem. The following interventions are recommended:

- ❖ Identification of basic supplies that can be found in and around community to restart basic education.
- ❖ Make-shift production of basic learning kits using available materials. The assistance of artisans such as carpenters and artists should be mobilized.
- ❖ With community participation temporary classrooms using local material can be built. In some instances tree with shades may serve as classrooms until better structures are put in place.



Children in an emergency camp in Central Africa

Activity 3

How does conflict impact on individual and community capacity for learning and for development?

Activity 4

Conduct a series of group discussions with other users to elaborate on the following relevant activities:

- (a) How to recognize fundamental human rights in an emergency situation
- (b) How to become aware of the manner in which each right relates to everyday life.
- (c) Ways and means of fulfilling basic needs; and
- (d) Children's responsibility to maintain such rights (if and when resources permit)

Unit 3

Education in Post-Conflict Societies

The reconstruction phase after peace has returned poses heavy cost burden on governments and communities as they grapple with the challenges of rebuilding a shattered economy, infrastructure, reconciling the nation and integrating internally displaced persons, child soldiers, the aged and the sexually abused into society. Pressure on scarce resources as each sector seeks to be prioritized should always be expected.

Following a needs assessment, the first phase of education programmes should focus on what can be done rapidly to support local initiatives to restart classes for children. This is to ensure that children do not miss essential educational opportunities and get back into mainstream schooling.

Strategies and Tips for Actions

- ❖ Mobilise communities to establish basic educational services
- ❖ Reconstruction and re-equipment of destroyed schools in country.
- ❖ Training and deployment of old and new teachers

- ❖ Provision of basic educational equipment and learning materials
- ❖ Construct basic recreational and play facilities
- ❖ Review and adoption of relevant curricula considering trauma of conflict experiences.
- ❖ Advocacy and lobbying with government officials, NGOS and donor agencies for support

Special Educational Needs

Children, particularly the girl child are the most vulnerable in conflict and emergency situations. Thousands of children who are conscripted as child soldiers are introduced to drugs, alcohol and emerged out of conflicts having lost the normalcy of adolescent growth. Some child soldiers are forced to undertake atrocities which leave mental scares on them throughout their lives. Similarly young girls who are sexually abused suffer the same psychological problems that therefore call for special attention. Teachers and the community must treat such victims of war with tender care to allow for quick healing of any psychological damages. Curricula should embody lessons in peace education to enhance the psycho-social development of children emerging out of conflict and emergency situations. Community support in the reintegration process is highly recommended.

Case Study 1

One important innovation in educating children in emergency situations has been the development by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and UNICEF of a Teacher's Emergency Pack (TEP), otherwise known as "school-in-a-box". The pack contains basic materials: brushes and paints, chalk, paper, pens, pencils and exercise books. It was first used in Somalia in 1992 and further refined in the refugee camps in Djibouti. The packs were widely used for Rwandan refugees at Ngara in Tanzania, where children attended primary schools in tents on a shift basis.

Case Study 2

In Sri Lanka, an Education for Conflict Resolution Programme has been integrated into primary and secondary school education. An innovative element is the programme's use of various public media to reach out-of-school children and other sectors of the community. While such initiatives are not always successful, they are indispensable to the eventual rehabilitation of a shattered society.

Activity 5

Elaborate on a *Personal Project Paper* of 2-3 pages in which you:

- (a) Describe your personal/professional experience(s) with a conflict situation, its meaning for you and the implications of this event(s) on education and learning.
- (b) Set out your personal expectations and learning objectives for the course, describing what you hope to learn, to achieve and produce.
- (c) Identify resources – websites, papers/books, institutions, cases – that you believe will be useful in pursuing your objective.

Conclusion

The negative effects of conflict and emergencies on the education of the child are such that societies should strive to maintain the social order and peace. The media must first of use its influence to prevent conflicts and wars and secondly ensure that education gets the priority it deserves as societies emerge out of conflict.

Supporting Materials

1. Education in Emergencies. A Resource Toolkit. A publication of Regional Office for South Asia in conjunction with New York Headquarters. UNICEF 2006.
2. Mary Joy Pigozzi. Education in Emergencies and for the Construction: A developmental approach. UNICEF New York. 1999.
3. Education in Emergencies. A kit for starting and managing education in emergencies. Sitseer.
4. International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa. Education in Emergencies Newsletter. Vol.7 No. December, 2005.

Further Reading

1. UNICEF-Impact of Armed Conflict on Children-Report of Graca Machel, Expert of the Secretary General of the UN-1995.
2. Alison Joyner. Supporting Education in Emergencies: A case study from Southern Sudan. Vol. 6, Issue 1. Routledge. February 1996.
3. Inter - Agency Network for Education in Emergencies. Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies. Chronic Crisis, and Early Reconstruction. A Uganda Case Study. Prepared by Joan Sullivan - Owomoyela. 2006.



4. Marina Andina. Education in Emergencies. Standards for Human Rights and Human Development, Monograph International Comparative education. School of Education. Stanford University. August 2005.

References

1. Marc Sommers, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning, Coordinating education during emergencies and reconstruction: challenges and responsibilities. 2004.
2. Pilar Aguilar, Gonzalo Retamal. Rapid Educational Response in Complex Emergencies: A discussion document. International Bureau of Education, Geneva. 1998.
3. Kathryn Tomlinson, Pauline Benefield. Education and Conflict: Research and Research Possibilities. National Foundation for Educational Research. January, 1995.
4. A. Smith, T Vaux. Education Conflict and International Development. Ulster Institutional Repository, 2003.
5. Pauline Rose, Martin Greeley. Education in Fragile States : Capturing Lessons and Identifying Good Practise. Sussex University, May 2006.

Module 18

Special Needs in Education

Overview

Module 18 introduces the user to Special Needs Education (SNE) in Africa. Special Needs Education targets persons with disabilities as well as gifted children. Provision of SNE is regarded as one way of promoting inclusive education and achieving the Education for All goals by 2015.

General Objective

The general objective for this module is to introduce Special Needs Education as an important component of the education system in Africa.

Specific Objectives

The specific of objectives are to enable the user to:

- ❖ define special needs education
- ❖ identify and describe categories of children that require special education
- ❖ analyse challenges of special needs education in their countries.

Expected Outcome

The User will acquire knowledge and competencies for media coverage of Special Needs Education.

Introduction

Module has two units. Unit 1 tackles definition and rationale for special needs education. Unit 2 deals with different categories of children requiring special education and discusses some of the key challenges involved in implementing SNE.

Unit 1

Definition and Rationale for Special Needs Education

Definition of Special Needs Education

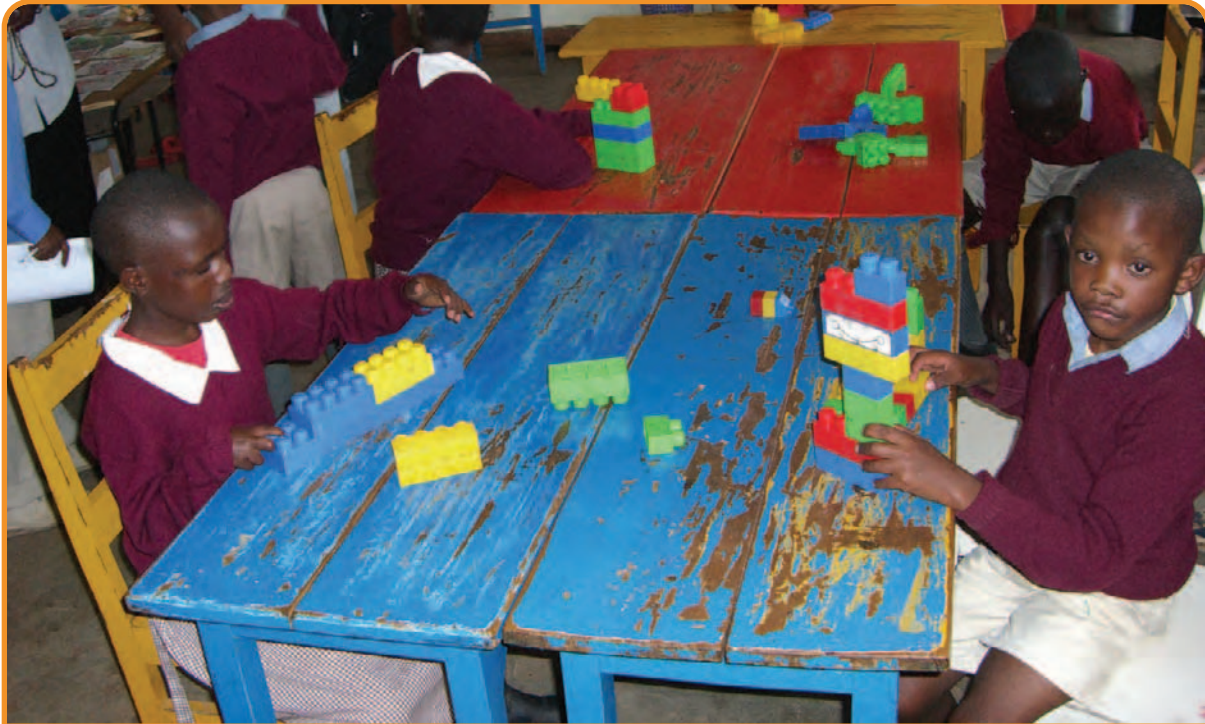
According to Farrant (2008) Special Needs Education is “any teaching system that attempts to provide a more appropriate form of education for children whose physical or mental condition makes normal teaching methods unsuitable for them”.

Rationale for Special Needs Education

The rationale for provision of this type of education is the need to address the individual disabilities of learners in order to make learning more attractive and meaningful to children of various backgrounds. Depending on the type of disabilities, school curriculum, infrastructure, teaching and learning practices and methodologies are modified to address the special needs of the individual.

In Africa, there is great concern for access and quality of education for children with disabilities. SNE is one way of equalizing opportunities in education for persons with disabilities in line with both local and international rights frameworks.

The 2006 Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities, the 2000 Dakar Education for All (EFA) framework and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are examples of conventions that commit countries to develop and educational system for persons with disabilities.



Physically challenged children in school in East Africa

Categories of Children that Require Special Education

There are different types of special needs or disabilities that warrant children to need special education. Some of these needs can be temporary while others can be permanent. That is why educators need to “recognise, evaluate, understand, and respond to the needs of the individual child” (Pollard, 2002 : 171) in order to provide such children with a conducive learning environment.

There are three broad categories of children that need special education based on types of disabilities. These are:

- ❖ **Handicapped children:** these children suffer from a number of handicaps that include physical, mental, emotional or social handicaps. The handicaps can be severe or slight and each needs special attention. Included in this category are children with physical deformities, children with eye or ear problems, children with speech defects, children with low intelligence, children whose nervous system is affected as well as those who are neurotic.
- ❖ **Children with learning problems:** these children have deficiencies in heredity or environment and make slow progress in school, a condition that

necessities remedial education in extreme cases. The learning problems may be brought about by physical or mental handicaps as well as learning conditions. Children in this category include dyslexic children, late developers, and children suffering from ill health poverty and poor socialisation. Children from poorly resourced schools (e.g. where there are unsuitable buildings, inadequate equipment, inadequate books, teachers, etc), also learn with difficulties and can suffer intellectual backwardness.

- ❖ **Gifted children:** these children have special ability such as intelligence, music or art and this ability puts them well beyond the scope of normal children, a condition that requires special treatment. In most school gifted children are left unattended. Farrant (2008:95-102)

Activity 1

Write a story assessing the state of special needs education in your country.

Unit 2

Challenges with Special Needs Education

The Africa continent faces a lot of challenges with special needs education.

- ❖ **Funding** - One of the key challenges has to do with resources for special needs education. A number of authors like Farrant (2002), Andzayi (2009), and Chavuta et al (2008) have pointed out that the cost of special education for children with severe handicaps is much more than for mainstream children. Most countries struggle with providing adequate resources for general education. Making extra funds available for special education therefore comes as an extra burden on policy makers.
- ❖ **Human and Material Resources** - the issue of shortage of human and material resources for special education is also critical. In most countries there are very few teachers who have received special training to identify and handle cases of handicaps or organise remedial teaching. This also includes shortage of teachers qualified to teach gifted children.
- ❖ **Qualified training institutions** - for special education are very limited. Coupled with this is shortage of teaching and learning materials like Braille, sign language

dictionaries and others for children with visual impairments. Children with physical disabilities also face accessibility problems as most schools have not modified infrastructure and facilities to make them disability friendly. In addition few countries have offered any significant incentives by way of salary increments or career prospects to encourage teachers to take up the special training required for special or remedial education. As a result of shortage of resources in schools, African countries experience high rate of dropout among pupils with special education needs. Bringing back pupils have dropped out of school is very difficult.

- ❖ **Negative Attitude** - towards disability is also a challenge for special education. In many societies children with handicaps are regarded as second class, and face discrimination in provision of social services including education. As a result of such discrimination many parents hide their children at home. These children themselves get demoralized to go to school.
- ❖ **Policy** - another challenge which is linked to policy formulation is the reality that the world is currently focusing more on Inclusive Education whereby children with special education needs are mainstreamed in the education environment in order to achieve social cohesion (Andrew Pollard, 2002). This paradigm shift has both positive and negative implication on policy development around special needs education. For instance some governments are unable to formulate and implement SNE because it is considered discriminatory by some stakeholders.

Activity 2

- ❖ Investigate the main challenges faced by children with special needs in your country's schools, and the efforts by the government and other stakeholders in addressing challenges in Special Needs Educations Based on your findings, write an article of no more than 1000 words for submission to the editor of the leading daily newspaper in your country.

Conclusion

The call for Special Needs Education becomes critical if one considers access and equity in Africa's educational system. This is an important area the media would have to provide in-depth coverage to widen access of education to all persons no matter their disabilities and challenges.

Further Reading and References

1. Andema Sam & Adoo Adeku Kate, eds, 2009, Literacy for Development in Africa-Some Issues and Concerns, Ghana Reading Association, Institute of Continuing and Distance Education Printing Press, University of Ghana, Legon, pp255-283.
2. Burrell, Andrew & Jeni Rily, eds, 2005, Promoting Children's well-Being in the Primary Years, NEP Limited, Stafford
3. Chavuta, A; Nsapato, L. & O'dele A: An evaluation on Special Needs Education in initial Teacher Training Colleges in Malawi, August, 2008
4. J.S. Farrant, Principles and practice of education, Longman, New Edition, 22nd impression, 2008...pp94-105
5. Pollard, Andrew, ed., 2002, Readings for Reflective Teaching, Continuum, New York
6. Peter Mittler, Helle Mittler, Helen Mc Conachie. Working together. Guidelines, for partnership between professionals and parents of children and young people with disabilities. Guides for Special Education N° 2. UNESCO 1986.

Module 19

Quality in Education

Overview

Quality of education is difficult to define and measure. An adequate definition must include student outcomes, and the nature of the educational experiences that help produce those outcomes such as the learning environment. Since independence in the 1960s in sub-Saharan Africa, rapid population growth and economic stagnation and decline in many countries have had an impact on both the quantity of educational services, and the erosion of quality in education. Today, the quality of education at all levels in Africa is not of the same standard as in the more developed countries. An important indicator of the quality of education is the value added of schooling – a measure of outcomes. The value added consists of learning gain and the increased probability of income-earning activity. Cognitive learning gain can be measured by achievement tests. Whereas the notion of quality and its priority applications differ from country to country, it is generally agreed that quality in education is crucial in Africa's strategic plans towards catching up with the developed world. It is therefore very significant for journalists, media practitioners and all other communicators to understand the geographical context of quality in education, what its indicators are within the cultural milieu of particular countries, and the challenges associated with implementing quality education.

General Objective

This module should enable journalists and all media practitioners to understand and concretely appreciate quality issues in education as well as the strategies involved in the quality delivery of education in order to meet the EFA and MDG goals, and the role the media can play in promoting quality issues in education in Africa.

Specific Objectives

The user should be able to:

- ❖ Understand and appreciate the meaning of quality in education within the context of a complex system embedded in national political, cultural and economic context.
- ❖ Appreciate the global and international influences over the definitions of

educational quality, while ensuring that national and local educational contexts contribute to the definition of quality in different countries.

- ❖ Understand the practical issues related to the provision of quality schooling for every child born in the African continent.
- ❖ Identify the challenges of mainstreaming quality education in Africa at the continental level.
- ❖ Examine the various initiatives that have been taken by governments and donors to address quality issues in education since the World Conference on Education held in Dakar in 2000.
- ❖ To develop and advise on a model specific to his or her environment on what features of quality in education would need urgent attention.

Expected Outcomes

The user will be better able to articulate and disseminate information on the importance of the addressing quality issues in education as a means to achieving most of the objectives set out in the Dakar Declaration on Education for All and in meeting the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.

Introduction

In many countries on the continent, the African child, who enters school for the first time frequently faces a situation that is quite foreign to their life at home in a rural village or an urban slum. The language used in the school is often different. The method of communication is written rather than verbal, and existence is categorized into subjects that are not referred to at home. The African child's major challenge at this stage may not be that of learning new skills, but simply one of adjusting to an altogether different environment. In this respect, African children need sufficient help to enable them to integrate what they already know when they enter school with what they will learn as they proceed through the education system. In recent times, steps have been taken in some countries to advance this theory, but this is not being universally applied at present, as in some of these countries, emphasis continue to be placed on teaching basic cognitive skills such as literacy and numeracy.

Quality should therefore include how well the education system can take in modern, market-oriented skills to traditional, home-based values and needs. It is suggested in some quarters that policies for the achievement of these qualitative objectives would include adjusting the school calendar to take account of the child's economic functions at home; giving first instruction in the child's mother tongue; integrating

subjects around the life of the child and his community; and involving students in the application of theory so that learning has utility beyond that of qualifying individuals for the next level of education. These changes encourage children to look at and react to their environment in new and more productive ways. When either academic or post school performance is used to measure school quality, it is necessary to control for the effect of nonschool factors, such as innate ability, family background, and early childhood education. The impact of school inputs on performance is the gain attributable to these inputs, after controlling for the effects of nonschool factors.

This module comprises of three units that examine the preconditions for the shaping of more effective quality improvement strategies for education in Africa. Unit 1 focuses on the definition and the various concepts associated with quality of education issues. Unit 2 examines the challenges related to the declining quality of education in Africa. Unit 3 examines measures for improving quality in African education.

Unit 1

The Concept of Quality in Education

At present, a new approach is being advanced by UNESCO to understand the concept of the 'quality of education' as it is widely believed that in view of the new challenging emerging educational needs of the new millennium, and the disparities inherent in this with the kind of education that is being offered in many school systems around the world, the concept of quality in education needs to be re-examined more comprehensively to emphasize on 'learning' in the twenty-first century.

Traditionally the quality of a school or education system has been acknowledged by the performance of its students and graduates-what has come to be known as the output. In practice, however, because inputs into the teaching process are generally easier to measure than output, quality is often gauged by the inputs. The inputs include a wide variety of factors: infrastructure and resources, quality of school environment, textbooks, teacher preparation, teacher salaries, supervision, attitudes and incentives, school climate, curriculum, students' physical well-being, and family and socioeconomic context. When an attempt is made to measure output as a direct indicator of quality, the most common approach is to concentrate on the scores of cognitive achievement tests. The goals of schooling encompass, however, more than just academic achievement. Quality pertains also to how well the school or school system prepares students to become responsible citizens and instils attitudes and values relevant to modern society. Schools do achieve these goals, and they are

important ones. In addition, most of the same factors that foster quality in learning appear likely to strengthen the school's impact in other domains. In order to maintain a constant average quality of education in a rapidly expanding system, the overall effectiveness of the system needs to improve. This need remains to be satisfied in most of sub-Saharan Africa.

What constitutes an acceptable standard of school quality is always a relative matter, as purposes of education are culturally bound and value-laden. For some, education's purpose is to foster students' cognitive, moral, and social development; for others it is a means of promoting social cohesion and nation building; while for some others, it is a preparation for the world of work. This complex situation makes even agreement on quality assessment results problematic. Questions regarding quality may be related to any other important aspect of the educational system: infrastructure, school buildings, administration, leadership, management, teacher training, educational materials, teaching, or student achievement. In the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s, following the Jomtien Conference, several sub-Saharan African countries more than doubled their enrolment ratios in a comparatively brief period. This resulted, as was expected in the decline of students' performance on average, simply as a function of the continent having moved from a small system serving the elite to one serving many, including children disadvantaged with respect to the out-of-school factors that affect learning. Resources had been stretched beyond effectiveness.

We can also examine quality through measuring the efficiency of the system. Educational efficiency is measured internally by the rates of completion, dropout, and repetition. Efficiency is also measured externally by looking at the outcomes of education or the productivity of school leavers. We can, for example, measure such quality issues according to earnings or agricultural yields associated with an individual's or a community's level of schooling. Quality is also looked at with a focus on the content, context, and relevance of the education provided. This approach to quality focuses on process within the school and classroom and relationships between the school and the surrounding community. Greater attention is also given to the ways in which inputs interact at the school level to produce quality, which is taken to mean the elements of knowledge and character that a society values in young people. This approach more readily encompasses non-formal and alternative forms of schooling (for example, community schools or literacy programs) and programs for out-of-school youth, with purposes that may diverge from the customary educational aims of formal schooling and modern sector employment. This is particularly important as it includes both school- and community-based participation in decision making about education, interactions within schools and classrooms, and issues of relevance.

The concept of quality, depending on who is defining it may contain both descriptive and normative characteristics. From a descriptive point of view, quality may be viewed as an attribute of a single school, i.e., one school has furniture in all classes, or most of the teachers in another school have certificates, degrees or diplomas. From a normative point of view, quality also may refer to the status or degree of worth of a school in relation to other schools, i.e., one school is better than another because it has higher scores on the leaving examination, or one school is the best in the district because it retains the most girls, and therefore is most child-friendly. Most discussions of educational reform and innovation at a national level will also assume both a descriptive and normative use of the term. In sum quality is often defined as effectiveness, the degree to which objectives are met or desired levels of accomplishment are achieved. Higher quality thus typically means an increase in effectiveness, as locally defined. Although staff quality and students' academic results are always important, a more complex understanding of quality includes an evaluation of the personal characteristics of teachers and students, not just qualifications or academic success. From this point of view, quality is influenced by local physical conditions and circumstances, and also involves feelings, attitudes, values, and behaviour appropriate within the local context.

Activity 1

Elaborate on the interpretations given to the notion of quality in education in your country. Prepare a brief article for publication in which you examine the different facets of quality in education and relate these to the various categories of individuals, groups or communities that are advantaged as well as disadvantaged with respect to quality education in your country.

Activity 2

To what extent can generalizations be made on quality issues in education across nations, communities, schools, or even classrooms? As a media person, how would you interpret this to your audiences?

Activity 3

In pursuing Activity 1, did you notice any differences in definitions given by those at the “top”, e.g., central ministries or national policy groups, and those at the “bottom”, e.g. , community leaders or teachers? Please elaborate.

Unit 2

The Declining Quality of Education in Africa

The cognitive achievement of African students is low by world standards and the evidence points to a decline in recent years. Much of this evidence is indirect, however, and focuses on quantities of particular inputs (especially books and other learning materials, management, and maintenance of capital assets) and their recent decline relative to other inputs (especially teachers).

Comparative information on outputs is very limited, but the information that is available is both compelling and disturbing. A few cases were cited in the 1988 World Bank study entitled “Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion”. In a mathematics study conducted by The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement based in Stockholm, Sweden, tests in five subfields of mathematics administered at the end of the 1981 school year to national samples, ranging in size from 800 to 8,000 to 13 year old students, revealed that although there were differences among countries, the upper-middle-income countries as a group performed on a par with the industrialized ones. But the lower-middle-income countries and particularly the two African countries in the survey performed much worse. Students in Nigeria and Swaziland answered just over half as many items correctly as students in Japan, the highest scoring country, and about 65 percent as many items correctly as students in the seventeen better-of countries. These differences are highly significant. In addition, IEA studies of achievement in reading comprehension and general administered to a small sample of students in Malawi who were, on average, six years older than the IEA-surveyed students in developed regions, their performance was less satisfactory than that of any of the other sixteen groups in reading and lower than all but three in science. On the reading test the Malawian students had just over half as many correct answers as the average number in the IEA surveyed countries and about 84 percent of the average on the science test.

Although this is an old example of more than 20 years ago, this situation has not changed much for many countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The general conclusion to be drawn from these studies is that the quality of education in Sub-Saharan Africa is well below world standards. One explanation for this low quality is that expenditure per student, a highly aggregated proxy for educational inputs, is very low by world standards. This is especially true at the primary level.

Another explanation for the low quality may be that what little is spent on each student is poorly allocated—that there is internal inefficiency in the education system. Low expenditure per student has certainly constrained educational achievement in Sub-Saharan Africa. But low quality results also from a misallocation of expenditure. At least until recently, there was a tendency, often encouraged by donor agencies, to emphasize expenditure for development, especially for the construction of new facilities, and to ignore the recurrent costs of new projects as well as the recurrent inputs that would ensure the productivity of existing establishments. For example, the ratio of expenditure on books and supplies to expenditure on teachers' salaries is far lower than most knowledgeable educators would consider optimal. Moreover, because teachers' unions are politically potent and most salaries are protected by contractual obligations, the salary-nonsalary ratio in African public education has tended to increase in recent years as budgets have been cut.

In many cases, teachers' salaries and benefits in Sub-Saharan Africa account on average for about 90 percent of recurrent education expenditure at the primary level, 70 percent at the secondary, and 50 percent at the tertiary. Even if all of the rest were available for the all-important teaching materials, not much would be left for them or for the maintenance of school buildings and equipment. At the secondary and higher levels, where transfers to students for welfare costs (food and lodging) claim significant sums, the crunch on nonsalary inputs is even tighter than the figures suggest.

Educational materials account for under 2 percent of the recurrent primary education budget in the median African country. This allocation amounts to less than \$1 per pupil a year which buys very little in the way of books, slates, wall charts, and writing implements. Even if some educational materials are purchased out of development budgets (because of the unwillingness of many donor agencies to finance recurrent costs), and notwithstanding the fact that some materials (perhaps significant amounts in some places) are purchased privately by students for their own use, the picture remains stark in comparison with other places. The developed countries spend a larger percentage of a much larger budget on instructional materials, close to 4 percent at the primary level, which amounts to about \$100 per pupil a year. With only \$1 spent per pupil a year on educational materials in Africa, even the most ingenious teacher would find it hard to teach children very much. Only when a substantial multiple of this amount is made available for teaching materials—either by shifting funds from other expenditure categories or by mobilizing additional resources—can teachers in African schools again become pedagogically productive.

CASE STUDY

East Africa: Communities Can Address Poor Quality Education

Priscilla Mirembe

19 May 2010

Kampala — When the Primary Leaving Examination (PLE) results were released in February, the best performing schools and pupils received a lot of media coverage. However, a grave and disturbing issue that did not receive as much public attention was the large mass of pupils in the poor and remote communities of Uganda whose performance was dismal.

It was reported that about 76,983 pupils (15%) of the PLE candidates from 2009 did not even get an aggregate of 28, and the education ministry stated that the reasons for poor performance were teacher absenteeism and poor inspection of schools.

The New Vision on April 9, 2010 reported that according to UNESCO, Uganda has the highest school dropout rate in East Africa. A follow-up of every 100 pupils who joined Primary One in 1999 showed that only 25 reached Primary Seven in 2006.

Another study by the Uganda Government showed that on average, half the pupils who enroll in Primary One do not complete Primary Seven in the set time-frame.

Records at the education ministry show that only 444,019 pupils out of the 890,997 who enrolled in 2003 sat for the PLE last year. A total of 446,978 (50.16%) either dropped out or repeated classes.

For the last five years the Stromme Foundation, a Norwegian development organisation, has worked with local community-based organisations and non-governmental organisations to address education inequalities that lead to high dropout rates and poor performance.

Working with 28 schools in the eight districts of Mbale, Sironko, Budadiri, Gulu, Amuria, Kumi, Soroti and Bushenyi, Stromme encourages full participation of the communities in supporting their children's education.

The foundation encourages involvement by local Education authorities, Parent Teacher Associations (PTA's) and school management committees parents, teachers and pupils themselves.

The communities had to make a commitment to contribute towards addressing the problems and to ensure that no child stays at home. They also ensure the teachers are in class early everyday.

The PTA and school management committees carry out their supervision and governance role and mobilise community participation.

The local governments ensure the availability of capitation grants, while Stromme contributes some funding. The success of this education project is the strong community involvement and ownership that ensures sustainability.

Schools like Bumusamali, Nabiwutulu, Khamoto in Mbale and Sironko districts had very poor performance, and had never had pupils pass with a first grade in their 20-year history.

As a result of the Stromme and community intervention, 143 classrooms have been built, leading to increased space to accommodate more children. The improved infrastructure attracts children to attend school. Twenty eight teachers' houses have been built improving their motivation which resulted in increased numbers of hours the teachers are in contact with the pupils, due to their proximity to the schools.

In addition, 994 pupil's desks, 142 chairs and 112 tables for teachers have been provided at these schools. Thirty seven latrines with five stances each have been built and some have showers for girls who would normally drop out of school once puberty sets in.

Community members and parents have been sensitised on the importance of education and the need for girls to be allowed to continue in school and complete the primary cycle.

The communities have been taught that the schools are theirs for posterity and this has encouraged and prompted them to contribute to school development.

They are also empowered to supervise what goes on at the school as well as to lobby the local authorities and education offices for better facilitation.

Attendance by pupils and teachers is now more regular. All the above has resulted in better performance at the primary leaving level. In these schools, second grades were scanty. Today, the schools boast of first grades, numerous second and third grades and enrollment has increased by 30% to 40% in all the schools.

This confirms that schools in poor and hard to reach communities can compete favourably with support. The Government alone may not accomplish the necessary changes, and should work in partnership with civil society and community.

Although grants worth millions of shillings are provided to support education in these areas, the results are never good enough. There are several factors apart from financing which affect children's performance which could easily be addressed by civil society.

Poverty is one major impediment to improved school performance in poor and hard-to-reach communities. For improved and sustainable education results, household poverty cannot be ignored.

It is necessary to develop a link between education programmes and sustainable livelihood programmes to reduce poverty in such communities. Through the self-help group concept, Stromme, through its partners, mobilises communities and sensitises them about pulling savings, small businesses and income generating opportunities to fight poverty.

This has been done in other poor communities of Mwanza (Tanzania) and has been successful. It is also being introduced in Mbale and Sironko. Such models in poor communities should be introduced to support and strengthen basic education.

The writer is the regional director, Stromme Foundation Eastern Africa

Copyright © 2010 New Vision. All rights reserved. Distributed by All Africa Global Media (allAfrica.com)

Activity 4

Do policies of equity and universal education lead to lower quality? If so, is this acceptable to the society as a whole, or to the power elite? Describe the experience in your country with regard to implementing programmes aimed at fulfilling the requirements of EFA and the millennium development goals.

Activity 5

In attempts to design better educational systems how would you see size, selectivity, and diversity of students' populations relating to quality?

Activity 6

The quality of education in Sub-Saharan Africa is known to be well below world standards. Are there any examples of successful implementation of quality improvement initiatives in your country? Please elaborate.

Unit 3

Measures for Improving Quality in African Education

The following factors can be identified as elements that contribute to improving quality in African education: community support; the training and use and supervision of teachers; textbooks and other instructional materials; school buildings and facilities; school leadership; the language of instruction; the nutrition and health of children and a strong assessment and examination system. External examinations contribute importantly to quality improvement through performance measurement and curriculum improvement. Excellence at the school level means more than an individual excellent teacher or even a collection of excellent teachers. A strong school community and strong school leadership are of overriding importance in bringing teachers together to as a community of learning at the school level. We take a closer look at the following:

Teacher Development

The most critical factor within the school in facilitating student learning is the teacher and the ability of those in leadership positions to shape a collaborative, motivated, and effective teaching and learning community. Teachers' professional attitudes,

energy, and motivation are critical, in combination with teaching skills, in creating quality of learning. These teaching skills include many interacting factors:

- ❖ Sufficient knowledge of subject matter to teach with confidence
- ❖ Knowledge and skills in a range of appropriate and varied teaching methodologies
- ❖ Knowledge of the language of instruction
- ❖ Knowledge of, sensitivity to, and interest in young learners
- ❖ Ability to reflect on teaching practice and children's responses
- ❖ Ability to modify teaching/learning approaches as a result of reflection
- ❖ Ability to create and sustain an effective learning environment
- ❖ Understanding of the curriculum and its purposes, particularly when reform programs and new paradigms of teaching and learning are introduced
- ❖ General professionalism, good morale, and dedication to the goals of teaching
- ❖ Ability to communicate effectively
- ❖ Ability to communicate enthusiasm for learning to students
- ❖ Interest in students as individuals, sense of caring and responsibility for helping them learn and become good people, and a sense of compassion
- ❖ Good character, sense of ethics, and personal discipline
- ❖ Ability to work with others and to build good relationships within the school and community

Two dimensions of the costs associated with teachers may be distinguished: quantity, as reflected in class size, and quality, as reflected by such factors as the length and content of the training received and teacher morale. In many African countries ineffective teachers are a constraint on learning, and this problem deserves attention from policymakers. The lifting of teachers' morale is a great challenge, since most countries cannot afford additional monetary incentives. But not all measures to regenerate teachers' professional pride and enthusiasm need be costly in monetary terms. Increased provision of instructional materials and better support and supervisory services from inspectorates and ministries will help improve working conditions, particularly for the many teachers who must work in the relative isolation of rural areas. In most of these countries in-service training is likely to prove more cost-effective than alternative programmes of pre-service training in ameliorating this problem.

In addition, large proportions of primary school teachers particularly in sub-Saharan Africa lack adequate academic qualifications, training and content knowledge. Preparing teachers begins with the selection of those who are to enter teacher training

(UNESCO 2004). Countries have set standards that define the entry qualification of individual to be trained as teachers. In many developing countries these standards are relatively low due to the difficulty in attracting persons with higher qualifications to train as teachers. Yet research shows that students tend to learn more from teachers with strong rather than weak academic skills.

Teacher absenteeism, a persistent problem in many countries, reduces the quality of education and results in a waste of resources. High levels of teacher absenteeism generally indicate severe dysfunctions in the school system, but they have many different direct causes which include the lack of professional standards and lack of support and control by education authorities as well as cultural demands in some countries. In other cases, teachers absent themselves when they have to travel to obtain their monthly pay. There is also the problem of teacher shortage. In the rural-based schools this problem has gender dimensions, in that women are acutely underrepresented in school headship.

The UNESCO EFA 2005 Global Monitoring report enumerates five areas critical to teacher quality: (i) finding the right recruits; (ii) initial teacher education; (iii) ongoing professional support; (iv) teacher earnings; and (v) teacher deployment and conditions of service. The point is made that, teachers being the largest public expenditure in budgets of less-developed countries, the central dilemma is paying teachers, expanding the teaching force to fulfil the demands of exploding enrolments, and devoting resources to improving the quality of teachers (UNESCO 2004, p. 161). As with the provision of education itself, many countries need to address issues of quantity and quality of teachers simultaneously.

Instructional Materials

There is strong evidence that increasing the provision of instructional materials, especially textbooks, is the most cost-effective way of raising the quality of primary education. The scarcity of learning materials in the classroom is the most serious impediment to educational effectiveness in Africa. It is certainly here that the gap in educational provision between this region and the rest of the world has grown widest.

Given that many primary school teachers in Africa have less formal education and teacher training than is usually the case in more developed regions of the world, the use of teachers' guides and other materials designed to assist teachers in the organization of classroom activities could prove especially cost-effective. The advantage of such materials is that they supplement the teacher's own knowledge and promote the proper sequencing of learning activities in the classroom.

The availability of all such instructional materials has declined in recent years as increased fiscal stringency has led to severe cuts in nonsalary expenditures. The problem of the scarcity of appropriate teaching materials, however, goes well beyond the availability of funds. Most African countries have yet to develop a national capacity for the development of low-cost teaching materials that are pedagogically sound and relevant to the national curriculum.

African countries should develop national skills for adapting and editing written materials. An increased capacity to write and publish classroom materials is a feasible short-term objective. Printing need not necessarily be done locally, since small countries with limited educational markets are particularly costly to serve with local presses. In those African countries in which the local printing industry is reasonably developed and efficient, the awarding of contracts for paper procurement and textbook printing through international competitive bidding will ensure that the prices paid do not exceed the lowest prices obtainable elsewhere by more than the normal margin of domestic preference accorded to goods and services of national origin. Cooperation among groups of small African countries affords the possibility of economies of scale in printing, as well as the possibility of producing materials in local languages that cut across national borders.

Once on hand, instructional materials need to be stored adequately and distributed to schools in a timely manner, and teachers need to be trained in their use. All this requires organization and planning and, above all, funds for transport, an item in short supply.

Exercise books and pencils are basic to the learning of literacy and numeracy skills. To recover costs, some countries have transferred to parents the costs of these basic supplies. An advantage of this approach is that it safeguards the provision of these relatively inexpensive but pedagogically crucial inputs during periods of financial stringency.

Physical Facilities

Dilapidated buildings, missing or broken desks and chairs, and a lack of good ventilation and sanitation facilities are commonplace in African schools, especially in rural areas. Not much is known about how construction standards, school upkeep, and the presence and condition of other school facilities affect the quality of education as indicated by pupil achievement. One effect of low-standard, poorly maintained facilities may be to discourage pupil attendance. For those who attend, little can be learned, surely, on a rainy day under a leaky roof or with no roof at all.

The current budgetary crisis has aggravated the problems of inadequate plant maintenance and missing or broken furniture because in most African countries the responsibility for maintenance rests with the central government. The general trend toward greater local financing of the capital costs of education, if extended to include capital maintenance, might alleviate these problems somewhat' and the use of more local materials for school buildings and classroom furniture may make it possible to reduce their costs. Whether the central government or a local authority is responsible, the failure to maintain physical facilities not only curtails learning but can also increase overall costs because it can lead to premature replacement of the facilities.

The Language of Instruction

The diversity of linguistic backgrounds in Sub-Saharan Africa greatly complicates teaching. Module 22 adequately addresses the use of national languages issues in education in Africa, and shows how important the language factor is in enhancing the quality of education. Of the 2,000 to 2,500 languages in use today in Africa, only about ten of these are spoken as a first or second language by as many as 10 million people. Although literacy in one or more African languages is an explicit goal of the education system in some countries and not in others, the combination of the colonial heritage and the relative absence of published materials in these vernaculars has led most African countries to adopt the language of the former colonial government as the national language and to introduce it as the medium of instruction at some level in the formal education system.

The colonial powers in Africa pursued different policies with respect to media of instruction in schools, and African nations have often kept these traditions after independence. The policy regarding the language of instruction whether and when to use the national language or an African language-must be devised by African governments themselves on the basis of political as well as economic necessities. A main objective of primary education is that pupils are able to emerge orally fluent and literate in the national language. This may help to promote political stability and build national unity as well as serve economic purposes.

Research shows that from pedagogical perspectives, there are great benefits in using the mother language for instruction in the initial years of primary school, even when literacy in the national language is the ultimate objective. Current research suggests that (a) the acquisition both of oral fluency and of literacy in a second language is most successful when there is a strong foundation in the first language; (b) conversational skills in a second language are learned earlier than is the ability to use

the language for academic learning; and (c) academic skills learned in school transfer readily from one language to the other, so that skills taught in the first language in transitional programs do not have to be relearned in the second language.

It is generally agreed that even where instruction is to be given in a language other than the child's mother tongue, the most effective policy educationally is one of initial instruction using the mother language, followed by a gradual transition to the national language as medium. Ideally, study of the first language, as a subject at least, will continue after the transition is complete. The pedagogical advantage of this approach is more pronounced during a transition period in which the teachers themselves are not particularly fluent in the national language—a situation that is fairly typical in many African primary schools today. The effectiveness of this kind of bilingual education policy in relation to the costs involved depends both on the size of the population group being educated and on the degree of linguistic heterogeneity within individual classrooms. Country-specific circumstances will be decisive. In many countries the principal problem will not be providing initial literacy in the African language but, rather, effectively introducing a national language that many of today's primary teachers speak and read only poorly, if at all. Good materials are important for rectifying this, as are teacher training and selection.

Nutrition and Health: Ensuring Teachable Pupils

Nutritional deprivation of children is prevalent in many parts of Africa. This is particularly pronounced in rural communities even when harvests are normal. All indications are that childhood malnutrition and the concomitant debilitating diseases will continue well into the foreseeable future as perennial problems. Module 20 on Health Education deals with this aspect.

The incidence of malnutrition and disease is especially high among preschool children. By the time such deprived children reach school age, a large proportion are physically stunted (below normal in height), a condition frequently accompanied by impaired mental ability. Many of those who are malnourished and sick will never attend school. Those who do enrol tend to be weak and sluggish from hunger and weakened from their frequent bouts with diarrhoea and fever; their attendance and academic achievement obviously suffer. The high benefits predicted to accrue from investment in education are never realized in the case of these sick and malnourished children.

To the extent that health problems continue and imbalances between food supply and population persist (or worsen), it will be essential to determine the remedies for

children and what the consequences of failing to adopt those remedies will be, for the education system and for society in general. There is potential for high returns in programs for family planning and primary health care (including prenatal care), nutrition education for mothers, early childhood development programmes for children, and in school feeding of children. Because they do not fall neatly within any one ministry's responsibility but overlap ministerial responsibilities, programmes that address the complex of problems linking health, nutrition, and intellectual development, especially as they affect those not in school, tend to be neglected. Governments must give more attention to early childhood development, especially to nutrition and primary health care, so as to identify approaches that are effective and feasible within particular national contexts.

School feeding programmes that target those at greatest nutritional risk could, under some circumstances, provide the most effective means for improving a child's ability to learn. The food required for such programmes is often available in kind from external sources such as the World Food Programme.

Activity 7

Using your investigative journalism skills, can you interview at least 10 teachers – males and females from at least three different schools- to probe into their current situation with regard to issues bearing on their morale, the type of training they received, their remuneration and other incentives, and how they generally manage in their working environment.

Activity 8

What is the relationship of politics and power to conceptualizations of educational quality? That is: it may be important to ask: quality for whom or quality according to whom? In view of this, investigate experiences of capacity-strengthening and evaluation within international collaborations in your country.

Activity 9

Having gone through this module carefully, what additional measures would you advise your ministry of education to take in order to mainstream quality education in your country. Write a feature article for the general public which you will publish in your paper or journal.

Conclusion:

In this module, the user has been exposed to the notion of quality in education focusing on the role of teachers, schools, and communities as well as the various other processes needed at the local level to ensure quality education in African schools. The measures reviewed in the module for improving the quality of schools has shown that the safest investment in educational quality in most countries is to secure adequate books and supplies. These are effective in raising test scores and, almost invariably, have suffered from underinvestment in relation to investments in teachers. This is also an area in which external aid has a comparative advantage. Other areas that appear to have potential include school feeding and health programmes, in-service education of teachers in subject matter skills, and strengthened inspection and supervision systems.

Supporting Materials

1. Association for the Development of Education in Africa (2004). *The quest for quality: Learning from the African experience. Proceedings of the ADEA Biennial Meeting*, Grand Baie, Mauritius, December 3-6, 2003.
2. Elizabeth Leu, *The Role of Teachers, Schools, and Communities in Quality Education: A Review of literature*, AED Global Education Centre, Academy for Educational development, 2005.
3. Yaw A. Ankomah et al, *A Review of the Concept of Quality in Education: Perspectives from Ghana*, Ed Qual Working paper, Quality No.4, December, 2005.
4. Mary Joy Pigozzi, *What is "Quality of Education"?* (A UNESCO Perspective) in *Cross-national studies of the quality of education: planning their design and managing their impact*, edited by Kenneth N. Ross and Ilona Jurgens Genevois, UNESCO IIEP, 2006
5. UNESCO. 2004. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005: Education for All—The Quality Imperative*. Paris: UNESCO.
6. United Nations (2007). *The Millennium Development Goals Report*.



Further Reading

1. Delors, J. (1996). *Learning the treasure within*. Paris: UNESCO.
2. The World Bank (1988). *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion*. A World Bank Policy Study. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank Washington, D.C.
3. Eric A. Hanushek, Ludger Wobmann. *Education Quality and Economic Growth*. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank Washington, DC 2007.
4. Dembele, Martial. 2004. "Pedagogical Renewal: The Critical Role of Teacher Professional Development." *ADEA Newsletter* 16(1):15–16.
5. Farrell, Joseph. 1989. "International Lessons for School Effectiveness: The View from the Developing World." In *Educational Policy for Effective Schools*, ed. Mark Holmes, Kenneth A. Leithwood, and Donald F. Musella. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) Press.
6. Fredriksson, Ulf. 2004. "Quality Education: The Key Role of Teachers." Working Paper No. 14. Brussels: Education International

References

1. The World Bank (1995). *Priorities and strategies for Education*. A World Bank Review. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank Washington, D.C.
2. DeStefano, Joseph, Ash Hartwell, and Karen Tietjen. 1995. *Basic Education in Africa*. SD Publication Series, Technical Paper No. 14, HHRAA Project. Washington DC: USAID/AFR/SD.
3. Heneveld, Ward, and Helen Craig. 1996. *Schools Count: World Bank Project Designs and the Quality of Primary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
4. Kane, Eileen. 1995. *Seeing for Yourself: Research Handbook for Girls' Education in Africa*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
5. King, Elizabeth M. 1990. *Educating Girls and Women: Investing in Development*. Washington DC: The World Bank.

6. Leu, Elizabeth. 2004a. "The Patterns and Purposes of School-Based and Cluster Teacher Professional Development Programs." Issues Brief #1. Washington DC: USAID, EQUIP1.
7. Leu, Elizabeth. 2004b. "Developing a Positive Environment for Teacher Quality." Issues Brief #3. Washington DC: USAID, EQUIP1.
8. Lewin, Keith M., and Janet S. Stuart. 2003. "Research Teacher Education: New Perspectives on Practice, Performance and Policy." MUSTER Synthesis Report. Sussex UK: University of Sussex and Department for International Development (DFID) Educational Papers.
9. Shaeffer, Sheldon. 1992. "Educational Quality Redefined." *Forum for Advancing Basic Education and Literacy* 1(3):1–2.
10. Shaeffer, Sheldon. 1999. "Improving Educational Quality through School-Based Management and School-Community Partnerships: Why and How to Do It." Washington DC: UNICEF Human Capacity Development for the 21st Century.
11. Riddell, Abby Rubin. 1997. "Assessing Designs for School Effectiveness Research and School Improvement in Developing Countries." *Comparative Education Review* 41(2).
12. Uganda Government. 1999. "Improving the Quality and Relevance of Primary Education for All Ugandan Pupils: The Primary Education Reform Programme." Kampala: Ministry of Education and Sports.
13. UNESCO. 1994. *Quality Education for All: Final Report of the Second Meeting of the International Consultative Forum on Education for All, New Delhi, 8–10 September 1993*. Paris: UNESCO.
14. UNICEF. 2000. "Defining Quality in Education." Working Paper Series. New York: UNICEF.
15. USAID. 2002. *Progress in Education, USAID 2000–2002*. Washington DC: USAID.
16. Verspoor, Adriaan M. 2004. "The Quest for Quality: Towards a Learning Community," *ADEA Newsletter* 16(1):5–8.
17. World Bank. 1994. "Educational Quality: Defining What's Important." *Findings: Africa Region 16*. Washington DC: The World Bank.

Module 20

Health Education

Overview

The module will critically examine the important area of health education with the view of giving you facts on its relevance and importance both to education and public health as a whole. You will learn why it is important that great investments be made in the health education sector. You will also be introduced to the definition of health education and why it is necessary that you take a keen interest in it as a subject of great public concern. The implications of having effective health education in African schools or lack thereof will be highlighted thus giving you the necessary insight for activism and advocacy in the field.

General Objective

This module provides broad understanding on Health Education and its role, particularly within the context of the African education sector.

Specific Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you should be able to:

- ❖ Define health education and explain its importance and relevance to education;
- ❖ Discuss the rationale for reporting on health education;
- ❖ Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of pertinent health education matters;
- ❖ Analyze the status of health education in your country.

Expected Outcome

Below are the expected outcomes of this module:

- ❖ You have the ability to clearly define health education explaining its relevance and importance ;
- ❖ You can justify and defend the need for reporting on health education matters ;
- ❖ You can list and critically explain the key areas in health education ;
- ❖ You present a thorough analysis of the status of health education in your country.

Introduction

Health education in general as well as in schools is one of the most important subjects of concern on the African continent today. Sadly, this subject seems, like many other developmental issues, to have been given very little or no attention by journalists, communicators and media specialists alike. As a result, many African children are pushed out of the school system and suffer diverse effects due to ill-health, poor sanitation, pregnancies, HIV and AIDS, Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs), drugs and substance abuse, etc, which could be addressed through effective health education programmes. In order to avoid these occurrences, it is important to understand that health is one of the key determinants of success for any developmental agenda. It has an effect on education, the economy, family, public institutions and all other sectors of existence. In other words, the health status and well being of people play a central role in the advancement of human societies. In simple terms, this means that in order to have effective and productive populations, the people should be in good health physically, emotionally, mentally, spiritually and otherwise. In the present instant, this would apply to children in schools. The current millennium presents itself as one with many challenges in terms of health concerns both in Africa and globally. The emergence of HIV and AIDS and other deadly diseases such as the H1N1 Flu has huge and grave implications for health education. For this reason, journalists, media specialists and communicators have a responsibility to ensure that the information presented in the public domain is well researched, balanced and educational. Further, health education in schools should be made a centre of attention for journalists, media specialists and communicators so that the children of the African continent can enjoy their inalienable right to education. It is important to note that for the purposes of this module, health education is defined mainly in as far as it is relevant to the school system. Therefore, you are expected to use the information provided to critique health education in your country's education system as well as that of the African continent.

Unit 1

Defining Health Education

According to Wikipedia, health education can be defined as the profession of educating people about health. Areas within this profession encompass environmental health, physical health, social health, emotional health, intellectual health, and spiritual health. It can be defined as the principle by which individuals and groups of people learn to behave in a manner conducive to the promotion, maintenance, or restoration of health. However, as there are multiple definitions of health, there are also multiple definitions of health education. The Joint Committee on Health Education and Promotion Terminology of 2001 defined Health Education as “any combination of planned learning experiences based on sound theories that provide individuals, groups, and communities the opportunity to acquire information and the skills needed



to make quality health decisions”. The World Health Organization defined Health Education as “comprising of consciously constructed opportunities for learning involving some form of communication designed to improve health literacy, including improving knowledge, and developing life skills which are conducive to individual and community health”.

Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Health_education 10/09/09 at 1027hrs

Health education may also be defined as the process by which people learn about their health and more specifically, how to improve their health. Many different types of people provide health education and there are many different ways health education is delivered, based on various behavioural change models. Health education is critically important in improving the health of communities and individuals. Health education aims at changing attitudes about unhealthy behaviours to healthier ones thus leading to improved health, which is the ultimate goal of health education.

Source: http://www.ehow.com/facts_4882795_definition-health-education.html 11/09/09 at 1306hrs

The overarching goal of health education within the school system, therefore, is to help students adopt and maintain healthy behaviours. Therefore, health education should contribute directly to a student’s ability to successfully practice behaviours that protect and promote health and avoid or reduce health risks. Not only do schools provide critical outlets to reach millions of children and adolescents to promote lifelong healthy behaviours, they also provide a place for students to engage in these behaviours, such as healthy eating and physical activity.

Source: http://www.aahperd.org/aahe/pdf_files/factSheet.pdf 10/09/09 at 1046hrs.

Activity 1

Write a brief report on why it is important for you to pay attention to health education in schools. Your report should include the following:

- ❖ A definition of health education;
- ❖ An analysis of the status of health education in your country;
- ❖ Implications for having ineffective health education systems in schools.

Unit 2

Key Issues in Health Education

There are many issues of importance within the health education sector which you need to familiarise yourself with in order to attain effective communication and balanced reporting. Invariably, it is always advisable to bear in mind the fact that health education is essentially an issue of public health which seeks to ensure the health and wellbeing of the people. Health problems are always regarded as having disastrous effects on the education of children as they “interfere with students’ ability to come to school, stay in school, or make the most of their opportunity to learn. Schools, even those with limited resources, can do a great deal to improve student health and thus educational outcomes”.

Below is a discussion of some of the key issues in health education that require attention:

Sexual Reproductive Health Education

This basically refers to sexual reproductive education that focuses on sexuality, HIV and AIDS, Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs), teenage pregnancy, adolescent health and other relevant matters. In your reporting, you should seek to analyze the existing trends in the schools in your country regarding the issues highlighted above. Let us examine some of them briefly below:

Teenage Pregnancy

In essence, teenage pregnancy is defined as a teenage or underage girl, usually within the ages of 13-17, becoming pregnant. The term in everyday speech usually refers to women who have not reached legal adulthood, which varies across the world, who become pregnant.

Source: http://www.knov.nl/leden/_files/pdf/Teenage_pregnancies.pdf 11/09/09 at 1656hrs.

The above source further states that teenage pregnancy is a very problematic issue for most African schools. Issues of teenage pregnancy and the consequential drop-outs prevalent in many African schools are a huge cause for concern. For instance, in some sub-Saharan African countries it ranges from 143 per 1000. In this vein, you would seek to show the causes or the driving forces behind this trend. You would also raise key human rights and gender questions, particularly highlighting the damaging effect pregnancies have on the girl child’s right to education. Again, your reporting should raise concerns about the quality of life skills education and preventative

programmes run by schools in your country. Teenage pregnancies have the potential of permanently derailing or even destroying girls' educational goals and aspirations, which may result in their disempowerment and future reliance on spouses for survival. The number of teenagers who drop out of school due to pregnancy is a huge cause for concern. For example, in Swaziland pregnancy is one of the main causes of school drop-outs after poverty. In fact, indications are that the whole of the sub-Saharan African region is gravely affected.

Consider the passage in box 1 below:

Box 1

Sub Saharan Africa has the highest rate of teenage pregnancy in the world 143 per 1000 girls aged 15 to 19 years. Generally they are married. In Niger according to the Health and Demographic Survey in 1992, 47% of women aged 20 – 24 were married before 15 and 87% before 18. 53% of those surveyed had also given birth to a child before the age of 18 Teenage Birth Rates in African Countries (2002) is 233 per 1000 women aged 15 – 19. A Save the Children report identified 10 countries where motherhood carried the most risks for young women and their babies. Of these, 9 were in sub-Saharan Africa, and Niger, Liberia, and Mali were the nations where girls were the most at-risk. In the 10 highest-risk nations, more than one in six teenage girls between the ages of 15 to 19 gave birth annually, and nearly one in seven babies born to these teenagers died before the age of one year. (Ibid, pg 4).

As a journalist or communication specialist, such figures should be a cause for concern. Your task is to ask critical questions to the correct people such as policy makers, politicians and educators on why such obtains. In other words, bringing these issues into the public domain should be at the heart of your agenda. Some of the driving factors for teenage pregnancy are listed below for your consideration:

1. Sexual abuse
2. Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)
3. Socio-economic factors e.g. poverty, orphan-hood, etc.
4. Multiple Concurrent Partnerships (MCPs)
5. Dating violence
6. Drugs and substance abuse

These and more are some of the key drivers of teenage pregnancy which you should be focusing on in order to determine whether or not the schools in your country are doing enough to prevent it.

Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs)

By definition, these are any infections or diseases that are acquired through sexual intercourse or sexual activity/contact. They include such diseases as gonorrhoea, syphilis, genital warts, cauliflower and many more. STIs are very dangerous to children's learning.

HIV and AIDS

See module 15.

Sexuality Education

This refers to education that focuses on teaching children on matters of human sexuality, sex education and understanding how their bodies function with the view of preventing detrimental activity such as premature sex, teenage pregnancy, contracting HIV and AIDS and so on. This form of education seeks to empower children with the necessary life skills that would enable them to practically face the social demands of life. It is important to provide this form of education to children so that they do not find themselves exposed to a trial and error method that normally causes them to fall into serious traps such as pregnancy and contracting sexually transmitted infections. As journalists and communicators, you should be concerned about whether or not children and youth in your country are receiving proper and relevant education in this field.

Activity 2

You have now been introduced to sexual reproductive health as a key issue in health education that requires attention. Therefore, complete the following tasks:

- a. In your own words, briefly discuss why it is important to teach sexual reproductive health issues in schools;
- b. Discuss how you think the problem of teenage pregnancy can be addressed in your country;
- c. Prepare a summary on the current status of sexual reproductive health in your country.

School Health Programmes

These are health programmes designed to ensure and safeguard the health status of children in schools. Every child has the right to a healthy, safe and conducive learning environment. Therefore, all schools have an obligation to establish and provide

effective and child-friendly health plans to cater for children who fall sick or get injured during schools hours. In this regard, all schools should have the following:

- ❖ A first-aid kit;
- ❖ At least one teacher trained on basic health care (management of minor illnesses);
- ❖ A sickness referral system for all children;
- ❖ Transport to take sick children to hospital during emergencies.

Essentially, your role is to investigate the existence of such programmes in schools in your country with the view to influence the establishment of quality child-centered health education.

Cleanliness and Hygiene in Schools

The areas of cleanliness and hygiene are very important in the health education sector. In fact, these are key areas of concern, which demand to be given due attention. Unclean children are a hazard not only to themselves but also to other children in the school as well as to teachers and the environment. In other words, having unclean children can have a devastating impact on the learning system in schools. Teaching good hygiene practices is therefore a crucial necessity in schools. For instance, the latest outbreak of H1N1 (Swine Flu) in African countries has not just been accelerated by human contact, but also by hygienic practices. As a means to stem the tide, African countries have had to upscale teaching on hand washing and proper hygiene. Cleanliness and hygiene programmes should focus on the following areas:

- ❖ Body and hand washing;
- ❖ Dental hygiene;
- ❖ Environmental cleanliness;
- ❖ Sanitation.

Nutrition

This is one of the most important subjects in health education in African schools. Poor nutrition has serious effects on learning abilities and outcomes. The UNESCO Global Monitoring Report of 2009 for instance, states that “High levels of child mortality and malnutrition represent a formidable development challenge in their own right. They are also symptoms of wider problems that directly affect education” (Pg. 43). It further avers to the fact that over ten million children die each year before they reach the starting age for primary school due to, amongst other things, inadequate access to basic services such as water and sanitation. This state of affairs leads to increased incidences of infectious diseases such as cholera and diarrhea. Poor nutrition negatively affects school enrolment, retention and causes absenteeism amongst learners. This means that it has a negative impact on school participation and

achievement. The summary of the 2007 UNESCO Global Monitoring Report highlights the fact that, “stunted children [those short for their age] are less likely to enroll in school and more likely to enroll later and to drop out. A severe or chronic lack of essential nutrients in childhood impairs language, motor and socio-economic development.”

In light of the above, it is important for you to find out the nutritional value of the food provided in schools in your country as well as the status of the access to good nutrition. Equally important is the need to highlight the effects that the lack of proper nutrition has on school going children. Below are some of the areas you may want to concentrate on:

- ❖ Feeding schemes in schools;
- ❖ Variety in the food provided and its quality;
- ❖ Catering for children with special food needs;
- ❖ The provision of clean water;
- ❖ Provision of supplementary vitamins;
- ❖ Vaccination;
- ❖ Periodic de-worming.

Sports and Physical Education

This is education that primarily focuses on developing physical abilities and psychomotor skills. It also promotes sports development and nurtures talents. According to Wikipedia, “the primary aims of physical education have varied, based on the needs of the time and place. Most modern schools’ goal is to provide students with knowledge, skills, capacities, values, and the enthusiasm to maintain a healthy lifestyle into adulthood. Activities included in the program are designed to promote physical fitness, to develop motor skills, to instill knowledge and understanding of rules, concepts, and strategies. Students learn to either work as part of a team, or as individuals, in a wide variety of competitive activities” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Physical_education 14/09/09 at 1220hrs). UNESCO is mandated to improve the quality physical education, because of its Education for All initiative, as well as its physical education and sport (PES) programme and the International Olympic Committee’s goal of Sport for All. In order to improve the quality of physical education it is imperative to increase the value attributed to PES as well as making it available to all peoples.

(Ref:(http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.phpURL_ID=9535&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.ml) 14/09/09 at 1230hrs.)

Below are some of the key issues of concern in Sports and Physical Education:

- ❖ The inclusion of sports education in the school curricula;
- ❖ Life-long sports training and development from primary to tertiary level;

- ❖ Sports education and development for all people with special needs;
- ❖ Gender equality in sports and physical education.

Activity 3

- a. Create campaign materials and messages for cleanliness and hygiene in schools;
- b. Develop a brief documentary highlighting the challenges of nutrition in your country's schools;
- c. Prepare a press statement addressing the importance of investing in physical education.
- d. Write brief articles on all the sub-topics discussed in this module.

Conclusion

This module has discussed the area of health education. It has emerged that health education is a very important field that needs serious attention by journalists, communication officers and media specialists alike. The module has further flagged out the important components that you should address in order for the improvement of education in your country and on the African continent as a whole. Serious advocacy and lobbying in the form of letters, articles, memos, press statements and other form of communication tools need to be undertaken in order to bring health education into the public domain for scrutiny and proper attention by governments, development agencies and the general public.

Supporting Materials

1. UNICEF, WHO, UNESCO. *Facts for Life. A Communication Challenge*. UNICEF, WHO, and UNESCO in partnership with many of the worlds leading medical and children's organizations. Third Edition, 2002.
2. *The State of the World's Children 2008*, UNICEF 2007.
3. *World Education Forum: Education for All 2000 Assessment. Thematic Studies. School Health and Nutrition*. UNESCO 26-28 April 2000.



Further Reading

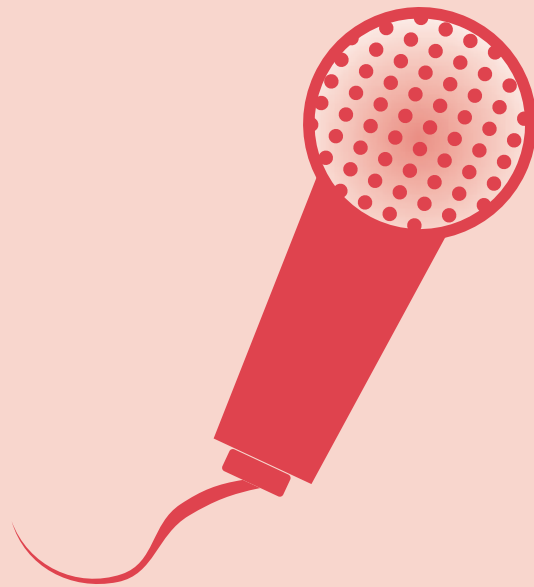
1. Cheryl Vince Whitman, Director, Health and Human Development Programs and Senior Vice President, EDC ; Carmen Aldinger, Research Associate, HHD/EDC ; Beryl Levinger, Senior Director, Global Learning Group, EDC ; Isolde Birdthistle, Senior Research Associate, HHD/EDC, WHO. Education for All 2000 Assessment: Thematic Study on School Health and Nutrition (July 2000). The World Health Organization (WHO) Department of Health Promotion, on behalf of Education for All (EFA) 2000, and prepared by Health and Human Development Programs (HHD) at Education Development Center, Inc. (EDC), the Collaborating Center to Promote Health Through Schools and Communities.
2. The World Bank (1988). Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion. A World Bank Policy Study. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank Washington, D.C.

Reference

1. Peiris, R et al. Strengthening School Health and Nutrition Programs in Sri Lanka for Better Education and Healthier Lifestyles. PCD Publications. 2007.
2. Andrew Harmer, International Health Partnership (IHP+), Country Literature Review, DFID Health Resource Centre, Nov. 2008
3. Mark Pearson, Achieving the MDGs: at what cost? , HLSP Institute, London, Feb. 2009
4. Health and Development: Global Update, HLSP Institute, London, Jan. 2009.
5. UNICEF, Tracking Progress on Child and Maternal Nutrition: A survival and development priority, UNICEF, November 2005

Section 5

Emerging Issues in Education





Module 21

Popular Culture and Education

Overview

Using media outlets such as movies, music, television, video games, internet, and magazines, young children and teenagers have been influenced by popular culture. In Africa, this is more pronounced in urban than in rural areas. As with any family, the ideals and beliefs are passed on from one generation to the next, but what happens when everything they see outside their home contradicts what they know to be true? The values instilled on children can help carry them through life with a positive or negative outlook. The character, personality, and identity of a person are shaped through many different means, but with the unlimited access to anything and everything through media, children's identities are being skewed. Today, pop culture both positively and negatively manipulates the identities of youth in many regions of the world including in Africa, and this is more so now than any other outside influence in history. Whether it is a positive or negative effect, is something parents, teachers and other adult family members must be aware of to help mold and shape upstanding, conscientious, and productive members of society. This module explores the influence of popular culture in education among African children and youths and suggests that using popular music, arts, and theatre approaches designed to add, supplement and encourage meaning, needs to relate to young people's contextual experiences – their daily life experiences outside of their formal or vocational educational structures, however challenging this may be for the educator.

General Objective

To better understand the importance of the educational function of the media and its influence on the construction of the culture of children and young people, and whether or not in the most diverse contexts and bearing in mind the specific situation in Africa, this media influence sometimes called the parallel school can complement the real school, families and guardians in the education of children and youths.

Specific Objectives

- ❖ To better understand the role of popular media such as cinema, music, television etc, in the socialization of children and young people
- ❖ To identify the various components of popular culture and their influence in the cultural heritage of humanity in general.
- ❖ To understand the influential capacities that the media has on the young population in Africa with the influence of music –heard on the radios, CDs or through internet – as well as cinemas, cell phones, and the internet through television.

- ❖ To better informed of the “Renewed New Media Education” as a way of creating a critical and active civic consciousness enabling access and participation in the creative and constructive use of the media.

Expected Outcome

Users will be able to perceive better the important connection between communication in the form of the use of popular culture to support educational attainment, and the need for improved coordination between all types of communicators and educators, and consequently bringing to the attention of communicators the importance of their tasks in regard to education.

Introduction

Popular culture by definition is a contemporary life style that is generally accepted by a large population of people. It is the popular written literature and broadcasting, music, dance and theater, arts, sports and recreation and other cultural aspects of social life. Popular culture has a major impact and influence on the development and learning experiences of young people. It is a relationship associated with young people's everyday interests of music, art, media, internet, TV, radio and fashion - it offers creativity, challenges, participation and engagement. With growing urbanization on the African continent, society in many African settings can be described as fast paced, easy access, and consumption-driven which constantly bombards and confronts young people with very complex ideas and often adult information. Young people have to deal with the growing gap between traditional/mainstream education and the “real world” – and it is difficult to expect young people to make informed decisions when faced with conflicting and often contradictory information.

While the dynamic of what is popular varies from region to region within the United States, the broad based literature, movies, and music genres cross most of these boundaries. In Africa, educators may need to focus on the development skills that offer young people a level of familiarity and which may assist them in finding solutions to everyday challenges. Tim Weedon, an American popular educator who specializes in popular culture with a focus on Hip-Hop says that he once experienced a young person in a class who was having difficulty in understanding the historical geography of Sierra Leone. In this instance he was able to make a link between researching the country Sierra Leone and a specific theme within the rapper Kanye West song, ‘Diamonds are Forever’ (or “Diamonds from Sierra Leone”). His approach for implementing music is not only focused on basic educational skills but also on the more complex life-long learning development skills that present themselves in daily life. Pop culture is what is on the minds of people at any given time. It can last an instant, a month or even a year. The phrase, “fifteen minutes of fame” is a pop culture term used for something that is only popular for a short time, then fades into the background.

Unit 1

Background to popular Culture

No matter where you go, you are surrounded by pop culture. Whether you are reading a magazine, watching television or a movie, or even listening to the radio in your car, you are exposed to some form of pop culture on a daily basis. Pop culture is so ingrained into our society that it's almost impossible not to be influenced by it. In almost all urban centres in Africa, with easier access, quicker results, and uninformed parents, children are exposed to a tremendous amount of information fed to them by the pop culture world. This influences and shapes children's identities. However, not all of this is negative and if parents are educated and aware of what their children are doing pop culture can be used positively to help mould the children of the future.

In sub-Saharan Africa, popular culture became more pronounced in most parts of the continent after independence in the 1960s, mainly through popular African music from countries like Ghana, Nigeria and the Congos. Popular music from Europe and America was also played on national radio stations throughout Africa, and this had tremendous influence over young people and adults alike. The beginnings of popular American culture can be traced back to the early 1900's. Prior to this, the medium used to expose people to popular aspects of society was much different. In America for instance, the general public had access to radio and print on a daily basis, thus both were utilized fully to get the public's interest in specific topics. Music, poetry, fiction, and theatre all began to influence people in the early 1920's in America. In Africa, we see this much later, and especially during the 1970s when they reached their peak in both Francophone and Anglophone Africa. Teenagers began to form their own cliques in schools based on what was popular in the world at the time. In America, the biggest change occurred between the 50's and the 70's. These thirty years were the most influential years and the beginnings of wide spread pop culture phenomenon. From rock and roll to the flower children hippies, the dissention between parents and children continued to grow as access to pop culture became easier with more broad based mediums such as television and movies.

In the early 1980's the world wide web or internet, a virtual space which connects computers to stored information as well as other computers, slowly gained popularity in Europe and America as a business tool to transmit information instantaneously. The more it was used, the larger the online community became thus attracting people from all walks of life searching for instant information. By the mid 1990's it became clear that the new internet media offered a plethora of popular topics as well as other previously unknown information from around the world. This appealed to a wide audience, and the internet was no longer just for business men, people of all ages found themselves buying computers and logging on. By the year 2000, we see a spontaneous rise in the use of the internet in many African countries. Today a very significant proportion of young people (probably up to 50% of young urban dwellers) make use of the internet on a daily basis. Millions of emails (electronic mail) are sent

around the world in any given day. With such varied access and immediate response available, African children have more information at their fingertips today than any other group of kids or teens have had in the last one hundred years.

Activity 1

Write a comparative feature story analyzing the influence of traditional African music in your society or community and the relatively new impact of western popular culture on African youths.

Activity 2

Conduct research on the American pop star Michael Jackson and write a feature story on the extent his music has influenced young people in Africa.

Activity 3

Describe the influence of the internet in regards to the use of emails, and social media such as Facebook and Twitter in your community.

Unit 2

Negative Uses of Popular Culture

What are the negative uses of pop culture in today's society? Sex, drugs and crime are three main topics parents should be aware of. Sex is prominent in most forms of entertainment. Media no longer has harsh stipulations on what is acceptable or not. Today, you can watch almost any prime time show and find some form of sex be it innuendos, the physical act or discussion about it. In many African countries today, there exist 24/7 operating television channels with movies, music videos, and other educational and entertainment programmes. Television music channels show music videos and short films that are sexually explicit. Some African artists use sex appeal to their advantage regardless of their base fan age range. Most shockingly, pornographic material is easily found anywhere on the internet and is easily accessible by a child with limited computer experience.

Along with sex, drugs and crime are also saturated into current popular culture. Many African television and movies show drug use constantly. In certain movies, young characters of the show can be found smoking marijuana. Some movies also depict various forms of criminal activity. Pool all of these topics together and parents find themselves overwhelmed by sheer saturation of negative behavior in modern pop culture.

The upside to all of this is media outlets and celebrities have begun to take responsibility for what is produced and shown to the public. Anti-drug advertisements can sometimes be seen on television during shows geared toward younger children. Some African television and movies celebrities such have started to step up giving young people role models to look up to without being overly sexual and proving that having sex before marriage is not practiced by everyone. These small steps go along way with children as they emulate much of what they see and hear through mass media and with the help of parental monitoring, the positive use of pop culture can help children shape their identities and who they want to be in the future.

In practically every African country today, young people constitute the majority of the population, and this youth population continues to expand, Parents will therefore need to be cognizant of the new pop culture world around them, and where feasible parents, teachers, and other family members will need to get involved to help maintain some semblance of control. This would be easier for literate and educated parents who may be able to monitor what children are watching, reading, and doing on the internet. Educators can become involved as well. If the content is age appropriate and can be utilized in a positive manner, it allows the parent or educator to be in control, while giving the youth a tantalizing lesson using familiar icons Obviously, teach children right from wrong, explain to them early in life that fiction is in fact fiction and most of what they see on T.V. or in the movies doesn't happen in real life. Teach children and young that all popular ideas aren't safe or acceptable. Make sure they are well rounded and educated beyond mass media outlets. Help them to form their identities by exposing them to a broad world of ideals, information, and cultures.

Popular culture isn't a necessary evil in today's society. It can be harnessed and used for good aside from the normal entertainment value it holds in everyday life. Utilizing the positive side aspects of pop culture, can help teach today's youth values and morals, this will give them the tools and the knowledge to stay away from the negative side of popular culture or at the very least take it at face value as a form of entertainment.

Activity 4

In some countries Radio and TV stations do not necessarily satisfy the educational needs of children by providing appropriate programming. Many of the available programming provides its educational content in loose ways, and many children's shows on radio and TV in Africa may not necessarily provide a moral or lesson at the end of the program. As a journalist on radio or TV or even in print media what would you do to change this? Please elaborate.

Activity 5

Does the media cultivate violence? How does cinema and television in Africa fit into this category? What solutions would you provide to the problem of media influence?

Activity 6

Write a feature story for publication or produce a broadcast feature on how you will use popular culture to promote values and morals among youths in your society.

Unit 3

Educational Function of Popular Culture

In the traditional school, children learn, study, play, explore, relate to others, and acquire a sense of the society and discipline. In popular culture, children do more or less the same: they learn – although the content is different than that of school – they play, explore, relate to others – in this case, always through some form of technology – and acquire a social sense.

However, in this mediatic culture, the tedious aspects of school are considered neither study nor discipline. This school sometimes referred to as the parallel school has specialized in a direct way of addressing its audience, which is much less complicated than that of the traditional school. Its content is more visual, more understandable, less abstract, and more direct than that of the classic school, and also, generally speaking, is much more enjoyable and entertaining.

The media has an educational function which has considerable influence on the construction of the culture of children and young people. Everything seems to indicate that in the twenty first century, a large part of the socialization of children and young people, and of the cultural heritage of humanity will be passed on through the media. This is why it is essential to relate communication and education and try to find out what the existence of this media signifies.

A fundamental transformation has been taking place among children and young people. Children of the television and cinema era tend to think in visual terms and developed an acute sense when it came to understanding and interpreting the new narrative procedures that audiovisual media introduced. They increasingly enjoyed having direct knowledge of real life – let us not say empirical knowledge – transmitted by the audiovisual media. And they became less able to cope with complex and abstract reasoning. And others, those accustomed to sound, colours, and audiovisual

discourse rhythms found themselves becoming less connected to efforts and discipline. Consequently, for many children and young people, reading texts which were not visual or the simple pleasure of literature that schools tried to instill into them, just did not make sense.

With expanding urbanization in Africa, the time that young people and children devote to the media increases on a daily basis. In Africa radio is used widely. The media and its persuasive voice have great power in shaping the mind. The development of advertising and political propaganda has demonstrated this influencing capacity of the media. The evidence is also there as when we “feel” the euphoria of a whole country about the result of a football match or some other sporting event which have been shown on television or covered by radio.

We are also beginning to understand more about the power of the media when we consider the importance of news broadcasting and how the control of information generates struggles, both at a national and international level. Totalitarian powers tend to believe they own information and use it to their advantage with overwhelming effect. But democratic powers are beginning to show that they also know how to obtain political capital from the influence they can have through the control of information in the media. On one hand, there are those who defend freedom of expression, above everything else. They believe that the media can and should freely transmit content without limits or considerations. Freedom of expression is therefore the main obligation of the media: as the main obligation of parents, tutors and educators is to teach children to control the amount of television they watch and, therefore, to select suitable programmes. Education – with whatever kind of strategy or attitude – cannot continue to ignore the importance of media culture and it is now necessary to find a suitable teaching strategy to be able to react to it constructively.

Communication is a public service that should be of public interest. It therefore should with certain commitments as regards to education. The way of understanding these commitments varies considerably from country to country and from one society to another. Usually, and especially television (particularly the state or funded services rather than private), assume that among their primary functions – together with information and entertainment – is that of education. They tend to understand this duty of education as the commitment they have of contributing to the public and moral conscience of the country, as well as that of helping to disseminate basic aspects of knowledge and culture.

In a more specific sense, they interpret this as having an obligation to provide educational programmes to all types of viewers, but especially to children and young people. Finally, as today people talk about life-long learning as a fundamental part of the information society, many television providers accept that one of their specific tasks is to contribute to the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and competences of any age and on any aspect of real life. This function of educating has brought many television providers to consider educational services for their viewers. Traditionally, this service is referred to educational television.

Activity 7

Making use of popular culture in education requires willingness on the part of the educator to research, experiment and have a general awareness and interest in the area. Try to find out about your group/class interests in music/art/media/role models/etc., and ask why these interests? Can you recommend to educators what elements they must emphasize on when teaching issues related to popular culture in their classrooms? Are there other nationalities in the group that can contribute a wider world perspective?

Activity 8

What are the effects of media on education? Do media create new conceptions?

Activity 9

In your country, what are the statistical facts about the time spent in front of the television and listening to music through the radio or internet vs. time spent in school? If you do not know, research this through a school in your community to find out.

Unit 4

What prospects for the future of popular culture in Africa?

There is a need for communicators and educators to understand each other. Their tasks are similar and complementary. This understanding means that communicators have to respect the work of and contribute to the tasks of educators. For educators, it means that they have to incorporate into their own work the questions raised by the media, their messages, and the work they do in society.

The relationship between communicators and educators can be established in informal or formal ways. In recent times, formal means of co-operation have been increasing. On the side of the media, digitalization of information and the explosion of communication channels – especially through television and the Internet – have opened up possibilities of creating media specifically aimed at education. In this way, television channels of an educational nature, radio stations and Internet portals, etc., have sprung up. This has brought about systematic collaborations between educators and communicators. Quite recently in many African countries children's television programmes have been fruitful ground for this cooperation.

With regard to education, the appearance of new technology which can be incorporated into teaching, such as computers, telematics, multimedia communication, digital television systems or Internet, have inaugurated a very recent discipline which is called in some countries, educational technology or educational communication. An infinite variety of platforms and activities have sprung up from this discipline. They have had to integrate the knowledge of communication and education, which previously had been separate.

At the global level, recent new developments have been made possible by technological progress in the field of communication and education. This is, in essence, a matter of the possibilities opened up by the easy use and growing flexibility of technology in the field of education. Digitalization of information, cheaper production and recording technologies, as well as the spread of digital television channels and, above all, the Internet, are opening up an increasingly wider area; thus, enabling educators to access and take part in the media to a greater extent than has ever been previously known. There are great prospects for wider use of these technologies in Africa in the near future. The development of low cost digital videos, the existence of nonlinear editing programmes which can be used on a simple PC – and which can edit both picture and sound; the possibilities of cheap publication of texts, and above all, the existence of the Internet and the World Wide Web, are beginning to create vocations in communications in educational institutions in Africa.

Like other regions in the developed world, Africa will in the next fifty years find it common to have school radio and television stations, on-line educational magazines, educational portals run by educators, the publication of educational materials on the net, and the setting up of forums and areas of educational cooperation centered on the Internet. Added to all this movement will be the democratization of journalistic publication, such as weblogs, personal and institutional Websites, etc. All this is creating a new circle of communication around education, which consequently is widening the educational mission of schools and developing, at the same time, new communication skills in all those who take part in the educational process. A new culture of communication is being promoted in education, and at a practical level, the skills of communicators and educators are getting closer.

It is also not rare for documentaries, short films or fiction produced by a secondary school to occupy a special place in the service of a local television station. Or simply that much of the media used content and productions which originate from the schools. This is a recent phenomenon but, like the ones previously mentioned, it shows a reinforcement of media activities in Education and a decisive commitment to educational communication. A consequence of this, and also an encouragement, is the new development of media education.

The media surrounds us. Our vision of the world, our access to real life and our contact with others, is done more and more through the media. Our culture and our education take place to a large extent in the media and through them. Our capacities and

communication skills are constantly acquiring more importance and sustainability. In this context, education can obviously not ignore communication and the media. We cannot, being seriously responsible, design a basic educational curriculum ignoring the media. Therefore what is called media education, education for communication, media literacy, or educommunication has become an essential part of our general education.

Activity 10

Using music in education has the potential to offer change within learning. It does require a willingness to interact and to analyze ideas as to how it might be used. These improvements can be based on the use of popular culture in the classroom. Conduct some research in your environment and write a feature story in which you relate popular culture with educational attainment in your country.

Activity 11

Neil Postman states in his book *Amusing Ourselves to Death*, "American television...is devoted entirely to supplying its audience with entertainment...No matter what is depicted...the overarching presumption is that it is there for our amusement and pleasure." (1986, pp. 86-87) What Postman is saying is that even when TV programming is meant to be educational it still passes itself off as entertainment. He makes the claim that this is evident even in news programs where our attention is beckoned by images of human barbarism and overwhelming tragedy. We are urged to "join them tomorrow" to find out more. (Postman, 1986, p. 87). Putting this in an African context, what do you think this means in regards to children and education? What provides a more lasting education--television or school?

Activity 12

It is often argued that knowledge of popular culture is held in a much higher respect than knowledge of school subjects. Do you agree? Prepare an article to be published in a local newspaper in your country in which you will examine the pros and cons of this argument.

Conclusion

This module has treated the subject of popular culture relating it to the African context. The module has been able to outline the educational role that popular media can play in enhancing learning as well as socialization of children and young people. It has also provided insight into the various ways that the media and the formal education systems in African countries can team up to create a critical and active civic consciousness to permit participation of all in development.

Further Reading

1. J.M. Perez Torneo in collaboration with M. De Fontcuberta, Communication and education : 3 key Questions, UNESCO, European Union.
2. Leo Cittadini III, July 11 2007, The effects of popular culture on Education.
3. Solomon Panford, Maud Ofori Nyaney, Grad Dip, Samuel Opoku Amoah, and Nana Garbrah Aidoo, June 2001, Using Folk Media in HIV/AIDS Prevention in Rural Ghana.
4. David Millar and Richard Antah, October 2005, Traditional musical instruments in indigenous communication.
5. Malcolm Jack, January 2010, Edutainment: Is there a role for popular culture in education?
6. Tim Weedon, Exploring Popular Culture in Education (See www.developmenteducation.ie)

References

1. J. Cheng., (2005). Can't Stop Won't Stop. New York: St. Martins Press.
2. V. Bogdanvo, C. Woodstra and S. Erlewine. (2005). The definitive Guide to R&B and Soul. California: Backbeat books.
3. J. Henke., A Decurtis and H, George-Warren. (1992) The Rolling Stone Illustrated history of Rock and Roll. New York: Random House.
4. J. Peterick, D. Austin and M. Bickford. (2002) Songwriting for Dummies. Indiana: Wiley Publishing.
5. R. Henning and G. Benn, (2006). Hip-Hop Education Literacy Program. Washington D.C: Educational lyrics LLC.

6. M. Runell, T. Forero Puerta and M, Diaz. (2007). The Hip Hop Education Guide Book. New York: Hip Hop Association
7. A. Sitomer. (2004). Hip-Hop Poetry and The Classics. California: Milk Mug Publishing.
8. G. Dimistriadis. (2001). Performing Identity/Performing Culture: Hip Hop text, Pedagogy and Lived Praticce.
9. M. Perry and M. Cunningham. (2002). Turntable Timmy. New York: Free Will Press
10. Des Bishop “In the name of the Fada” series. RTÉ Television. www.rte.ie/tv/inthenameofthefada/ #.
11. Benjamin Levin “Putting Students at the Centre in Education Reform” (good resource) (1995) Improving educational productivity through a focus on learners, international studies in Educational Administration, 60, pp. 15-21.
12. Collins. T (2007 'Second-level schools and the Search for meaning”. The Irish Times May 15, 2007.
13. Chuck, D. and Jah, Y. (1998). Fight the Power Rap, Race, and Reality. New York: Dell Publishing.
14. Elliot, D. (1995) Music matter: A new philosophy of music education. New York: Oxford University Press.
15. Friere, P. (1970). Pedagogy of the oppressed. New York: Penguin Group.
16. Giroux, H (1994). Disturbing Pleasures: Learning Popular Culture
17. Goleman, D. (2002). New Leadership. Great Britian: Little Brown #
18. Mortimore, P (1999). Understanding Pedagogy and its Impact on learning. London: Paul Chapman.
19. Nieto, S. (1994) Lessons from students on creating a change to dream, Harvard Educational Review, 64, 392-426.
20. Rudduck, J. (1991) Innovation and Change. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

21. Green, B., Reid, J., & Bigum, C., (1998) Teaching the Nintendo Generation? Children, Computer Culture and Popular Technology. In S. Howard (Ed.). WiredUp. (pp. 19-42) Cornwell, Great Britain: T.J. International Ltd.
22. Kinder, M., (1999) Ranging the Power on the Fox Kids' Network: Or, Where on Earth Is Children's Educational Television? In M. Kinder (Ed.). Kids' Media Culture (pp. 177-203) Durham: Duke University Press.
23. Levin, D. E., (1998) Remote Control Childhood? Combating the Hazards of Media Culture. Washington, DC: National Association for Education of Young Children.
24. Postman, N., (1986) Amusing Ourselves to Death: Public Discourse in the Age of Show Business. New York: Penguin Group.
25. Postman, N., (1982) The Disappearance of Childhood. New York: Delacorte Press.
26. Postman, N., (1995) The End of Education: Redefining the Values of School. New York: Knopf.
27. Postman, N., (1979) Teaching as a Conserving Activity. New York: Delacorte Press.
28. Postman, N., (1961) Television and the Teaching of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofto, Inc.

Module 22

Use of National Languages in Education

Overview

A mother tongue-based bilingual or multilingual approach in education is considered an important factor for inclusion and quality in education. Research shows this has a positive impact on learning and learning outcomes. Ongoing initiatives aimed at improving access in general, and enhancing the quality of learning and promoting inclusive education involve the language factor. These include a strategy for the elaboration of high quality, culturally relevant textbooks and learning materials in the languages of the learning community, and recommendations for influencing educational policies and practices worldwide.

In this module, we examine the various steps that have been undertaken in the last decade to promote the use of African languages and cultures into education, focusing on the lessons learned from analytical work on bilingual education and use of African languages as languages of instruction. The module will enable media practitioners to contribute in the on-going dialogue and debates that would enable informed decision-making and improve the understanding of conditions for successful language-in-education policies and programmes.

General Objective

African journalists will have a key role to play in information analysis and dissemination on the subject of using African languages and cultures to promote education. With top journalistic skills, they would ensure dialogue promotion among all stakeholders. This module would provide the requisite training that would enable media practitioners build their own capacity, strengthen their abilities, and enhance their professional individual performance to promote effective communication that would result in collaboration among ministries, local authorities, communities and donors in the promotion of the use of national languages in education.

Specific Objectives

- ❖ Enable users to report on issues that would promote dialogue and debate and venture into some in-depth seminal examples in Africa that illustrate the implementation of the recommendations of the regional conferences and expert meetings on bilingual education and the use of local languages held in Windhoek in 2005, and in Ouagadougou in 2010.
- ❖ Enable users to encourage partnerships, i.e. bringing different governmental partners, experts and civil society together – including ministries, local government institutions and development partners to better understand the use of national languages in education.

- ❖ Ensure that journalists have access to information which they can diffuse as widely as possible at national and international levels.
- ❖ Enable journalists to continue to promote dialogue using their various and respective media of communication among governments, local and national representatives of marginalized groups in order to determine needs, priorities and solutions for inclusive learning environments and curricula as well as inclusive approaches to educational planning and teacher training.

Expected Outcome

At the end of the training with the use of this module, users will be able to:

- ❖ Know and understand the challenges and issues regarding the integration of African languages and cultures into education to achieve the EFA goals in Africa;
- ❖ Enable journalists to conveniently work on the challenges, lessons and innovative approaches regarding the use of African languages in education;
- ❖ Better inform the public on policy statements made by policy makers at regional and international levels so as to strengthen advocacy and mobilization around promises made on policy issues;
- ❖ Appreciate the need for comprehensive and systematic coverage of emerging education issues in the context of the Second Decade of Education in Africa, in particular those related to the focus area of “Gender and Culture” – one of the seven areas of focus of the African Union’s Plan of Action;
- ❖ Understand the role of partners in the promotion of the use of national languages and culture in education development and their contribution to it;
- ❖ Identify the sources of information on education issues related to the use of national languages and culture in education and how to gather information with ease;
- ❖ Write articles or produce programmes on the use of national languages and culture that are informative and interesting
- ❖ Contribute to the creation of a conducive environment to achieve the EFA goals and the initiative of accelerated implementation of the EFA or FTI;
- ❖ Increase interest and commitment of the media vis-à-vis issues of Education for All (EFA) in Africa and worldwide.

Introduction

A 2005 study commissioned by ADEA, UIL and GTZ showed that multilingual education should be promoted as a strategic choice to improve learning among learners at all levels as well as the effectiveness of the education system. In 2006, African ministers meeting in Libreville, Gabon endorsed this study and recommended that multilingual policies which promote additive bilingualism among learners be designed and implemented in order to

optimize learning and education in Africa. As a follow up to this and the 2008 International Year of languages proclaimed by the UN to address issues of linguistic diversity, ADEA and UIL organized a follow up conference in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso from 20-22 January 2010

The language issue in Education has sometimes been sensitive in some countries with some political ramifications. Apart from poverty, countries in Africa may have the difficulty of provision in multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic situations compounded by the often rural and subsistence economy of large proportions of the population. Nigeria, for example, has about 300 languages and dialects, and Chad some 120, of which only about 12 are codified. In order to fulfill the right to education for adults and youth, legislation, policies, funding and implementation need to address challenges facing countries in the region. The use of African languages is critical for the realization of an integrated, peaceful, prosperous Africa. In this respect, the media in Africa that has treated this subject in the past will need to deal with the subject much more cogently.

Efforts to validate African languages through resolutions taken at international conferences

Africa has experienced several efforts to establish its languages, especially through the activities of UNESCO and OAU. These efforts have mostly been channelled through non-binding resolutions agreed at international conferences (for example, the OAU Linguistic Action Plan for Africa in 1986 and the Declaration of Harare in 1997) and the establishment of specialized institutions. Among these might be mentioned the OAU's Inter-African Bureau of Languages (IBL) in Kampala (Uganda) – now dismantled – the Center for *Linguistic* and Historical Studies through the Oral Tradition (CELHTO) in Niamey (Niger), and the Regional Center for Documentation on Oral Traditions and African Languages (CERDOTOLA) in Yaounde (Cameroon).

UNESCO, for its part, has been particularly active in promoting the use of African languages in education in general and in literacy in particular. As part of its validation efforts, UNESCO sponsored the translation of the General History of Africa into Swahili, Hausa and Yoruba.

Certain themes are common to all the resolutions arising from different conferences:

- ❖ African languages should be developed with the aim of using them in more diverse areas, such as education, communication, legislation and technology.
- ❖ The use of African languages in education and learning is strongly recommended because it makes the transition from home to school more natural, and opens up formal education to a much larger number of children of school age.
- ❖ The eradication of illiteracy through mass literacy programs is only attainable by using local languages. African governments should therefore make the use of these languages the keystone of their linguistic policies.

- ❖ Economic and social development require the mobilization of a country's total human resources and African languages are best placed for doing so.
 - ❖ The potential of transboundary lingua francas to assist communication and integration should be exploited through cooperation and harmonization of language policies.
 - ❖ Trade languages functioning at national and regional levels should be adopted as official languages and working languages, respectively, in place of the non-African languages that serve these purposes now.
 - ❖ Imported languages (otherwise known as partner languages) should continue to play a role in secondary and higher education, in a policy framework of planned bilingualism.
 - ❖ In order to ensure their effective implementation, these policies should be supported by national legislation, and a plan of action drawn up to specify the timetable, the ways and means and institutions responsible for implementation.
- Source: ACALAN web site www.acalan.org

Unit 1

Background to use of African Languages in Education

Colonial administrations in Africa never considered the educational and literary traditions that existed before their invasion of the continent. Whereas the French, Portuguese and Spanish administrations concentrated on education for a small elite through the European languages only, The British colonial government, however, accommodated the work of missionaries whose evangelical strategy was to transcribe African languages for religious as well as educational purposes. Little or no effort and resources went towards maintaining the existing literary and education traditions. There were few, if any, new initiatives dedicated to the development of orthographies and texts for African languages.

The linguistic activities of the early English missionaries established a solid practice of terminology development, translation, written literature and mother tongue education (MTE) for 46 years [i.e. grades 1-4; or grades 1-6 = MTE] in many African languages. The legacy of this work means that further elaboration and development of written texts is now an easier process and a little less expensive than for those languages which do not have these resources at present. Archives in Southern Africa (e.g. Zambia, Malawi, South Africa and Namibia) contain primary school text books and even dictionaries for African languages.

There were some exceptions to the general trends. Ethiopia has its own long educational tradition of using ancient Ethiopic, Giiz (Ge'ez), and later Amharic. The German administration of Tanzania, unlike other colonial powers, advanced the use of Kiswahili as the lingua franca of that country, and Kiswahili remains the language of instruction in primary education today.

In 1953, UNESCO published a report on the **Use of Vernacular Languages in Education**. This report is widely regarded as a turning point in that it played a very important role in focussing attention on recommendations that children begin their schooling in the mother tongue. Where this is really impossible, then it has been recommended that the child should learn through a language which he or she knows very well and which is used in the local community.

After independence

Following independence, several Francophone countries began to slowly accept the importance of the early use of the mother tongue in education, and adjusted their language education policies to reflect this. However, the pace at which these countries have been able to implement MTE has been slowed down by the scarcity of modern educational materials in local languages. However, many brave and important initiatives were witnessed in Mali, Cameroon, Niger and Burkina Faso, as they embarked on embracing early mother tongue literacy and bilingual programmes. In most cases the changes, considered as important steps forward, introduced MTE for between 1-3 years.

The changes in the Anglophone countries have been quite different, especially in Southern Africa. The use of 4-6 years of MTE has, in most cases, been reduced to between 1-3 years. Experts in language education consider such changes that reduce the use of MTE as retrogressive rather than progressive, and that such reduction does not make sense in either educational or language planning terms. Consequently, many educational resources in African languages have fallen into disuse and become outdated. If the resources had been maintained and used in grades 4-6, it would be easier to build on them now.

The Situation Today

Today, there is a convergence of policy between many Francophone (and also Mozambique) and Anglophone countries towards what are referred to as early-exit transitional bilingual programmes. This means early-exit from MTE, and transition to either French, English or Portuguese as the language.

There have been exceptions to the above model, including initiatives where a single African language has been used throughout primary school (Tanzania) and even through secondary school (Somalia). There have also been attempts to use several African languages for 8 years of school (in Guinea Conakry between 1966 and 1984; and in South Africa between 1955 and 1975). These examples show that it is technically possible to use African languages to the end of primary school and even beyond. Each of these examples shows that even though very few financial resources went into the process, MTE can be put in place. Unfortunately, in the case of South Africa and Guinea Conakry, these developments lasted only about two decades. It is important to note that their failure was not because MTE could not be sustained, but

because, in each case, civil society was not consulted and the policies were associated with unpopular and undemocratic governments. Newer examples of the use of several African languages in education are currently being developed in Ethiopia and Eritrea and these look promising.

Evidence from a wide variety of research has revealed that three to four years of MTE is not enough for a sound education. The best education results and return on investment are models which are known as additive bilingual or multilingual models. There are three basic types of additive bilingual or multilingual models that are suitable for schools in Africa:

- ❖ **Model 1.** Mother tongue medium for at least 6 years and very good teaching of the international language as a subject. This is followed by a dual medium programme: half of the subjects continue in mother tongue, and half in the international language.
- ❖ **Model 2.** Mother tongue medium to the end of secondary school and very good teaching of the international language as a subject only.
- ❖ **Model 3.** Mother tongue medium for the early years, with a gradual switch to another African language widely used in the community (e.g. Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo in Nigeria, Setswana in Botswana). The international language can be added provided it is taught by expert teachers to ensure high-level proficiency. From grade 8, either the African language continues as main medium of instruction together with the international language taught as a subject by expert teachers, or half the subjects are taught in the African language and half in the international language (dual medium).

In conclusion research data shows that Africa needs to have a new, clear language education goal: high-level proficiency in at least two languages—an African language and an international language.

Activity 1

Do some research in which you compare and contrast developments in the use of mother tongue education in countries under French and British colonization with the situation in those countries in the first ten years after independence.

Activity 2

Which of the three additive bilingual or multilingual models would you consider as the best suitable for the situation in your country? Please give an elaborate explanation as to why you think so.

Activity 3

Fifty years after independence, should Africa still embark on new language policies?
What should be the role of the African Union in this?

A 1953 UNESCO publication on the use of mother tongue and vernacular languages in education

More than 50 years have passed since UNESCO convened a meeting of specialists, in November 1951, to discuss the use of vernacular languages in education. The report of this meeting, published in 1953 (but now out of print), is a remarkable document for its continued timeliness and pertinence today: it is unequivocal in supporting the desirability of children's beginning their schooling in the mother tongue, even when another language must be used for further training, while also recognizing there may be many practical difficulties in doing so. The problems cited then are the same that are emerging now in the debate on the merits and challenges of learning in one's mother tongue. These include:

- ❖ The need for adequate reading materials for children, adolescents and newly literate adults;
- ❖ The shortage of suitably trained teachers and teacher-training materials ;
- ❖ Popular opposition to use of mother tongue; and
- ❖ Existence of a "rival", widespread lingua franca.
- ❖ Economic and financial considerations

The report opens with a continent-by-continent description of the language situation and its relation to educational policy. Part II, the experts' report, discusses the nature and scope of the problem educators are facing and what policies they are pursuing to overcome them. Part III presents case studies of some of the very different approaches being taken:

- ❖ The Tarascan project in Mexico, for indigenous populations;
- ❖ The renovation of Arabic;
- ❖ Developing a national language in Indonesia from the lingua franca ;
- ❖ Pidgin as a language for thought and communication in New Guinea (Papua New Guinea) ;
- ❖ The unification of Akan dialects in the Gold Coast (Ghana) of western Africa;
- ❖ Bridging the gap between home languages and school languages in the Philippines;
- ❖ The Finnish, Estonian and Hungarian language reforms through new vocabulary and more flexible sentence structure.

The UNESCO report was part of a pioneering effort to validate learning in one's mother tongue. The renewed interest of Africa's educational community suggests that the seed planted 50 years ago may be bearing fruit today.

The use of vernacular languages in education, UNESCO, 1953.

Unit 2

Policy Issues

Language policies are mostly implicit in many African countries. This is the case in Francophone, Spanish-speaking and Lusophone countries.

Language experts in Africa have divided Africa's language policies, which essentially reflect either colonial or African language use, into three groups. These are:

1. *Policies to facilitate communication*

These policies are based on the belief that communication is best when involving a language understood by the speaker and that the transmission of learning is best when it uses a language understood by the learner, whether child or adult. Such policies aim to correct the use of a colonial language for learning as being abnormal. Obviously, they refer to the use of English, Spanish, French or Portuguese, which are all foreign languages to the learner. They emphasize ease of knowledge transmission, as they assume that the better the communication, the better the chances of retaining the educational content.

These strategies promote the use of a language that is understood by the learner during the first few years of education. Policies that emphasize communication are evident in primary education, literacy training and in experimental education programs. They are mostly used in countries that accept African languages as the medium of instruction. They have been institutionalized for many years in literacy training in the majority of countries (Burkina Faso, Mali, Senegal, etc) and also in the primary school education of many English-speaking countries (Namibia, Zambia, etc). Finally, they tend to be found also in experimental programs, wherever these exist.

The policy of favoring communication is much more a policy about the medium of instruction than a true linguistic policy. Even when the use of a language is considered as equivalent to promoting the language, such a policy treats language more as a means than an end. The language only allows the learner to learn easily during the first few years of school. Its great disadvantage is that despite many admirable efforts made by countries—either in terms of the

transition from African language to colonial language at the end of the early years, or the education in the colonial languages provided later that tries to build on the early schooling,—most countries haven't succeeded in organizing a deliberate methodology.

While such a language policy may be intended to improve the quality of education from a cultural point of view, it actually accomplishes very little. In effect and as already mentioned in Unit 1 above, three years of language use—the typical case—is not enough to provide either the consolidation or the remaking of one's cultural identity.

2. *Policies that use national languages for learning*

These policies are based on the theory that, in newly-independent African nations, African languages should be accorded the same status and functions as those given to colonial languages during colonial rule.

The aim is purely and simply to replace the foreign language by a national African language. At the same time, the policy seeks to facilitate the communication of knowledge. Yet, this policy is not the same as the other because, given its recognition of long-term use of the African language—which may stretch from six to twelve years—it clearly goes beyond a mere channel of communication to target a complete change of language of learning.

The policy envisages a progressive replacement of the colonial language as the language of learning by an African language—assuming that there is a dominant language throughout the country or, if not, replacement by several.

This policy of nationalizing the language of learning is the least widespread of the three approaches described here. Among Anglophone countries, Somalia is the most obvious example. Tanzania has also applied a similar policy when it decided to limit teaching in an African language to primary education. Two examples may be cited from French-speaking Africa: Guinea, which replaced French with eight African languages in 1968, and Mauritania which, as recently as 1999, experimented with using three African languages during six years of primary education. Outside of sub-Saharan Africa, the Arabization of Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia are applications of policies to nationalize the language of education.

The nationalization of the language of learning is a first step towards a policy of Africanizing education. It promotes the teaching of purely African educational content, which is encouraged by the choice of an African language and the length of time accorded to its use as a language of instruction. Such policies are language policies, but might also be considered cultural policies since they definitely contribute to the consolidation or remaking of cultural identity.

However, this policy of nationalizing the language of instruction reveals two serious weaknesses. The first is pedagogical in that the longer the apprenticeship in the African

language, the harder the transition to the colonial language, given the advanced age of the student and the amount of knowledge acquired in the first language. The second is more social and is linked to the effect of closing off the external world to someone who has only been educated in an African language.

3. *Policies to satisfy nationalist demands*

The theoretical foundation for this policy approach is essentially the same as that for nationalizing the language of instruction. According to this view, all languages are equal and in a country that has become independent the colonial language should be eliminated for the benefit of a national language, which then is meant to become the official language and the language of learning.

This policy approach is intended as corrective of a situation in which the colonial language, which is a foreign language, is a symbol of colonial excess and occupies the entire field of education and language, whereas the national languages that make up national identity are neglected and does not fulfill any honorable functions. In many African countries such an argument has often been advanced by the political opposition or by associations for the defense of culture.

Faced with such a situation, policies to satisfy nationalist demands aim to give official status and educational priority to one or more national languages. This has often resulted in adding to constitutional texts clauses affirming that “the law determines the modalities of promoting and officialising national languages.”

The strategy adopted is two-pronged and takes account of the fact that the change of official language does not happen automatically, due to international political constraints that weigh on the former colonies, and due in particular to the official language’s status as a symbol of good relations with the former power. What happens in the first instance is that a policy may name one or more of the national languages as official, but without any real change in the prerogatives enjoyed by the official colonial language. In the second instance, where the changeover of language of education is only being feasible under certain conditions —such as the partners’ accord —the policy will establish experimental local pockets of education in the African languages that can later be generalized throughout the country and even eventually replace the colonial language, if the experience is judged positive.

As far as changes in teaching language are concerned, and especially the strategies adopted in experimental learning programs, the result is clear for many French-speaking countries such as Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, Senegal and Togo. In recent years, however, these countries have tended to move towards a strategy that would establish a true African language policy in education. Thus, Senegal is struggling to introduce national languages in its primary education, while Burkina Faso is moving rapidly towards a policy of bilingualism.

Should such a policy come to satisfy nationalist demands, it should nevertheless be considered neither a linguistic policy nor an educational policy. In fact, for those that have adopted this approach, in one case, the policy stops with legislation that has no tomorrow and no means of application. In other cases, the policy has been launched as an experiment that will certainly never be assessed and therefore not ever applicable at a country-wide level.

Activity 4

The motion for this debate is “ Colonial languages should be completely discarded in our primary education systems in Africa”. Write a feature story that supports or go against this motion.

Activity 5

Can a policy of bilingualism succeed in our African education systems given the current trends in the globalization of education? Please elaborate.

Activity 6

Can legislating policies in the use of national languages in our systems of education work? What is the current attitude of parents towards the use of local languages for education in your country?

Unit 3

Optimizing Bilingual Education

Teaching in local languages is not a widespread practice in Africa. Transitional bilingual education, the most widely promoted model, is generally used only in experimental schools or a limited number of schools, often located in rural areas.

All the evaluations conducted as part of the review carried out by UNESCO experts indicate that African children learn better when they are taught in their mother tongues or in a language that they speak well. Teachers communicate better with their pupils and are more likely to use active teaching methods in their classes. The quality of communication and interaction in the classroom allows children to be more active and participative during learning activities. It is also observed that the curricula of bilingual schools are more geared toward educating people who are culturally better integrated into their environment and able to identify and resolve problems that arise therein.

Lastly, studies from South Africa, Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, Ghana, Ethiopia, Malawi, Namibia and Tanzania show that pupils having benefited from bilingual instruction perform better on examinations at the end of primary schooling than pupils from traditional schools (Alidou and Brock-Utne, 2005; Ilboudo, 2003). This qualitative and quantitative superiority of bilingual schools in Burkina Faso, Mali and Niger is attributed mainly to the use of African languages in the early years of schooling.

Optimizing bilingual education, overcoming current obstacles

The studies also show, however, that bilingual education in Africa can be optimized if countries opt for the additive model of bilingual education, as this model allows children to develop balanced bilingualism.

Countries must also adopt more lasting and larger-scale solutions to resolve the fundamental problems inherent in the current model:

- ❖ **The lack of adequate language policy** aimed at promoting the use of African languages as teaching languages in formal basic education;
- ❖ **The lack of a coherent, appropriate teacher training curricula** for teachers in bilingual schools;
- ❖ **The critical shortage of teaching materials suitable** for teaching all disciplines in national and official languages whether used as language subject or medium of instruction;
- ❖ **The lack of a literate environment in local languages;**
- ❖ **Recruitment of teachers who have not received sound basic training in bilingual education;**
- ❖ **Assignment of teachers to schools without taking account of their socio-linguistic profiles**, especially with regard to the languages they speak. Most of these problems can be resolved at the technical level. Research on African languages is well advanced, and transcription of these languages is no longer a problem thanks to software that can be adapted for any language in the world. It is therefore urgent to develop and implement broad-based language policies aimed at effective promotion of the use of African languages as languages of instruction at all educational levels, both formal and non-formal.

Training and Support for Teachers

Each country that adopts bilingual and multicultural education should also adopt a new strategy for initial and inservice teacher training and for support to teachers. First and foremost, new curriculum content for initial teacher training must be developed. These curricula should include the professional skills that teachers in bilingual schools need to develop, the most fundamental of which are the following:

- ❖ Adequate language skills in one local language and the official language. This means they must be able to speak, read and write these languages well. As a result, the teacher must have a command of spelling and grammar not only in the African language but also in the second language;
- ❖ Solid teaching skills in the first (local) and second (foreign and official) languages, as well as in active teaching methods. This requires basic theoretical knowledge of first-language acquisition and second-language learning as well as methods for transferring the knowledge and skills acquired in the first language during learning of the second language and of other knowledge taught in the second language;
- ❖ **A firm grasp of the various methods of teaching reading and writing**, including basic knowledge of the processes involved in children's development of reading and writing abilities and skills, particularly for children who speak more than one language;
- ❖ **Better teaching skills in other subjects** such as mathematics, natural sciences and social sciences;
- ❖ **Adequate knowledge of evaluation methods to assess learning and the performances of pupils.**
- ❖ **Knowledge and skills relating to intercultural education, the culture of peace, equity and gender.**

To optimize bilingual and multicultural education, teachers in bilingual schools should be assigned to schools that use an African language that they speak, which means that appropriate management methods must be developed for teachers in bilingual schools. These teachers also need close regular support. Consequently, their supervisors and trainers must also be initiated in the bilingual approach and its teaching methods, so that they can provide effective support to teachers on the ground. This implies the need to institutionalize pedagogical leadership at the level of the individual school by further empowering school principals where teaching methods are concerned. Pedagogical advisers must also organize periodic meetings to reinforce teachers' skills.

Teaching and Learning Materials

Another crucial aspect is providing pupils and teachers with books and learning materials in all the languages used in bilingual schools. This involves (i) promotion of linguistic research to develop reference works (grammars, dictionaries, lexicons and spelling books) in all local languages; (ii) terminological research, owing to the dynamic nature of language and the constant need to create new words to express new phenomena and the instrumentalization of African languages (Alidou & Brock-Utne, 2005).

Promoting a literate and cultural environment

Lastly, we should recall that it is impossible to develop adequate writing skills at both the individual and social levels (and hence literacy) unless writing is used in important contexts. But such contexts will not be created until African languages are promoted as the languages

of oral and written communication in all socio-economic sectors, both formal and non-formal. Thus any linguistic policy that raises national languages to the ranks of official communication in formal socio-cultural spheres – especially in schools, the law, public health, the national assembly, commerce and local government – will have a profound influence on publishing in national languages and the creation of a literate environment and a culture of reading in these languages. Such a policy would serve as a framework for a book publishing policy covering the production not only of learning materials but also of any other works written in African languages (Alidou, 2004; Satina Diallo, 2005). »

Activity 6

What would you consider to be the main obstacles to the promotion of the use of African languages in education today? Write an article with your suggestions addressed to policy makers in your country with a view to getting them review these obstacles.

Activity 7

What role can teachers play in the promotion of national languages in education? How do you think that the Ministry of Education in your country should prepare teachers for such a role?

Activity 8

Can you assess the cost-effectiveness of a new national language policy for your country in terms of provision of new curricula, teacher training and teaching and learning materials for the promotion of the use of national languages to provide quality education to African children?

Conclusion

Africa has several languages. The number of languages on the continent is estimated at between 2,000 and 2,500. This poses a lot of difficulties for policy on the use of African languages in education as the colonial languages of English, French, Portuguese and Spanish continue to prevail and are very much in use today as both official and teaching languages.

In the formal school system in Africa, these international languages are introduced early in children's learning. They are both a medium and subject of instruction, while the local language is used as a catalyst or a bridge to get children understand some phenomenon that

they must know. In best case scenarios, there is simultaneous use of the two languages. It is rare to see approaches that would use the local language alone or maintain it as a tool and subject of instruction.

Studies have shown that bilingual education and the use of local languages constitute decisive factors in the quality of learning. Language policy is said to be inextricably linked to other major development challenges facing the continent. The use of the languages spoken by people, including children with the knowledge and social practices such languages convey, makes a significant difference with regard to effectiveness, relevance and sustainability.

Journalists, communicators and media practitioners in general can team up with education experts to contribute effectively in reviewing the various arguments and examine current approaches, while recognizing progress that has been made so far in this area.

Supporting Materials

ADEA publications and documents on language issues

Publications

- ❖ Optimizing Learning and Education in Africa – the Language Factor. A Stock-taking Research on Mother Tongue and Bilingual Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. ADEA and the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE). Document prepared for the conference on bilingual education and the use of local languages for learning, Windhoek, Namibia, August 3-5, 2005. Forthcoming.
- ❖ Zambia's Primary Reading Program (PRP): Improving Access and Quality Education in Basic Schools. Author: Sampa, Francis K. African Experiences Country Case Studies. ADEA, 2005. ISBN: 92-9178-055-3. Also exists in French.
- ❖ Stratégies pour le développement d'un secteur éditorial en langues nationales dans les pays du Sahel – Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger et Sénégal by Alidou Ngame Hassina. Series: Perspectives on the development of African publishing No. 8. ADEA Working Group on Books and Learning Materials, 2000. ISBN: 1-901-830-11X. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ Cost-Effectiveness of Publishing Educational Materials in African Languages edited by Woodhall, Maureen. Perspectives on African Book Development Series, No 1. ADEA Working Group on Books and Learning Materials, 1997. ISBN: 1-901-830-00-4. Out of print. Also exists in French. This publication may be downloaded from the ADEA website at: <http://www.adeanet.org/downloadcenter/publications/WGBLM/CostEffectiveness.pdf>
- ❖ Languages of Instruction – Policy Implications for Education in Africa. ADEA Working Group on Educational Research and Policy Analysis. IDRC (International

Development Research Center) 1997. ISBN: 0 88936 829 5. Bilingual publication (French/English). This publication can be consulted or ordered at www.idrc.org

Newsletter

- ❖ ADEA Newsletter VOLUME 8, Number 4 (October-December 1996). The Role of African Languages in Education and Sustainable Development. Available online at: http://www.adeanet.org/newsletter/Vol8No4/en_n8v4_1.html

Documents prepared within the framework of the 2003 ADEA quality exercise

These documents, some of which are in press, may be downloaded at: http://www.adeanet.org/publications_biennale/en_2003bienpubs.html

Country Case Studies

- ❖ Burkina Faso: Pertinence de l'éducation Adaptation des curricula et utilisation des langues africaines : le cas de l'éducation bilingue au Burkina Faso. (Curricula adaptation and use of African languages: Bilingual education in Burkina Faso). ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ Burundi: Utilisation de la langue nationale comme langue d'enseignement. Elaboration et production des manuels des élèves et des fichiers du maître pour l'école primaire au Burundi. (Using the national language as the language of instruction. Preparing and producing teacher and pupil manuals for the elementary school in Burundi). ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ Mali: La pédagogie convergente comme facteur d'amélioration de la qualité de l'éducation de base au Mali :analyse du développement de l'innovation et perspectives (Improving the quality of education in Mali: Analysis of innovations and perspectives) by Fantamady Keïta, Cheick Oumar Fomba, Samba Traore, Koura Diallo, Souleymane Kone, Youssouf Haïdara, Alain Chabert. ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ Niger: L'enseignement bilingue au Niger (Bilingual teaching in Niger). ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.

Other documents

- ❖ L'appréciation des coûts des manuels en politique d'intégration des langues africaines (Examining the costs of textbooks for the integration of Africa languages) by Nazam Halaoui. ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ Relevance of Education: Adapting Curricula and Use of African Languages by Nazam Halaoui. ADEA, December 2003.

- ❖ Universal Primary Education In Multilingual Societies Supporting its Implementation in Sub-Saharan Africa and beyond. 25 years of experience in German Technical Cooperation by Kurt Komarek. ADEA, December 2003.
- ❖ Evaluation et enseignements des expériences d'utilisation des langues africaines comme langues d'enseignement (Evaluation and lessons learned from the use of african languages as the language of teaching) by Hassana Alidou, Mallam Garba Maman. ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ L'adaptation des curricula aux situations et réalités locales en Afrique sub-saharienne (Adapting curriculum to realities in sub-saharan Africa) by Nazam Halaoui. ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.
- ❖ L'utilisation des langues africaines : politiques, législations et réalités (The use of African languages: Policies, legislation and reality) by Nazam Halaoui. ADEA, December 2003. This document exists in French only.

Other References

Publications and web sites

Languages in African education

1. Alexander, Neville (ed.) 2005. The Intellectualisation of African Languages. Cape Town: PRAESA.
2. Alidou, Hassana and Mallam Garba Maman. 2003. Assessment and observations of experiences of utilization of African languages in basic education. Paper for the ADEA Biennial 2003, Grand Baie, Mauritius, 3 – 6 December 2003.
3. Brock-Utne, Birgit and Rodney Kofi Hopson (ed.) 2005. Languages of Instruction for African Emancipation: Focus on Postcolonial Contexts and Considerations. Cape Town: CASAS, Dar es Salaam: Mkuki na Nyota.
4. Heugh, Kathleen. 2000. The Case Against Bilingual and Multilingual Education in South Africa. PRAESA Occasional Paper No. 6. Cape Town: PRAESA.
5. Obanya, Pai. 1999. Popular Fallacies on the Use of African Languages in Education. Social Dynamics (Special Issue: Language and Development in Africa) 25(1): 81-100.
6. Olson, David R. and Nancy Torrance (ed) 2001. The Making of Literate Societies, 153–177. Massachusetts, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
7. Vawda, Ayesha Yaqub and Harry Anthony Patrinos. 1999. Producing Educational Materials in Local Languages: Costs from Guatemala and Senegal. International Journal of Educational Development 19: 287-299.

Bilingualism in Education

1. Bahtia, Tej K. and William C. Ritchie (eds.) 2004. *The Handbook of Bilingualism*. Malden, Oxford, Victoria: Blackwell Publishing.
2. Dutcher, Nadine. 2004 (1st ed. 2001). *Expanding Educational Opportunity in Linguistically Diverse Societies*. Washington DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. (as download: www.cal.org/pubs/ford/eeolds.pdf).
3. Ouane, Adama (ed.). 2003. *Towards a Multilingual Culture of Education*. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education.

Bilingual Policies

4. Bamgbose, Ayo. 2000. *Language and Exclusion: The Consequences of Language Policies in Africa*. Muenster Hamburg, London: LIT.
5. Spolsky, Bernd. 2004. *Language Policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
6. Wolff, H. Ekkehard (ed.). 2003. *Tied Tongues. The African Renaissance as a Challenge for Language Planning*. Muenster: LIT.

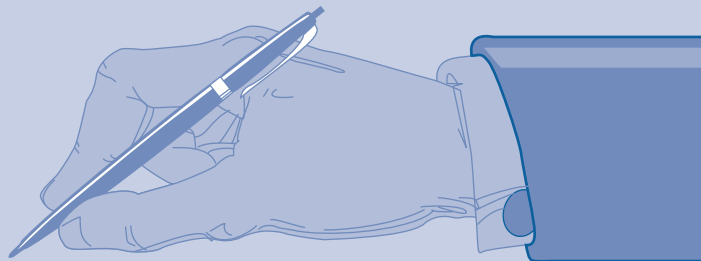
Internet Resources

7. ADALEST - The Association for the Development of African Languages in Education, Science and Technology (the proceedings of the conferences are highly recommended) <http://www.adalest.com/>
8. ADEA – Association for the Development of Education in Africa (a very rich selection of research in Africa) www.adeanet.org
9. UNESCO International Bureau of Education – <http://www.ibe.unesco.org> and the UNESCO Online Catalogue http://unesdoc.unesco.org/ulis/search_form.html
10. Linguapax Institute – <http://www.linguapax.org/en/queang.html>
11. Papers of the annual conferences of The Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) <http://www.cies.ws/>
12. The International Society of Linguistics – <http://www.arts.uwa.edu.au/AFLIT/EditSil.html>



Section 6

Reporting Educational Issues





Module 23

The Role, Strengths and Limitations of the Media

Overview

The media exercise tremendous influence and power over every society through its function as the source and channel of news, information, education and entertainment. But in spite of the potentials of the media, there are limitations and challenges that the African media face. Understanding the potential of the media as instruments of influence and change, particularly in the cause of education is very important

General Objective

The general objective of this module is to examine the role, power and influence of the media in Africa and the challenges the media face.

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of module are to enable the user to:

- ❖ appreciate the critical role(s) the media in African.
- ❖ understand what influence and power the media industry wields and how responsible use of this power should be undertaken.
- ❖ identify the challenges that afflict the African Media.
- ❖ Understand the strengths and limitations of the media in promoting education and development in Africa.

Expected Outcome

The user would have a deeper understanding and appreciation of the role and influence of the media in development in Africa as well as the challenges that confront the media in performing its functions.

Introduction

Module 23 is divided into three units. Unit 1 discusses the role of the media in Africa. Unit 2 provides an analytical discussion on the power and influence of the Media and provides relevant empirical examples to back the conclusions therein. It further suggests how responsible use of this influence should be inculcated in up-coming and even practicing journalists. Unit 3 highlights some key challenges that affect the media and provides some means of dealing or confronting the challenges

Unit 1

The Role of the Media in Africa

The media of Africa has from colonial times been an instrument of change. From its early days when the press was used as a mouthpiece for colonial governments, the African press did not only play an important advocacy role in the struggle for independence but has in post-independence Africa, played a major role in promoting national goals of development. The traditional function of the media is to inform, educate and entertain. In today's very diverse media landscape the media are used by various agencies and institutions for their specific needs and goals:

❖ The Media for information and education

The media are crucial for revealing information that is hitherto unknown, providing academic enlightenment on various subjects and issues, providing warning on impending dangers and threats to society, clarifying issues, revealing significant events and occurrences and even announcing forthcoming events and festivals. The Media also provide crucial interpretation of technical subjects and issues such as modern technology and global economic trends. The media give essential instruction on development issues such as modern methods of agriculture, reproductive health and water harvesting.

❖ The Media for Public Relations

Media outlets are repeatedly used by African corporations and organizations for purposes of responding to customer complaints and concerns, enhancing corporate image, authoring press statements, press releases and supplements, conveying crucial information to the organization's publics, announcing organizational changes and development.

❖ The Media for Commercial Marketing and Advertising

The Media are used by corporations to convey messages to special target groups for purposes of persuading them to buy or continue buying their goods and services. Actually, it is through this (the sale of space and airtime) that corporate media earn the bulk of their revenue. Corporations also use the Media to convey information intended to create and maintain customer satisfaction on a long term basis.

Media outlets are useful for conveying information that is intended for crucial announcements and notifications to the public for example, job vacancies in various organizations, calls for expressions of interest for consultancies and

tendering bids, obituaries and on conveying significant caution and warnings on impeding and existing dangers.

❖ **The Media for Professional Engagement**

The Media provide employment to thousands of professionals who put journalistic skills to constructive and beneficial use. As business entities the media pay tax to the state.

❖ **The Media for Setting Political Agenda**

The Media play (or can play) a crucial role for promoting political awareness and consciousness in nations, for enhancing democratic space for political expression, for providing a variety of ideas to enable voters make informed decisions, for interpretation of political ideologies, political theories and manifestos, watch dogging government on behalf of citizens, supervising government actions and reporting to the people. The Media can also agitate popular rebellion and resistance against dictatorships and authoritarianism, provide civic education amongst the populace to make them politically informed and encourage active participation in democratic activities so as to mitigate against voter apathy.

❖ **The Media for Setting Social Agenda**

The Media play a very significant role through its coverage of social, cultural and related issues in setting the social agenda of communities. The media in many African countries have influenced social behaviours, environmental, sanitation, and health issues through their coverage. In the process government policies have been shaped. The media can also be crucial in educating masses on aspects of hygiene and family health, on the dangers of harmful cultural practices such as Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C), early marriage and forced widow inheritance.

The Media are also used for providing avenues and columns for recreational amusement and even refreshment e.g. Codeword, Crosswords, informing the public about travel and adventure destinations, recreational outlets, sporting activities and facilities, cultural & religious events and ceremonies.

❖ **The Media for Setting Economic Agenda**

The media through in-depth analysis and commentaries contribute to the economic agenda of individuals and governments through reporting of economic issues, providing vital information on market trends, exchange rates, prices of

essential commodities, economic policies and programmes of governments. The media can also interpret the implications of every financial year's government budget to the citizens.

❖ **The Media for Documentary Literature**

The Media provide credible literature for references in various subjects and issues. The media also provide rich secondary data for researchers, credible literature for libraries and archives that can be referred to for generations to come. The Media are therefore a credible source of material for learning and research.

❖ **The Media for National Integration, Regional Integration and Globalization**

The Media in Africa can be a positive catalyst for promoting the spirit of Nationhood, for advocating religious, ethnic and racial harmony within countries. It is also useful for popularizing the concept of regional integration – intended to achieve political, social and economic integration for various regions around the world. The various regional groupings in Africa and the African Union itself stand to benefit from the media if the challenges of uniting the various ethnic groups in Africa are fully addressed by the media and the benefits of peace and stability explained through media outlets to the people of Africa. The media is also crucial in transforming the world into a global village; to enable global witnessing of events transpiring in every corner of the globe and provoke global responses to global problems.

Activity 1

Carry out a critical analysis of the Media in your country and identify what role they play in your country.

Activity 2

Carry out a critical analysis of the Media in your country and identify what role they do not play but that they ought to play.

Activity 3

Carry out a critical analysis of the Media in your country and identify how the Media can enhance their capacities to play the above-mentioned roles.

Unit 2

Strengths of the Media

The Media is acknowledged as one of the three attributes of power within a state. The other two are listed as wealth and ability to control the instruments of force – such as – the Army, the Police, the Intelligence Service and Youth Wingers. The third is identified as the ability to control the instruments of information – especially the mass media. In the words of the anonymous monk who authored the poem Down Political Avenue it is better to have poor governance with a good press rather than have good governance with a bad press. The Media can make or break an individual or even an institution. The masses tend to be so influenced by information emanating from the media – especially if it originates from a credible media enterprise. The hypodermic needle and the Magic bullet theories of the press describe the media as a tremendous force with the capacity to destroy and construct and with the capacity to influence a given set of action, influence behavioral and attitudinal change, influence public opinion, agitate reaction, persuade logical reasoning and even incite violence. The case of RTLM Rwanda is a regrettable but prominent case of emphasizing the power of the media in influencing the masses.

Furthermore, there appears to be increased media influence Africa. This is fuelled by democratic reform in a number of African states, globalization, economic progress and the availability of new technologies which have transformed the way in which the media relays the news. Today in Africa 3G, Broadband and the Fiber Optic cables have sped up the time in which news reached the audience. It has also increased the channels through which news is accessed and made interactive media and the cell phone important tools for relaying news.

According to Stephen King, the Director of the BBC World Service Trust, African media also is powerful; it can challenge entrenched social issues and as a result change behavior.

The Tanzania Media Women’s Association (TAMWA) created public awareness of the link between high rates of HIV infection and violence perpetuated against women – acted out through such traditional practices as forced marriage, polygamy and female genital mutilation. A 2005 TAMWA campaign built around TV advertising spots and press features generated a major public debate. A clan head in Nyamongo subsequently pledged to ban female genital mutilation, and the media coverage helped to overcome a backlash by some elders who had arranged to mutilate 500 girls.

Consensus is growing on ways to strengthen Africa’s media. Firstly, there is growing recognition of the power of the media to support development goals in improving health, education and humanitarian objectives; in holding governments to account;

and in giving people – particularly in marginalized groups – a voice. This is a reality in some countries such as South Africa where media is free and flourishing, with a robust press, creative advertising, television and radio, burgeoning internet publishing, and an Oscar-winning film industry.

Secondly, there is growing recognition from governments, aid agencies and NGOs of the need for a longer-term and more coordinated approach to this area. In 2006, Kenya's anti-corruption efforts were given a boost when John Githongo, the country's former anti-corruption minister, used two privately owned national newspapers to highlight the failings of the government's efforts to root out 'graft'. His actions, and the unprecedented media coverage of them, resulted in the resignation of three ministers and the suspension of some bilateral aid. Such is the potential power of the media in Africa – and one which must be harnessed if Africa is to achieve its development goals.

According to Gwen Lister, although television remains elitist, Multi-Choice, through its DStv, Multi-Choice has enabled even those on the remotest of places to receive news and programs which they would not have otherwise received. The company acquires channels from local, African and international suppliers and then packages them for the continent. Today most Africans have a cell phone, but the digital divide itself is hardly narrowing.

In 2004 the World Summit on the Information Society reported that Africa has the highest ratio of mobile phone users to total phone users of any world region; out of 100 million phone subscribers, 76 million are mobile subscribers. However, African Internet access at less than 1 percent of the total population although this rather gloomy picture has improved in recent years, and the number of people who use the Internet has grown across all countries, the anticipated new media growth is mobile phone technology. One of the strengths of new media technology in Africa is that some types of events and facts which can be controversial and therefore disagreeable in some quarters can be more easily communicated with the use of such technology.

In some places, it is easier to ban newspapers and close down television stations than shut off Internet access. The impact of internet on the media cannot be ignored, and this is a trend that is likely to increase with more affordable devices and wider mobile phone coverage by telecommunications companies. Radio however remains vital and accessible to a majority.

Unit 3

Limitations of the Media

The Media do not operate in a vacuum; they operate under the professional and ethical guidelines of various countries. They also operate under the legal regulatory

regime of a given country. The Media in every country are influenced by the Political and the socio-economic environment that prevails there. A number of challenges still afflict the Media especially in the African continent and these include:

Inimical Laws

The media operate best when the legal regime is progressive and journalists are not subjected to arrests, detention and other forms of harassment and intimidation in the pursuit of their professional duties. Unfortunately many African countries have restrictive laws dating to colonial times that inhibit freedom of expression. Such laws include Criminal Libel Laws and Laws of Sedition under which journalists may be imprisoned for their publications. Many countries in Africa do not have freedom of information laws that allow the public and journalists their right to information. Annual reports of media institutions like the International Federation of Journalists, Africa office (IFJ) , Media Foundation for West Africa (MFWA), Media Institute for Southern Africa (MISA), Article 19 and Reporters Without Borders (RSF) show that African journalists continue to face arrest, detention and even death.

It remains therefore difficult for the media to hold governments to account and getting ordinary people's voices heard or read because of censorship frequent in some African countries.

❖ Economic Constraints and Limited Capacity

The African media, electronic and print suffer from limited capacity to meet the expectations of society. Except for a few countries there is low investment in the media thus making it difficult for many media houses in Africa to perform at the same level as other media organisations in the West. Even the state owned media which are supposed to enjoy the protection of the state suffer from this malaise.

❖ Low remuneration for journalists

Journalists through the length and breadth of Africa rightly complain of low remuneration and allowances. This regrettable situation has led to a situation when journalists have been known to supplement their low salaries through monetary influences which inevitably affect ethics of the profession.

❖ Lack of Training Institutions

Although Africa has in the last few decades witnessed a massive increase in media outlets owing to democracy and media pluralism in many countries, this growth has not been matched with any significant increase in the number of training institutions. Many of the private FM stations that can be found today in Africa have commenced operations sometimes without qualified staff. Even the state owned

media face the same problem owing to the high attrition rate. The low salaries and status of journalists have led to a skills exodus, with staff poached to better-paid jobs in development organizations. Consequently there is limited mentoring in many houses in Africa today.

❖ **Poor Facilities for Training**

Institutions of learning are still burdened with limited resources and therefore cannot acquire state of the art, world class equipment for practical training of Journalists. In some institutions of learning, trainees literally graduate with absolutely no practical – hands – on – exposure thereby condemning them to either endure the inconvenience of learning on the job or becoming theoretical journalists.

TIPS ON STRENGTHS & LIMITATIONS OF VARIOUS MEDIA

a. Newspapers

Strengths	Limitations
❖ daily delivery - frequency opportunity	❖ short life
❖ geographic selectivity	❖ low quality colour reproduction
❖ some special interest selectivity	❖ not demographically selective
❖ intensive coverage of specific geographic market	❖ cannot deliver sound and motion
❖ reach well-educated audience	❖ messages compete with one another
❖ wide range of editorial material aimed at a broad audience	
❖ great flexibility in advertisement size	
❖ complex information can be communicated	
❖ second shortest lead time	
❖ pass-along audience in household	
❖ credibility of print in general	
❖ can read at leisure	
❖ portable	
❖ can be kept	

b. Magazines

Strengths	Limitations
❖ audience selectivity/specific audience targeting	❖ long lead time required
❖ durability - long life	❖ cannot deliver sound and motion
❖ excellent editorial climate - loyal readers - transfer of credibility	❖ low frequency and low penetration levels
❖ good secondary readership (pass along audience) inside and outside home	❖ messages compete with one another
❖ high quality color reproduction	❖ comparatively expensive
❖ complex information can be communicated	❖ depending on readership
❖ credibility of print in general	❖ may not be timely eg. if monthly
❖ generally attracts affluent and influential readers	
❖ read at leisure	
❖ portable	
❖ can be read inside and outside the home	
❖ can be kept	
❖ urban and rural	
❖ interested readers	
❖ influential readers	
❖ can contain creative and memorable editorials, articles and advertisements	

c. Television

Strengths	Limitations
❖ allows for active demonstration of product	❖ messages have short life plus time shifting
❖ large national audience reach (network)	❖ long lead time
❖ large local audience reach	❖ cannot provide details
❖ messages stand alone	❖ not portable
❖ some audience targeting	❖ high production costs
❖ prime source of news	❖ most stations urban
❖ high impact	
❖ spectacular medium - sound, animation, motion, colour etc.	
❖ obtrusive medium	

d. Radio

Strengths	Limitations
❖ good supplementary medium	❖ short life
❖ selective audiences	❖ no visuals
❖ great flexibility	❖ can not provide details
❖ universal coverage	❖ no motion
❖ short lead time	
❖ production can be free	
❖ inside and outside home	
❖ loyalty/credibility	
❖ urban and rural	
❖ reaches motorists	
❖ messages are personal	
❖ messages stand alone - obtrusive medium	
❖ portable	
❖ prime source of local information	

e. Mass Mailings and emailing

Strengths	Weaknesses
❖ Inexpensive	❖ Can be quickly discarded
❖ More personal	❖ Cumbersome to some people
❖ Timely	❖ Internet access can be a problem for some people
❖ Creates opportunity for quick feedback by email	

f. Flyers and Brochures

Strengths	Weaknesses
❖ Very useful for public forum, press kits, mass mailings etc	❖ Capacity is small as it can only contain basic information
❖ Affordable-quite cheap	❖ Can be easily discarded

g. Websites

Strengths	Weaknesses
❖ Progressive	❖ Limited audience based on access to internet
❖ Can reach target group	❖ Can be hacked
❖ Provides room for creativity to reach target groups	Needs updating and management
❖ Inexpensive	
❖ Quick feedback	

Activity 4

Provide a list of social activities or initiatives that have been influenced by the Media in your country.

Activity 5

Outline what political changes have been agitated for (successfully) by the Media in your country.

Activity 6

Discuss what factors enabled the Media in your country to accomplish the political changes.

Conclusion

Recognizing that the media wields tremendous influence over the masses, journalists must be reminded that with great power comes great responsibility. The media is a tool for constructive and not destructive influence. Journalists must rise to the challenge of professional example and must uphold the desire to foster constructive societal transformation and resist destructive influence at all times. For the media to be able to perform their role in development, it is critical that there is a conducive environment where press freedom, access to information, freedom of expression and human rights are guaranteed and respected.

Further Readings

1. Croteau, D. and Williams H. (1997) *Media and Society Industries: Images and Audiences*, London: Pine Forge Press.
2. Kenya admits armed raids on paper. 2006. *British Broadcasting Cooperation*. No date: Web Edition Available from: <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/4765250.stm>
3. Kenya fights for a free press. 2009. *The Guardian*, 23rd January: Web Edition Available from: <http://www.guardianweekly.co.uk>.

References

1. <http://mediaepoliticamoz.blogspot.com/2008/10/o-futuro-dos-media-em-africa-Segundo.html>. Title: O futuro dos media em Africa segundo Gwen Lister By Gwen Lister.
2. Ochieng', P. 1992, *I Accuse the Press: An Insider's View of the Media in Kenya*, Nairobi: Initiative Publishers and Acts Press.
3. <http://www.mediamiser.com/resources/prglossary/strengthslimitations>.
4. Mac quail D, (2000), *Mass Communication Theory*, London: Sage Publications.
5. Maguire, P. (2009). 'Kenyan president approves 'press freedom muzzle'' *Radio Netherlands*. 6th January. Available from: <http://static.rnw.nl/migratie/www.radio-netherlands.nl/features /media/090105-Kenya-press-freedom-redirected>.



Module 24

Media and Education

Overview

The mass media has grown over the years to become one of the major instruments of development. Its potential as a partner in development with education cannot be over-emphasised. The module offers perspectives on the media and education and how the media by understanding and reporting educational issues can help promote development.

General Objective

The module provides information about the different types of mass media and the advantage each one offers. It also provides some examples of how the mass media has been used for educational programmes.

Specific Objectives

- ❖ Discuss functions of the mass media
- ❖ Outline and describe various types of media
- ❖ Examine how media can be used for educational purposes

Expected Outcome

Understanding of mass media and role they can play in promoting development of education in African countries



A multitude of school children in an exciting mood

Introduction

Unit 1 of this module examines the general function of the mass media and highlights educational issues that they can focus on. Unit 2 identifies the different types of mass media and the role they play in development.

Unit 1

The Mass Media and Education

The mass media have been described as a broad range of channels designed to disseminate information and news to people. The invention of printing and the subsequent advent of newspapers have led to the establishment of new media like the internet which people all over the world access daily for information and news. The influence of the mass media has become enormous. By helping people to get information and updates on events, the mass media help to shape public opinion and have influenced the values, life styles and cultures of various societies. The influence of the media can either be positive or negative. Reckless and irresponsible use of the media has provoked social conflict whilst responsible use of the same media in many countries has boosted development. For instance broadcasts on community and rural radio stations in many African countries have helped farmers and many occupational groups to increase productivity. Several universities in Africa are effectively using the electronic media (television and radio broadcasting) in distance learning programmes for secondary and adult education. With the dearth of science and mathematics teachers in its schools, one country in Africa has in cooperation with the state-owned broadcasting corporation created a special programme that is beamed and viewed by school children to supplement the work of teachers. A full realisation of the potentials of the media by those engaged in education can encourage more use of the media in education. Media professionals can also by recognising the influence they wield through the media, positively use the media to report on educational issues.

Functions of the Media

The role of the media is to inform, educate and entertain. Education has similar goals-to educate, inform and through the educational process produce functional citizens.

The Media as a channel of information : One of the key functions of the media is to inform people about events, developments and issues in a country. It is through information published by the media that somebody living in a remote African village, far away from the national capital, will by tuning in to his or her radio learn about an increase in the price of farm products or the outbreak of an epidemic in another part of the country. It has been said that we live in a global village which has been created largely through information and communication technology. It is the flow of information through the media that enables citizens of the world no matter where they live or find themselves to know what is happening miles away.

The media as a channel of education : Information is education and therefore by providing a wealth of information on an hourly and daily basis, the media plays a key educational role. The media does not only publish news but regularly puts up specialized articles, documentaries and other analytical articles and programmes which supplement the work of educational institutions. Some new media like the internet have useful portals which readily provide the researcher with information that in the past could only be sourced from books and encyclopedia in libraries and archives. Many school children, journalists, University students and academia use the internet regularly in their search for information.

Media as a channel of entertainment : One of the functions of the media which has made it such a popular outlet is its ability to provide entertainment virtually at no cost to people. Newspapers have traditionally served the needs of society through articles and news stories about people in the arts, musicians, sportsmen and review of films. The advent of radio and television brought entertainment to homes as people could view interesting programmes, films and concerts in the comfort of their living rooms whilst others in their cars and work places can monitor entertainment programmes on these channels. Entertainment programmes have been used to educate the people in many African countries and have shaped attitudes of people for development.

Unit 2

Types of Mass Media

Knowledge of the different types of media, their strengths and weaknesses is important for anybody who wishes to use the media for any purpose. The mass media includes the following-Radio, Television, Print, Community Media and in recent times the new media.

Print Media : The print media include newspapers, newsletters, booklets, pamphlets, magazines and other printed publications that have the public as their reading target. It is common today to see dozens of newspapers on the newsstands in many African countries. Modern printing is said to have begun in the first half of the 15th Century at the German city of Mainz when Johannes Gutenberg invented the immovable type of printing. The Chinese are reported to have been the first to invent block printing which laid the basis for modern printing. The advantage of printing over the previous method of manually reproducing multiple copies of a manuscript is that it allowed hundreds of copies of manuscripts, whether books or pamphlets, to be reproduced at a cheaper and faster rate. Until the advent of radio and television newspapers or the print media were the main channels for information to be transmitted to the public. Commercial houses advertised their products through newspapers. The problem if any at all with the print media is that a reader must pay for it. Thus only those who can afford it can have access to it

Radio : The first radio broadcast took place in the United States of America in 1910 and only reached many African countries in the 50s and 60s. It is today the fastest spreading media in Africa. Some countries like Mali and Ghana have over 100 private

broadcasting stations each. One can find in almost every part of an African country, a listener walking with small size radio literally glued to his ears listening to a programme or a taxi driver sampling music or listening to a discussion on his car radio. Radio has proved very popular among many listeners because of the many interesting musical programmes and lively discussions one can follow on the numerous FM stations in African countries for free. Because all one needs in many instances is a onetime purchase of a radio set and occasional renewal of batteries radio is more affordable than the newspaper. There are three categories of radio broadcasting in Africa-Commercial Radio, Public Radio and Community Radio. Public owned radio broadcasting stations in many African countries have been used to provide mass education and sensitisation programmes by government departments. Commercial Radio as the name suggests are set up for profit and often dwell more on music and entertainment. Community Radios on the other hand are not profit oriented and are used to promote community goals-educational programmes on HIV and AIDS, infant mortality and ante-natal care, adult education, awareness programmes on best practices in agriculture etc. One must apply to appropriate authorities in the country for the allocation of a frequency before one can commence broadcasting.

Television : Although television broadcasting started in the United States and Europe in the 1930s it had a slow development in Africa beginning in Nigeria in 1959. But it has since grown into a very widespread and popular channel for entertainment, education and information. With limited production of local programmes by African broadcasting services the many Western-imported entertainment programmes have influenced many African youth to embrace Western life styles and culture. Satellite communication has made it possible for African viewers to access international channels through several service providers based outside their own countries. UNESCO in the 60s embarked on a special programme with the government of Cote d'Ivoire to use television for educational purposes. Television can be used for various educational programmes-distance listening, discussion on topical issues, awareness programmes on health, agriculture, environmental issues and varied subjects

New Media : The invention of the computer and introduction of the internet into the public domain since 1990 has created a new world for the acquisition, distribution and sharing of information. Many of the traditional media listed above-radio, television, newspapers and magazines have discovered the effectiveness of reaching millions of people through online publications or versions of their stories on the internet. Newspapers, radio and television have created their own web sites. There are today many publishing houses which have online versions of books and other publications. Other Information and Communication Technology (ICT) activities or formats like video-conferencing which uses images and sound connectivity to link up people at different locations can be used to support the teaching of many subjects. One can also for educational purposes access information from the many websites at no cost. The potential of the internet as both a source and channel for information offers so much for both media and education professionals.

Alternative Community Media : African societies before the advent of colonial rule and Western modes of communication employed several innovative methods to communicate information among the people. The drum, deservedly described as “the talking drum” in some societies was used to communicate vital information across space. Information about a pending attack by another community could be transmitted to allies through drum language. At mass forums or durbar of chiefs, the bulk of the population participated in discussions and subsequently served as harbingers of news. Drama sketches have been used in the past and today to educate populations on fundamental issues. Drama sketches are popular art forms that have been exploited in post-conflict societies to drum the message of peace. Theatre throughout the ages has been used successfully to teach social values and promote awareness and can still be relied upon particularly in non-formal education programmes to reach hundreds of people. As visual presentations, drama sketches can reach both the literate and illiterate through popular theatre for development and traditional media.

Case Study

Ghana-The Use of radio in the National Literacy and Functional Skills in the Volta and Northern Regions.

Recognising the vital role of radio in education, the World Bank in conjunction with the Government of Ghana’s Non-Formal Education Department in July 1992 launched the Literacy and Functional Skills Project programme to use radio to promote non-functional literacy. Adult literacy education was begun by the early missionaries who used Sunday Schools to teach reading and writing skills. The aim of the new programme was to reach more people and equip learners with knowledge, attitudes and skills that would enable them to raise the quality of life in their community, improve their occupational skills through functional literacy, broaden the reading interests of learners and establish an attitude of learning and also meet their personal and social needs. The programme content of 28 functional themes included family planning, teenage pregnancy, HIV/AIDS, safe drinking water, safe motherhood, child care, child labour, soap making among others. Two state-owned radio stations, Radio Savannah based at Tamale, the Northern Regional Capital of Ghana and Volta Star Radio based in Ho, capital of the Volta Region in Ghana were selected. Groups of learners were selected and established in the audience areas. Pre-radio sets were acquired and distributed to the groups to ensure that each learner had to access to radio. (For more details about project see contribution by Kofi Siabi-Mensah-”Ghana”The Use of Radio In the National Literacy and Functional Skills Project in the Volta and Northern Region”-Component of the Upper Regional Development Programme (URADep)-Web Search

Conclusion

The mass media with its multiple channels for the dissemination of news and information play an important role in the developmental process. The module has shown how a partnership or collaboration between media practitioners and those who work in the educational sector can bring about fundamental changes in education. By describing the various channels and their strengths and weaknesses, both media practitioners and professionals in education should be able to exploit the immense potential of the media to promote educational causes.

Supporting Materials

- ❖ Clippings of newspaper articles, audio and video news reporting on education by participants;
- ❖ National policy on education; recent government policy statements on different aspects of education;
- ❖ Annual education budget.

Module 25

News in Education

Overview

This module defines what news is and examines a number of issues in education that are newsworthy. It also explores ways and means to make educational issues interesting and how professionals in education can collaborate with the media to promote the cause of education.

General Objective

The general focus of this module is to equip the user with the skills to identify news making events in general and specifically in the field of education.

Specific Objectives

To enable the user to:

- ❖ Define and explain what news is.
- ❖ Critically examine media coverage of education in the country.
- ❖ Encourage users to exploit the potential of media as a tool for education.

Expected Outcome

The user will be in a better position to understand news and present it meaningfully and develop a strong networking relationship with stakeholders.



Making news in education

Introduction

Unit 1 introduces the user to the definition of news and what is newsworthy. It highlights a number of educational issues which are newsworthy and discusses the levels of collaboration that exist between the media and education.

Unit 1

What is News?

News is generally defined as the report of an event, occurrence or development that is of public interest. News as opposed to ordinary information has timeliness as one of its main determinants timeliness. Thus for an information to be published either in a newspaper or through the electronic media-radio and television-as news it should have occurred within an hour. An event that occurred in the distant past only qualifies to be published as news if it is reaching the public domain for the first time or if a ceremony is held to commemorate the event. For example the day many nations celebrate their attainment of independence which for many African countries took place 50 years ago can easily be the subject for news coverage. News, like beauty, it has been argued by some journalists lies in the eyes of the beholder which means that what one news organization may deem fit to publish as news may not be considered worthy of publication by another news medium. But no matter how news is defined, most journalists agree on the following as some of the main determinants of news:

- ❖ **Timeliness/Immediacy** - Simply listen to the news on any of the local news channels or read newspapers in your country and you would discover that what journalists put out daily and hourly as news occurred not too long ago, in some cases the day before or even the very hour of the event, what journalists normally refer to as breaking news.
- ❖ **Human Interest** - In determining what news is, journalists try to answer the question whether the story when published would capture the attention and interest of the public. For most sports fans the results of the sporting event they love, and the drama inherent in these activities are always of more interest to them than information about the stock exchange, whilst bankers and financial experts may closely follow the performance of shares on the stock markets.

- ❖ **Relevance/Public Interest** - whether an event has either positive or negative consequence on a population is another factor that journalists consider in publishing or rejecting a story. The dumping of toxic waste in a country or the release of schools examination results which evidently have a bearing on the environment and the future of education respectively in any country would attract the attention of the public and therefore make the two events newsworthy.
- ❖ **Oddity** - This determinant is summed up by the adage that “it is no news when a dog bites a man but it is news when a man bites a dog”. News is often about the unusual, man landing on the moon, a school child in a deprived school in a rural area topping national examinations, an African nation winning the World Cup for the first time or qualifying for the first time to participate in the World Cup.
- ❖ **Proximity** - In determining what news is, and what news is not, journalists everywhere consider the location of an event and its closeness to their readers. A reader or a viewer in faraway Australia may not be interested in an event in an African country because that event may not have any bearing on his or her life. The closer the event the more interest it has for an audience.
- ❖ **Prominence** - What prominent men and women in society-heads of states, ministers of state, famous musicians and sportsmen and women, queen mothers, chiefs and others in that category do or say makes more news than what ordinary people do or say. For example the death of the popular pop star, Michael Jackson not too long ago or the election of Barack Obama as the first African American President of the United States dominated the news all over the world.
- ❖ **Controversy/Conflict** - There is news any time human beings engage in conflict or are caught in serious disagreement about fundamental issues of life.

Activity 1

1. Define in your own words what you think news is.
2. Monitor any media of your choice and discuss the news of the day.

Unit 2

Why Education makes News

Educational issues are always newsworthy because they are of great interest to a broad range of stakeholders including parents, students, teachers, policy makers, governments, development partners, manufacturers and vendors of educational tools and materials. Education in many African countries consumes a significant proportion of family savings and national budgets and should be of concern to the media, the public and the government. The following issues can be the ingredients for news stories:

- ❖ National Policies on Education-Governments regularly review their intervention in the education sector, the years pupils must spend at primary and secondary levels, the role of religious bodies in education, free and compulsory education etc. All these issues generate public debate which the media can cover.
- ❖ Educational Reforms-Governments, from time to time introduce educational reforms which spark off public debates and issues worthy of media coverage.
- ❖ Statements and activities of Ministers of Education, Senior Officials of Education Services, Heads of educational institutions and development partners-A normal school graduation or speech and prize-giving ceremony where principal speakers deliver addresses on educational issues for example ,are reported by the media. The opening of a new school is a newsworthy event, so is the release of results of examinations conducted by national or regional educational bodies.
- ❖ Activities of Donors and other partners-Many international organizations like UNESCO and UNDP which have interest in education as well as diplomatic missions occasionally make pronouncements on educational matters or make significant presentations to the educational sector. The public follow such interventions and expect the media to keep them informed on the activities of donor agencies and international organizations that deal with issues on education.
- ❖ Funding of Education-Budget statements by governments always mention education. The level of government investment in education determines whether new schools would be built in the financial year or whether the salaries of teachers would be increased or not. As a subject of public interest, the media cannot afford to ignore governments support for education.

- ❖ Examinations-results and malpractices-There was one year in a West African country when less than half of pupils who sat in the qualifying examinations for entry into secondary school passed. The poor results led to discussions among Parent Teacher Associations, Headmasters and officials of the Ministry of Education. The media of the particular country naturally followed the debate and discussions just as they covered several reported cases of cheating that led to the expulsion of students from the Universities.
- ❖ Girl Child Education-The disparity in the ratio in the enrolment of boys and girls in schools in almost all West African countries and Africa in general is a matter of great concern. The education of the girl child is therefore an issue that should engage the attention of the media because of its significance.
- ❖ Educational Needs of special groups, street children, physically-challenged pupils-Many countries have not recognized the value of educating children and adults with special needs, street children, child soldiers, victims of war and other physically challenged person. Media coverage of this sector can influence both the public and governments to pay special attention to this marginalized group.
- ❖ Health and Education-the impact of HIV and AIDS on education and vice-versa-The spread of major diseases like HIV and AIDS, malaria and other epidemics can be checked and reduced through public education. Sexual and Reproductive Health education can contribute to responsible behavior among both children and adults. Coverage by the media on these issues can certainly help improve the situation.
- ❖ The role of Parent-Teacher Associations-There is a growth of Parent-Teacher Associations in many countries who participate in the management of schools and colleges. Their meetings and programmes are always of public interest and can be covered by the media.
- ❖ Curricula Development and relevance to economic development-The media like the public should monitor and report on changes in curriculum and monitor the relevance of subjects and their content to the overall development goal of a country.
- ❖ Infrastructural expansion and projects in education—Infrastructure in education must necessarily expand to meet the growing needs of increased numbers of school going children. Media coverage of this issue will help highlight the gaps and therefore influence governments to invest more in education.

Why some issues do not make news

- ❖ The media's apathy concerning educational issues among media-Journalists in many African countries tend to devote more time to the coverage of politics and ignore subjects like the environment and education.
- ❖ Limited or inadequate information on issues-Although there is so much information on educational matters the lack of interest among media professionals has led to inadequate flow and exchange of information.
- ❖ Limited Understanding of issues by public and media-With the dearth of information on education in the public domain, many people including media professionals do not have full comprehension of educational issues in order to have the confidence to discuss them
- ❖ Presentation of issues in technical jargons-Sometimes information about education is presented in technical language that fails to attract the interest of the media and therefore never see the light of publication.
- ❖ Limited commercial value related to education -Many news organizations do not give too much coverage to education on the grounds that news about education does not sell. They prefer political stories and juicy stories on their front pages but educational stories can as had been demonstrated (why education makes news?) can attract readers, viewers and listeners.

Unit 3

Partnership between Media and Education

Professionals in education and media practitioners, it is evident must collaborate to advance the cause of education since it is an issue of great national interest. The media in many countries have in recent times become channels for distance learning because of its capacity to reach the mass of the people sitting in the comfort of their homes or in the classrooms.

As a channel that seeks to educate, inform and entertain, educational professionals can use this powerful medium to fulfill their goals whilst the media looking for

interesting news to report on can get so much news from the educational front. It is a symbiotic relationship which if well cultivated can only benefit a nation. Coverage by the media on developments in education can influence a government to initiate relevant policies in the interest of education.

In several instances where the media of a country have created platforms for public debate on educational reforms the resultant policy has embodied the input of all major stakeholders. To create an enabling environment for greater partnership and collaboration between the media and education the following steps are recommended.

Recommendations

For Officials of Ministry of Education and other professional

- ❖ Establish and maintain regular contact with the media
- ❖ Organize press briefings and tours for media when necessary
- ❖ Facilitate access to relevant information on education to media
- ❖ Make Information for media less technical
- ❖ Establish annual prizes for best articles and programmes on education.

For Media

- ❖ Recognise news value of educational issues and encourage reporters , producers and feature writers to develop interest on educational issues
- ❖ Ensure regular coverage by establishing an educational desk
- ❖ Encourage specialization in educational journalism
- ❖ Produce on a regular basis educational supplements
- ❖ Monitor closely developments in education
- ❖ Establish media awards for education reporting

Tips on Covering Educational Issues

- ❖ Educate yourself regularly by reading relevant material on education
- ❖ Update your knowledge on the subject regularly
- ❖ Develop sources at relevant agencies and departments of education
- ❖ Develop contacts with experts on education
- ❖ Develop a schedule for coverage of educational issues
- ❖ Always cross-check your information for accuracy
- ❖ Write your report or features in simple, concise and clear language

- ❖ Avoid technical jargons. If you cannot explain in simple language
- ❖ Include relevant statistics that are absolutely essential and make them interesting
- ❖ Explain ideas that are unfamiliar. Give examples.
- ❖ Uphold principle of objectivity and balance by quoting alternative/different sources
- ❖ Write with a sense of responsibility
- ❖ Attribute all relevant sources particularly on controversial and unfamiliar views and facts
- ❖ Never misquote a source or quote out of context
- ❖ Avoid sensationalism and over-dramatization
- ❖ Try to be brief

Activity 2

- ❖ Identify some education-related events which failed to attract media coverage and reasons for the news black-out.
- ❖ Select some policy statements and events on education and produce articles and /or programmes that comment on the policy statements.

Conclusion

Module 25 has discussed in detail what news is all about and introduced the media to those who work in education. It has showed how collaboration between the media and education can contribute to the advancement of education and national development. The way forward is for practitioners in the two sectors to network and ensure that educational issues get the deserved coverage in the media.

Module 26

Using Reporting Genres Effectively

Overview

For news to be interesting, it must be presented in a style and format that makes easy reading, viewing and listening to. There are as many styles as there are writers but there are certain formats or patterns that are universal. Module 26 outlines the various stages of writing the story from coverage of events to the writing of the story.

General Objective

To assist the user to master the art of interviewing, effective reporting and feature writing,

Specific Objectives

- ❖ Expose the user to the rudiments of coverage of news events and the art of interviewing
- ❖ Show how to report news
- ❖ Improve user skills in feature writing and production of documentaries
- ❖ And enhance user skills in investigative reporting

Expected Outcome

The user should at the end of the module be able to cover news events, conduct interviews, undertake investigative journalism, write news reports and features and also be able to produce documentaries for the electronic media.

Introduction

Module 26 is divided into five units. Unit one is about gathering of news, and takes the user through preparations to be made before covering a news event and writing the story or producing a documentary. Unit 2 takes the user through the art of interviewing and how to write a story based on the interview. Unit 3 explains what feature writing is and how to write a good feature article. Unit 4 examines the use of a documentary and steps to take for the production of a documentary. Unit 5 looks at investigative journalism and its methods.

Unit 1

The news that is published in the media is processed information which journalists gather from various sources- press conferences, ceremonies, events, speeches and interviews with politicians, prominent people in the entertainment industry, sports, academia, industry and experts on relevant subjects. In this regard, what can be considered as the raw material for news comes from these sources or forums. Journalists get invitations regularly to cover what is called an assignment, an event that could have news value. It could be any one of the following: the opening session of Parliament, a press conference by the Minister of Education to announce new policies on education, the commissioning of a new school etc. The convention in news rooms is that, the head of the department, called the News Editor, upon receiving the invitation assigns reporter/reporters to cover the event. There are also many instances that even without an invitation from any agency or person, the news editor would ask a reporter to cover an event or development that is considered of public interest- a fatal motor accident, the collapse of a building, a fire outbreak or something of great consequence. A reporter before setting out to cover an event must follow certain basic steps.

Preparations for Covering an Event

The media practitioner should:

- ❖ Gather Information/Background on subject- Most media houses have libraries or news archives where they keep back-copies of their publications or tapes. He or she should not rush to cover an event without having some background information on the subject. Thanks to the internet you can find out enough information about any subject.

- ❖ Find exact location of event-it is always important to be punctual when assigned to cover an event. Finding the exact location for the event is always of great help. Always plan how to get there on time.
- ❖ Ensure he or she has all the tools needed –note pad, pen, tape recorder, camera etc etc.
- ❖ Make sure he or she is appropriately dressed for the occasion.

Tips on covering an event

The following can be useful guides in covering any event, whether it is a press conference, the commissioning of a developmental project or a graduation ceremony:

- ❖ Listen attentively-A typical press conference or seminar may have many speakers, all delivering lengthy speeches. A good reporter must follow with rapt attention each speaker.
- ❖ Take notes. Avoid copious note taking but rather put down vital and interesting points that are relevant and newsworthy. Although the speakers might give out handouts of their speeches the media practitioner should avoid over-reliance on handouts since some speakers might not provide copies of their speeches.
- ❖ The media practitioner should avoid the pitfalls of falsely believing that speech hand-outs contain adequate information. He or she should also note that the question/discussions time often provide major news leads.
- ❖ As a back-up, you may record the entire speech but never fail to take notes.
- ❖ Be a good observer-watch with eagle's eye the entire ceremony or event you are covering since unexpected developments could be newsworthy.
- ❖ Get the names of the various speakers correct by politely asking for complimentary cards and confirming the spelling of names with the organizers of the event.
- ❖ Obtain copies of all relevant documents which might provide useful information or background for your story before leaving the event - e.g. brochures, speeches etc,

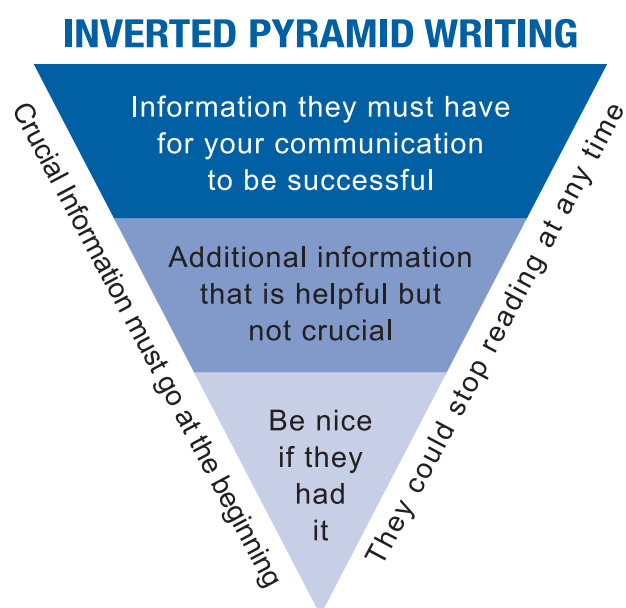
Writing/Reporting the Story

The next and final stage for the reporter after covering an event is to write the story based on what happened at the event for the attention of the news editor. What must be remembered at this stage, is that, one is neither writing a summary or verbatim report but rather a news story that seeks to recapture for the reader, listener or viewer the most essential, relevant and interesting aspects of the event the reporter attended. The reader is never interested in everything that happened at the event from beginning to the end. The reporter must therefore select and arrange the relevant facts from the large body of information and documentation.

Format of News Briefs

A good story has certain elements or format-the lead, the main body and the conclusion and must in its entirety answer what journalists describe as the five "Ws and H." WHO said WHAT, WHERE? WHEN, WHY and HOW ?. By answering these questions, the reporter who attended a press conference would be able to highlight the very important and interesting aspects of a long speech.

The guideline to the writing of stories is for the greater part what is called the Inverted Pyramid style which enables the reporter to begin with what he/she considers the most important fact and bring out other points in a descending order of importance. The lead which is the introduction to the full story may incorporate the five Ws and H or choose to highlight some of the Ws and reserve others for the main body of the story



Activity 1

Organise a mock press conference or attend a real press conference which should be reported and critiqued.

Unit 2

The Art of Interviewing

The Process of interviewing

Interviewing is the method by which journalists obtain information, opinion and answers from sources for either a news report or features story. It involves a journalist (interviewer) posing questions to a respondent (the interviewee). The purpose of an interview is to elicit specific answers on a subject the journalist is working on.

The main objective of an interview is to obtain from the interviewee in the shortest time possible and in the clearest possible way information which the listener/reader cannot get elsewhere and to leave the listener/reader with a better understanding of the subject matter. An interviewer must be clear in his/her mind what the interview is aimed at getting from the interviewee.

Preparations for an interview

- ❖ First select the subject for enquiry and be clear about what exactly you want from the interviewee.
- ❖ The second step is to identify a suitable interviewee and subsequently arrange the time and venue for the interview. Always choose someone who is an expert on the subject for interview and is the appropriate authority or person to throw more light on an issue.
- ❖ Do a background search about the subject and find out some information about the person to be interviewed.
- ❖ Based on the information gathered and the overall purpose for the interview spend some time to prepare a list of questions to be asked. Note however the questions

are only guidelines and could be altered where necessary during the interview. Remember that some interviewees may request that the list of questions be presented before the interview but avoid any rehearsals with the interviewee.

- ❖ Make sure you have the relevant tools for the interview, note pad and pen, tape recorders and camera.

Conducting the Interview

The way an interview is conducted to a large extent determines the success or failure of the interviewer to get the answers needed for a good story. The following tips are recommended:

- ❖ Never make the interview look like an interrogation. Let it be a conversation between two people.
- ❖ Start with questions that will put the interviewee at ease and not those questions that would put him on guard.
- ❖ Arrange the questions in an order that will make the interview flow smoothly.
- ❖ Ask questions designed to elicit specific answers. Let the questions be clear, brief and straight to the point.
- ❖ Ask follow-up questions if you need to.
- ❖ Listen attentively to the answers and watch carefully the reaction of the interviewee (body language may be as important as the direct answers given)
- ❖ Take notes and record the interview. It is important to seek the permission of the interviewee before recording.
- ❖ Respect request by interviewee for any answer to be treated off-record, that is, not for publication. Also respected views of interviewee even if you do not agree with the view. Remember to keep your own views to yourself.
- ❖ Try to be in control of the interview. Do not allow the interviewee to intimidate you and take over the flow of the interview no matter how important he or she may be.
- ❖ Make sure you have as much information and answers that your listeners and readers expect from the interview.

Writing the Story

Material or answers obtained from an interview can be used to write either a news story (see Unit 1) or a feature story (Unit 3). The format for writing a news story is outlined in Unit 1. A reporter may choose to firstly report the interview in a news form and later follow up with a full feature story. The reporter must in either case consider the following guidelines:

Select relevant facts from the large body of information collected
Arrange and organize the information
Correctly quote interviewee.

Activity 2

1. Users pair up and interview each other
2. Group discussion and critique of mock interviews
3. User should conduct an interview and write an article or produce a programme for a media house on an education related subject of their choice.

Unit 3

The Feature Story

A feature story may be defined as a piece of writing that seeks to offer more background information and analysis behind the news. It is simply put the news behind the news. A feature story allows the writer to interpret the news and give his/her opinion when necessary in the article. Like news stories, feature articles must embody elements like accuracy, truth, timelines, relevance, human interest and great entertainment as well educational value

- **Types of Features**

Straight Features - Such features are not necessarily opinionated and like normal news reports are written with the view to inform and educate. The writer avoids subjectivity and writes in the third person which allows greater objectivity.

Opinion Features - As the name suggests this kind of feature takes positions on the issue being discussed. Examples under this category include editorials in newspapers and columns written by individuals.

Personality Profiles - These are articles about news making personalities like politicians, musicians, footballers, sportsmen, achievers who have an attraction for readers or viewers.

Literary Reviews - The publication of new books and the launch of new plays or musical concerts can form the subject feature articles. Journalists through a review of these art forms are able to provide informative, entertaining and interesting perspectives on the subjects.

Travelogue - It is a kind of feature that highlights the impressions and lessons of travels undertaken by journalists either within their own country or beyond.

- **Writing the Feature**

Structure

A feature story like all good news stories has a lead or an introduction, a body and a conclusion. Unlike academic essays, features are written around current news. They are pegged on news and not on the fancy of the writer who only wants to display his or her knowledge about a subject. The following guidelines are recommended for the writing of a feature:

- ❖ Select a subject for the feature story and a purpose for the article. This initial step will add focus and direction to the writing of the article.
- ❖ Undertake necessary research on the subject.
- ❖ For expert opinion or more information interview appropriate authorities or personalities.
- ❖ Choose a headline for the piece to guide in your writing.
- ❖ Add colour and drama to the article with quotes and descriptions of people and scenes.

- ❖ Use simple and precise language.
- ❖ Ensure there is coherence and logic in order to maintain a smooth flow of ideas in the article.
- ❖ Be creative and imaginative-unlike news reporting feature writing has room for creativity in style. There is no standard format in feature writing. One can choose and perfect a style.
- ❖ Read article several times to cross-check accuracy of facts and syntax before submitting for publication

Activity 3

The user should write a feature story on topical educational issues.

Unit 4

What is a Documentary?

A documentary is the format that radio or television uses to cover a particular topic, event or issue in some depth, usually with a mixture of commentary, sound effects and pictures. A documentary is to the electronic media what a feature is to the print media. Documentaries have the advantage of reproducing the voices of those they interview on a particular subject and visually presenting the subject and scenes in the story. Documentaries as vivid narrations or presentations of issues must be lively and have colour. To produce a documentary, the producer or writer follows normal journalistic methods.

Steps towards Production of a Documentary

- ❖ Selection of subject-the reporter should take into consideration the relevance or public interest of a subject he wants to report on.
- ❖ Research-A thorough research on the subject or issue to be reported on in the documentary must be conducted.
- ❖ Arrangements for interviews and visits to location of the interview-Depending on the nature of the subject to be covered, the reporter must arrange interview dates and visit the actual scene of enquiry.

- ❖ Preparation for assignment-A list of questions should be drawn up if an interview is deemed necessary. The reporter should ensure he /she has the relevant equipment e.g tape recorders, television camera and personnel to man equipment. He or she should verify that the equipment is in good order before departure for assignment.
- ❖ Production of Documentary-The next final stage is the writing, production and editing before the programme is aired. The purpose of editing is to remove all inaccuracies and to effect logic and coherence in the narration. Editing also ensures that the length of the documentary fits the air time allotted for it..

Activity 4

Following the process explained in this part of the module, users should produce a documentary on a topical educational issue.

Unit 5

Investigative Journalism

Investigative journalism is a form of journalism in which journalists spend, days, weeks and sometimes months gathering information on a specific issue or topic of public concern or interest. The subject of investigation often involves crime, political corruption, embezzlement of funds by public officials, wastage in the public service and scandals. Since the result of an investigative story exposes public officials, such officials never cooperate with investigative journalists and do everything to hide the fact and frustrate the investigative journalist whose best weapon is therefore patience and persistence.

A good investigative media practitioner is never in a rush to publish but does so when he/she has gone through painstaking research, interviewing and examination of documents and facts to establish his/her case like a public prosecutor. One writer, De Burgh (2000) has described an investigative journalist “as a man or woman whose profession is to discover the truth and to identify lapses from it in whatever media may be available. Investigative journalism is distinct from apparently similar work done by police, lawyers, auditors and regulatory bodies in that it is not limited to target, not legally founded and clearly connected to publicity”.

There are many examples of investigative journalism in Africa which have exposed embezzlement of funds in government departments or the diversion of public funds allocated for development projects. The most quoted example of the impact of investigative journalism is the work done by two reporters of the Washington Post in the United States over what has come to be described as the Watergate Affair that led

to the resignation of President Richard Nixon. More appropriately, US President Barack Obama on his first visit to Africa singled out the reportage of a Ghanaian investigative journalist, Anas Aremyaw Anas as contributing to the fight against human and drug trafficking.

Methods of Investigative Journalism

The investigative journalist is guided in his or her work by the basics of news reporting or feature writing. Public interest determines and defines the selection of topics whilst the normal principles and methods of gathering information are applied. However, an investigative journalist uses additional methods which are listed here.

- ❖ **Surveillance and Observation Techniques** - These are the same methods intelligence officers employ if and when the subject of enquiry is a person whose movements and contacts must be monitored closely.
- ❖ **Analysis of Documents** - The investigative journalists will come across vital documents which he or she must critically examine and analyse for evidence and proof.
- ❖ Examination of records, archives , phone records, tax records may provide insights into the investigation
- ❖ **Interview** - One of the tools that the investigative journalist uses is the art of interview which allows the reporter to get useful leads to follow and eventually verify the story. Most sources who agree to be interviewed often insist that identities should not be revealed. An investigative journalist is obliged to respect any request for confidentiality and anonymity.
- ❖ **Research into Social and Legal Issues** - Investigating any story has many dimensions, particularly the legal perspective that must be fully and carefully examined.
- ❖ **Undercover Methods** - Whilst the investigative journalist is no James Bond or spy, journalists have been known to assume other identities in order to get their story. To expose the use of expired raw materials in a factory in Ghana, a journalist Anas Aremyaw Anas sought employment as a factory hand and worked as such for over a month during which he was able to observe the entire process of production. His story when it was published led to the closure of the factory. The decision to use undercover methods must always be carefully made taking into account the safety of the method and the ethics of the profession.

Format of Presenting an Investigative Story

The investigative journalist depending on the type of media he works for can use any of many news formats discussed in this module:

- ❖ News Report
- ❖ Feature story
- ❖ Documentary

Since it takes a longer period to put them together, investigative stories tend to be longer even when presented as news stories. A Sierra Leonean journalist has used investigative journalism to report on the atrocities of the 10 year civil war in his country and hunger in Ethiopia as well as immigration by Africans to Europe. The three documentaries he produced for the CNN helped to educate the public about the related subjects.

Activity 5

- ❖ Users to identify some education related features and documentaries that are the result of investigative journalism and discuss.
- ❖ Users to select a topic on an item relevant to education in their community and produce an investigative article or programme on it.

Conclusion

This module has introduced user to the rudiments of reporting the news, feature writing, documentary production and investigative journalism. By following the adage 'practice makes perfect', the user should with time develop the ability to report for the national and international media.

Supporting Materials

1. Extracts from Journalism manuals or books on the journalism genres: reporting, interviewing and feature writing.
2. Clippings of reports and features articles on education produced by the users and senior journalists specialized in education reporting.

Module 27

Ethics in Journalism

Overview

Every profession has a set of ethics or norms to guide its practitioners. International and national associations of journalists have therefore adopted codes of ethics to guide members of the profession. Seminars and workshops are held regularly to ensure that journalists abide by these ethics. Module examines the principles behind the adoption of code of ethics and their significance in the work of media professionals.

General Objective

Module outlines and examines reasons for journalism code of ethics and their application as a guide to responsible journalism.

Specific Objectives

Specific Objectives are to study and examine ethics in journalism, as well as identify challenges journalists face in adhering to ethics of the profession.

Expected Outcome

At the end of this module, the user will know and appreciate the significance of ethics in journalism and apply it as expected.

Introduction

Module defines ethics and discusses its relevance to the practice of journalism and other professions. It further examines how ethics impact on journalism and public interest. Unit 1 focuses on definitions and general principles. Unit 2 outlines specific principles and benchmarks that journalists and the public can use to assess the performance of the media.

Unit 1

What is Ethics?

“The Britannia Concise Encyclopedia” defines ethics as the “branch of philosophy concerned with the nature of ultimate value and the standards by which human actions can be judged right or wrong”. Relating this definition to everyday life, ethics is the set of guidelines and rules or norms adopted by either an individual, a group of persons or associations to ensure that the individual or members of the group conduct their business with maximum respect for morality, Several professions whose work have direct effect on the public protect both the reputation of the profession and supreme interest and welfare of its publics by adopting professional code of ethics.

Lawyers for example have professional code of ethics that among other things enjoins lawyers to protect the confidentiality between a lawyer and client. Doctors do not only take the Hippocratic Oath to care for the sick but also subscribe to the code of ethics of the medical profession which makes it morally wrong for a medical doctor to turn his/her back on certain patients on grounds of colour or creed. Journalists like these other professional groups know the consequence of the published word on the lives of individuals and society and therefore adopt code of ethics to ensure journalists adhere to values like truth, accuracy, objectivity and fairness.

What code of ethics in journalism does is to leave the personal responsibility for what a journalist writes solely on his or her conscience, Ethics in journalism deal with a wide range of issues-coverage of children, disclosure of sources, methods of obtaining news, fairness, truth , accuracy and above all the impact or relevance of a story to the public interest.

Why Code of Ethics?

Code of ethics are normally drawn up and adopted by members of an association and must be subscribed to by old and new members as a guide in their work. Associations set up disciplinary committees which use the code of ethics as a framework to adjudicate public complaints against individual journalists or news organizations for violation of the ethics of the association and unprofessional conduct. Regulatory bodies set up by governments to arbitrate on unprofessional conducts equally apply the code of ethics of journalists associations in addition to their own set of rules and regulations. Violation of ethics in some professions is punished by either suspension or expulsion. The National Union of Journalists of Cote d'Ivoire set up a self-regulatory body, a Media Observatory Committee (OLPED) which monitors the performance of the media over a period and come out with findings of publications that violated its code of ethics. The findings of the Committee are published in a widely circulated newsletter. The offending publication is required to published the findings and an apology.

Activity 1

As a journalist or communicator, can you tell how you will be able to distinguish good writers from the frauds and con artists, especially online? Please give concrete examples as you elaborate on this.

Activity 2

Journalists should be honest, fair and courageous in gathering, reporting and interpreting information. As a journalist reporting on educational issues, what would you consider to be the most difficult issues to report on fairly and honestly? Why would you consider such matters to be most difficult and how would you report when confronted with them?

Unit 2

Principles/Benchmarks for Ethics in Journalism

A code of ethics in journalism recognizes the fact that journalists face many pressures in their work and therefore can be compromised in the line of duty as they interact with their sources and the general public. The salary of journalists in many African countries is known to be very little. There is the example of several countries where the average monthly salary of a reporter is not more than \$100. It can even be as low as \$50 per month.

Many journalists go for months without being paid by their owners. The temptation for a journalist faced with this economic gloom may be to compromise on his principles by collecting bribes and other inducements. The public interest is always at stake when journalists for financial consideration either refuse to publish a story or skew it with half-truths and lies. The boundary of privacy and public interest is another dilemma for journalists when they report on the private actions of public servants. Ethics sets the framework for dealing with all such challenges as outlined in the following benchmarks:

- ❖ **People's Right to true Information:** The business of the press is not one of peddling falsehoods and rumours but the truth and nothing but the truth. The public have the right to have unbiased, accurate and balanced information. A journalist must therefore cross-check and verify his or her facts before publishing the news. Under no circumstance should news or a publication be suppressed unless for national security reasons or public interest.
- ❖ **Bribes and Professional Integrity:** Bribes and other forms of inducement corrupt. Journalists should not therefore accept such inducements or what in many countries is called "brown envelope".
- ❖ **Respect for Privacy and Human Dignity:** Journalists should respect the right of the individual to his or her privacy. Journalists are expected to draw a distinction between the private life of politicians and other public servants and their public

functions. Any intrusion into someone's privacy must respect his or her dignity and must be dictated first and foremost by the impact of an act on the public interest.

- ❖ Objectivity-Journalists must never allow their biases or loyalties to clan, tribe or societies to cloud their professional judgment and objectivity.
- ❖ Corrections and rejoinders: A journalist or publication has the moral obligation to correct promptly any misleading report and also publish any rejoinder on any of its stories. Many self-regulatory and regulatory bodies have a mandatory provision on rejoinders, but the journalist must be the first to grant the right to a rejoinder.
- ❖ Information and pictures: Journalists are obliged to obtain information and photographs by straightforward means and can only justify any other method by overriding considerations of the public interest.
- ❖ Respecting Embargoes and off record requests: Some institutions and individuals in their dealings with the media may request that certain news releases or information are published at set times, day and hour. An interviewee may also request that a particular answer or the entire interview should not be published. The journalist is obliged to comply with such requests.
- ❖ Reporting Children: Journalists should respect the rights of minors guided by the various conventions on child rights. For instance it is unethical to publish or interview a child without the consent of parents or guardians. Disclosing the names of children who are victims of sexual abuse or are involved in criminal trials is not allowed.
- ❖ Victims of Sexual Assault: Journalists should avoid identifying victims of sexual assault.
- ❖ Plagiarism: It is wrong not to attribute the source of any information and illegal to claim ownership of the information.
- ❖ Official Secrets and access to information-Many countries in Africa have on their statutes laws of Official Secrecy which makes it an offence for a public official to release classified information to the public and bars the media from publishing such information. Until countries pass a right of information bill, journalists must respect the existing law and decide at some risks to publish such information if convinced such a decision is in the supreme public interest.

- ❖ Respect for National Values-Journalists should not publish material that promotes discrimination on the basis of ethnicity, gender, religion, colour, creed and sexual orientation.
- ❖ Confidentiality: Journalists are obliged to protect confidential sources of information and never disclose them. There are cases of journalists preferring to go to jail when ordered by courts of law to disclose their sources rather than break this code.

Activity 3

A journalist is supposed to be free of obligation to any interest other than the public's right to know. In addition, the journalists should be accountable to their readers, listeners, viewers and each other. Describe the steps or measures that you will personally take to fulfil these requirements.

Activity 4

Undertake content analysis of a publication in a selected print media or a programme on either television or radio, using principles learnt in this module to assess the publication.

Conclusion

The module has discussed the importance of ethics in the field of journalism as a tool which if adhered to would enhance the image, credibility and integrity of the media. The UN Declaration on Human Rights and many international conventions and national constitutions recognise the fundamental right of freedom of expression, freedom of the press and access to information especially information from government institutions. The "Windhoek Declaration on promoting an Independent and Pluralistic African press" of 1991, further endorsed this principle and led to the institution of May 3rd by the United Nations as World Press Freedom Day, an event that is marked worldwide annually. However, building strong media institutions, creating conducive working conditions and services for journalists as well as upholding media self regulation and media accountability to address ethical journalism in Africa continue to be major challenges. Several media observers have stated that: "only a responsible press can guarantee a free press". Every journalist must have a personal sense of ethics and responsibility. It is therefore important to have an institutional climate that will encourage diverse values in our media houses and provide the expertise and

resources required to cover an increasingly diverse society and achieve high quality journalism. Code of Ethics in Journalism, if respected and adhered to, can provide the guide and framework for responsible journalism.

Supporting Materials

1. Media ethics resources and tool kit see <http://www.spj.org/foitoolkit.asp>
2. Site on Society of professional Journalists <http://www.spj.org/ethics.asp>
3. Ethics Guide for Public Radio Journalism
<http://www.cpb.org/radio/ethicsguide/>
4. FAIR: Fairness and Accuracy in Reporting <http://www.fair.org/>
5. First Amendment Handbook <http://www.rcfp.org/handbook/viewpage.cgi>
6. Journalism Ethics Cases Online <http://www.journalism.indiana.edu/Ethics/>
7. Institute for Global Ethics <http://www.globalethics.org/>
8. Regret the Error <http://www.regrettheerror.com/>
9. World Wide Codes of Conduct http://www.presswise.org.uk/display_page.php?id=40

Further Reading

1. Arant, David, ed. *Perspectives: Ethics, Issues and Controversies in Mass Media*. St. Paul, MN: Coursewise Publishing, 1999.
2. Atkins, Joseph B., ed. *The Mission: Journalism, Ethics, and the World: International Topics in Media*. Ames: Iowa State University Press, 2002.
3. *Media Ethics and Accountability Systems*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers, 2000.
4. Craig, David. *The Ethics of the Story: Using Narrative Techniques Responsibly in Journalism*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield, 2006.
5. Richards, Ian. *Quagmires and Quandaries: Exploring Journalism Ethics*. Sydney, Australia: University of New South Wales Press, 2005.



References

1. Dan Gillmor (September 2004). *We the Media: Grassroots Journalism by the People, for the People*. Published by O'Reilly Media.
2. Professor Guy Berger (September 2007). *Media Legislation in Africa: A comparative Legal Survey*. Published for UNESCO by the School of Journalism and Media Studies, Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa.
3. Berry, David, ed. *Ethics and Media Culture*. Woburn, MA: Focal Press, 2000.
4. Cohen, Elliot D. and Deni Elliott, eds. *Journalism Ethics: A Reference Handbook*. Santa Barbara, CA: Abc-Clio, 1998.
5. Bertrand, Claude-Jean. *An Arsenal for Democracy: Media Accountability Systems*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, 2003.
6. Goldstein, Tom and Howard H. Baker. *Journalism and Truth: Strange Bedfellows*. Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 2007.

Module 28

Information and Documentation in Education

Overview

Knowledge and information are important for the work of journalists and other professionals. Information gathered must be documented for retrieval and use when necessary. Module provides insights on where to source information on education, store them and how to package and present such information.

General Objective

Module will equip the user with the skill for gathering and storing information on education.

Specific Objectives

To enable the user to:

- ❖ search for relevant information on education
- ❖ organise and document the information
- ❖ package and present the information

Expected Outcome

At the end of this module user will be able to search for information, store them and package for use when necessary.

Introduction

Module 28 is divided into two units. Unit 1 identifies and outlines sources of information. It also shows how to process, package and present information in a comprehensible manner. It also highlights DONTs in information gathering. Unit 2 discusses key elements needed for information collection and presentation.info

Unit 1

Sources of Information on Education

There are many sources open to a journalist or anyone looking for general or specific information on education. One source is inter-personal, through interviews with individuals or groups. Another source is through research, examination and reading of

relevant documents and publications, print and online on the subject of enquiry. Sources to consider include:

- ❖ **Functionaries in Education:** All those connected with education from government officials to teachers in the classroom can provide relevant information on educational issues. The Minister of Education, as the highest government official responsible for education can provide information and commentaries on government policies on education, the national budget on education and related matters. At the national educational service where government policies are implemented, officials can provide answers to issues such as infrastructural development postings of teachers, curriculum development or examination results and performance of students, officials can provide the answers. Heads of institutions at every level, from primary to the tertiary level as well as teachers and lecturers can always provide insights into educational matters just as Parent-Teachers Associations can also share useful perspectives on education.

Another useful source of information on education is the rich pool of experts, researchers and academicians who undertake research into education and come out findings on the subject. A journalist or any other professional writing on education can rely on them for a better understanding of his or her enquiry. Information from such sources can be obtained through interviews.

- ❖ **Publications on Education :** There is a rich store of publications on education in every country. The Ministry of Education and Education Departments regularly come out with publications, government policies and white papers on education, proceedings of conferences on education, findings of committees set up to look into aspects of a nation's education, proposals for reforms, academic reports, books and articles on education which can be found in libraries or Ministries of Education that the user can rely upon. One can also get relevant information on developments and events on education from newspapers and magazines radio and television documentaries as well as from pamphlets and brochures on education.

There are also many monthly/quarterly/annual journals published by educational associations and research bodies on the continent that can be accessed for information on specific topics and subjects in education. For instance medical journals published by associations of doctors or medical schools provide detailed information about new discoveries to treat diseases and related subjects.

- ❖ **The Internet as a Source:** the Internet has revolutionized the information industry and created great opportunities for accessing information from archaeology to zoology. What the internet has done is to put general and specific information that in the past could only be gathered from libraries and archives online.

For instance to obtain basic information on educational reforms in any African country, the number of universities in a country, staff development programmes, student population, female-male ratio etc. for a comparative study, a journalist or researcher does not necessarily have to travel to a country or countries for the required information but only have to search on the Internet.

- ❖ **Websites:** Websites operated by educational organizations and individuals involved in education are useful sources for accessing information on education. A web site is defined as “set of interconnected web pages, usually including a homepage generally located on the same server, and prepared and maintained as a collection of information by a person, a group or individual”. (Ref.-Britannica.com)

Schools and colleges, Ministries of Education, and departments of education in many countries have taken advantage of the Internet to create their web sites which provide information about their policies and activities. For instance COMED has its own web site and related links to other organisations like ADEA.

A visit to either the website of COMED or ADEA provides information on the aims and objectives and history of the two bodies. The COMED website (www.adea.comed.org) has details about its training programmes, partners, studies and publications, statistics on education and information about past and future activities.

- ❖ **Databases :** information on education can also be accessed from databases of departments of education, research institutions and academic bodies. Databases are a collection of information or data that are stored on a computer by individuals and institutions and can be retrieved, modified or deleted as and when necessary. An individual journalist, media house or journalism association can create a database on specific or general subjects for easy reference. To facilitate and promote reporting on education across the continent journalists could create a database consisting of investigations and published works by journalists, as well as useful references for journalists interested in the partnership between educational professionals and the media. To ensure that material stored on a computer is not lost through any accident, back-up files should always be stored separately.
- ❖ **COMED Database :** the COMED database consists of very useful collection of information on its networks, collaborators, indicators and country-level activities. A special feature on this facility is the COMED Education and Communication Expert Profile that provides the curriculum vitae of African/Africanist education and communication experts that partners of COMED may tap into to recruit the services of these experts.

Dont's in Information Gathering

- ❖ Information intended for any academic or journalistic purpose must not be based on rumour, hearsay, unconfirmed reports and half-truths.
- ❖ Any such information must be thoroughly investigated, cross-checked and authenticated before use.
- ❖ Do not treat any information from any source as credible without strict verification for its authenticity.

Activity 1

Identify resources other than the ones described in this module for your sources of information on Education – websites, papers/books, institutions, cases – that you believe will be useful in pursuing your objective of writing the best article you can write in this sector or field.

Unit 2

Collection and Presentation of Information

A very difficult phase in the entire process of information gathering and usage is how to package and present the information so that it will be fully understood and appreciated by the end user, the target group or audience. Information may be transmitted orally, graphically or in a written form. The mode of packaging and presenting any information depends to a large extent on the size of the target group; the literacy level of the group, age, gender and other relevant information that assist the presenter to take the special needs of the group into consideration. Some elements needed for presentation include the following: (design to display elements)

- ❖ **Broad Topic or Subject of presentation** - The selection of the broad title or topic of your presentation helps even in the gathering of information and data. It determines what sources to look at and what material to gather.
- ❖ **Purpose/Goal of Presentation** - It is important to have in mind what the aim of a particular presentation is. It sets the framework for style, format and even the language to be used in the presentation.
- ❖ **Audience/Target group** - The audience or target group which one seeks to address a message to, similarly determines the relevant information that must be gathered, the language, medium and style. For instance a speaker or presenter

who must speak to a rural community on HIV/Aids can only be effective if he speaks in the language of the community and possibly use images and pictures rather than statistics.

- ❖ **Format/Medium** - Depending on the target group information may be presented in an audio-visual, written or drama sketches. In instances where the presentation is aimed at a vast population either radio or television may be used. Each choice dictates how the information is packaged and presented.
- ❖ **Language** - The kind of language used in the packaging and presentation of any information depends on the audience. Whilst a presentation to an academic group can freely use statistics, figures and the official language of a country (French/English/Spanish/Portuguese/Arabic), the same presentation to a different audience cannot effectively use the same language. A message or presentation meant for a rural community most of whom may be illiterate would have to use the language of the area. It is absurd to see public officials speaking to such crowds in English, French or Portuguese. A presentation to school kids on any subject would have to be done in simple language.
- ❖ **Style** - In packaging and presenting any information, the presenter must have an eye for simplicity and clarity.
- ❖ **Use of Statistics and Research Findings in education reporting** - Researchers and academicians in the pursuit of their investigation into educational issues and writing of their reports, employ a lot of statistics, tables and maps to publish their findings and conclusions. They often use technical and scientific terms. However the journalist cannot merely reproduce such materials using the same scientific terms and jargons. The role of the journalist is to reduce all terms and jargons into every day simple language in an interesting manner.
- ❖ **Sensitive Information in educational reporting** - A journalist must exercise professional judgment guided by ethics in journalism in reporting educational issues.

Use of Information

Create awareness
Promote Unity
Protect and promote societal values

Activity 2

- ❖ Choose any subject and identify the best method or source for gathering information on subject
- ❖ Set up interviews to gather information on relevant subjects from experts or opinion leaders in a community.
- ❖ Compile and store as a document for future use.

Conclusion

This module has provided a resource of inventory through which the user can gather and document information for utilization in his or her work.

Supporting Materials

- ❖ Reference books
- ❖ National policies on information/education
- ❖ National policies on documentation
- ❖ Curricula of schools and Institutions of higher learning
- ❖ Reports from workshops, seminars, conferences and symposia on information and documentation
- ❖ Research findings
- ❖ Websites

References

1. The MLA Pocket Handbook: Rules for Format and Documentation (Paperback) by Jill Rossitter-“Created and Monitored by the Modern Language Association”.
2. The Omaha System: A Key to Practice, Documentation and Information.
3. Management (Spiral-bound) by Karen S. Martin RN MSN FAAN.
4. Complete Guide to Documentation (Paperback)?
5. Effective Documentation: What We Have Learned from Research (Information Systems) (Hardcover) by Stephen Doheny-Farina.
6. ISO 99; 1996 Information and Documentation-Guidelines for the Content, Organization and Presentation of Indexes (paperback).
7. Modern Techniques of Documentation and Information Work (Paperback) by Mohammed Riaz.

N.B. All these books are available on: www.amazon.com

Module 29

Quality Assurance in Reporting Education

Overview

This module will help media practitioners and communication specialists to adequately report and communicate on educational issues in an accurate, acceptable and ethical way. It will ensure that media practitioners and communication specialists treat information with the care and skill to create the desired impact.

General Objective

At the end of this module, the learner should be able to report on and/or disseminate information on various educational trends on the continent from a factual, balanced, qualitative and in-depth standpoint.

Specific Objectives

To enable user to:

- ❖ define and understand quality assurance in media work
- ❖ highlight the values of quality journalism and information dissemination

Expected Outcome

Quality assurance in media practice will help to increase confidence of the readers and or audience, the media's credibility, improve work processes and efficiency, pre test and revise media products and eventually enable the media house to be in a better position to compete with others. This module introduces the user to what quality assurance is and its relevance to media work for educational development.

Introduction

This module introduces the user to what is quality assurance and its relevance to media work for educational development.

What is Quality Assurance?

Quality assurance is a process that systematically checks and controls a product or a service to determine whether it meets specified requirements. In business circles, many departments have separate sections or departments that undertake quality control to ascertain whether a product or service being developed is meeting specified

requirements. In reporting quality news, features and documentaries, the media should take into account various values that determine a good story:

- ❖ It is important for media practitioners to quote sources accurately, check the facts and use credible sources, coupled with enhanced research skills.
- ❖ They should give all the people implicated in the event or an issue a chance to respond and ensure that they present the information in the most readable and engaging way possible. For example, a lot of media institutions in Africa do not get comments from children whenever examination results are announced.
- ❖ In any established newsroom, quality is assured through people like proof readers, sub-editors and editors for typographical, grammatical and content editing.
- ❖ The management team of the media house determines the quality assurance policies and their objectives in the form of a guideline in line with the kind of media they produce.
- ❖ The media house's policies and requirements are written down as well as how they should be implemented.
- ❖ The management should ensure that standards set are strictly adhered to.
- ❖ There is also need to have well-researched and in-depth news analysis and statements that are relevant and stimulate responses to better the provision of education in the continent.

In all these endeavours, quality assurance is very important. Quality Assurance is planned and systematic production processes that provide confidence in a product's suitability for its intended purpose. According to Merriam-Webster, it is a set of activities intended to ensure that products (goods and/or services) satisfy customer requirements in a systematic and reliable fashion. In the field of communication, information is the product. Without information, people cannot make informed decisions or act upon the necessary requirements of society. As an old adage says 'Information is power'. In short, this is a product that can make or break a person, a community, a nation and a continent.

Quality Assurance or quality control

Some terminology: Source: Quality control in open and distance learning: Trainers' Kit 005 The Commonwealth of Learning and Asian Development Bank.

- ❖ Quality is a characteristic of the products and services an organisation offers.

- ❖ Quality assurance is a process directed toward achieving that characteristic. It is the set of activities that an organisation undertakes to ensure that standards are specified and reached consistently for a product or service.
- ❖ Quality control operates retrospectively, ‘inspecting out’ or discarding faulty products that fail to conform to a predetermined standard.
- ❖ Quality control and quality assurance, together with the assessment of quality systems — the monitoring, evaluation, and audit of procedures — are overlapping functions in regulating how an organisation or venture works.

All of these tasks have a role in quality management approaches, the best known of which is total quality management.

Activity 1

From your own experience as a media practitioner, can quality assurance apply to the work you do? If so, how? If not, why not?

Activity 2

Write an article to give your views and give examples.

Case Studies

(This case study shows an article which was analysed to be good by the Media Monitoring Africa (MMA), a South African based media monitoring organisation that has been monitoring the media since 1993)

The Star and City Press commit themselves to rooting out bullying in schools

21 July 2009

As a key source of information, media has a responsibility to respect, protect, facilitate and fulfil children’s rights. *The Star*, through a series of articles (“I’m afraid he may rape me” , 14/07/09, p.1; “Pushed, teased, hit, raped” and “Abuse is happening everywhere” ,16/07/09, p.1; “Your SMS feedback” , 16/07/09, p.5; “Policies devised to counter bullying – MEC” , 17/07/09, p.1; and “College acts on bullying with hotline”, 22/07/09, p.3) by Angelique Serrao, stands out for exposing bullying in schools, and prompting action by government and the

school involved. *City Press* also stands out for taking a preventative approach to bullying, in its article “The playground mafia” (09/08/09, p.23) by Mokgadi Seabi. Both *The Star* and *City Press* deserve a Glad nomination.

In the article “I’m afraid he may rape me” (14/07/09, p.1), *The Star* reported that a 14-year old boy was allegedly bullied by another pupil so badly at school that he suffered post-traumatic stress disorder and childhood depression and was forced to transfer to another school.

The article is accompanied by an extract of the victim’s statement detailing how he was physically and verbally bullied. The report quoted the principal of the school saying the school had done an investigation and could only find proof of verbal abuse hence the parents of the alleged bully are suing the victim’s parents for defamation of character.

Although the article named the school, it protected both the victim and the alleged bully’s identities by giving them the pseudo names of Jacob and Martin, respectively, and not revealing their parents’ names. The article is accompanied by a photograph which also protects the victim’s identity, through the camera angle used.

Protecting the identity of the victim and alleged perpetrator is crucial for two main reasons. It is not only in line with section 154(3) of the Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977 [1], but it is also in the best interest of the victim and alleged perpetrator, as it minimises chances of further bullying and victimisation, respectively.

Following the exposure of Jacob’s case, *The Star* invited people to send views and comments via the newspaper’s SMS feedback number. This provided parents and children a platform to air their views and experiences without fear of victimisation.

Through the SMS initiative, *The Star* was able to reveal more cases of bullying at the same school and at other schools around Johannesburg, in the articles “Pushed, teased, hit, raped”, “Abuse is happening everywhere” (16/07/09, p.1) by Serrao and “Your SMS feedback” (16/07/09, p.5).

Serrao reported that the *The Star*’s SMS line had been inundated with parents reporting that their children had been bullied at the same school, as well as at other schools around Johannesburg.

The Star showed a strong commitment to exposing bullying by following up and giving it front page coverage, which is commendable. Had *The Star* not shown

such commitment, the government and the school involved may not have been prompted to act in the way that was subsequently reported on.

In the articles “Policies devised to counter bullying – MEC” and “College acts on bullying with hotline” on (17/07/09, p.1) and (22/07/09, p.3), *The Star* revealed that the government and the school involved had been prompted to device new policies to root out bullying. For example, the Gauteng Education Department indicated that a new policy dealing with safety in schools was being developed and it would be made public within a few months. In addition, the school involved has reportedly set up a bullying hotline where parents can call or SMS their concerns about bullying at the school.

Unlike *The Star*, *City Press* took a preventive angle to bullying, in the article “The playground mafia” (09/08/09, p.23) by Mokgadi Seabi.

The article spoke to the reality of bullying in schools and its effects on children’s lives. It did this by starting from the premise that bullying is found in every school and can cause lasting psychological and physiological damage to children; a reality society needs to accept and deal with.

The article sourced various experts, and looked at gender differences, as well as developments in bullying, in the context social networking sites, cell phones and the internet.

It provided statistics on bullying and included tips for parents on how to deal with and prevent their children from being bullies or bullied. It also identified steps that children should take in order to protect themselves from bullies.

While the article took a preventive approach to bullying, it provided the full name [2] of an 11-year old girl, which may not have been in her best interests.

The girl was reported as saying that a boy waits outside the school for her every day, even though he knows that she does not like him. The article also mentioned that the girl prefers not to tell her mother, because her friends will laugh at her and think that she is afraid of boys.

Given these circumstances, identifying the child is problematic. She might be victimised by her peers, further bullied by the boy, and asked by her mother why she had not told her from the beginning. While *City Press* could have alerted the mother and the authorities, it could have made the choice to protect the child’s identity.

Overall, *The Star* and *City Press* are commended for playing their role in addressing bullying. It remains to be seen what role other media, government, schools, parents and children will also play.

-Wellington Radu (Monitor)

Footnotes

1. Section 154(3) of the Criminal Procedure Act states that, “No person shall publish in any manner whatever information which reveals or may reveal the identity of the accused under the age of 18 years or of a witness at criminal proceedings who is under the age of 18 years.”
2. MMA has concealed the name in the article to protect the girl’s identity.

“I’m afraid he may rape me” (*The Star*, 14/07/09, p.1)

Conclusion

It is hoped that lessons gained from this module will help the learner to be accountable to their readers, listeners and viewers. In doing so, the information disseminator should ensure that the information that he or she sends has values that will shape the education sector. The essence of reaching the masses for education policy, legal and implementation change and improvement should be done in an accurate and responsible way. The packaged information should depict the truth, presented in a way that would influence the adoption of better practices by African governments. In the end, it will be able to help communities and countries learn from each other and share better practices.

References

1. Stephen JA Ward and Herman Wasserman (editors), *Media Ethics Beyond Borders – a global perspective*, Heinemann, 2009
2. Quality control in open and distance learning: Trainers’ Kit 005 The Commonwealth of Learning and Asian Development Bank.

Module 30

Media Monitoring

Overview

This module provides opportunities for journalists, communicators and education activists to gather evidence to support advocacy for education. The media operates by gathering facts and disseminating information based on those facts. Education activists should also work with facts when engaging with the media during advocacy. This module will discuss different media research methods that activists can utilise to gather facts about how the media cover issues of education in Africa. The methods for gathering evidence include media monitoring, audience research and conducting an audit of the media.

General Objective

To expose users to the key principles of media monitoring.

Specific Objectives

By the end of this module the user will:

- ❖ Be exposed to the basic principles of media monitoring
- ❖ Know how to do a content analysis of either a newspaper, a radio programme, a TV programme or an online media content
- ❖ Understand the importance of media monitoring
- ❖ Understand the importance of generating facts before engaging the media for public use.

Expected Outcome

At the end of the module users would have developed skills for better engaging with the media through monitoring and lobbying.

Introduction

Module 30 is divided into two units. Unit 1 introduces the user to the process of media monitoring and examines qualitative and quantitative monitoring and their benefits. Unit 2 deals with the uses of content analysis, audience research, Focus Group discussions (FGDs) and tips on how to present media monitoring findings.

Unit 1

What is Media Monitoring?

Monitoring the media is an effective tool for advocacy for education. It entails a systematic and sustained surveillance of how the media cover education issues for the purpose of critical evaluation. It enables practitioners to generate knowledge about the media itself and its content. The findings of monitoring can be documented in short reports and/or fact sheets. These can be used for sensitisation among journalists, editors and media managers, as well as advertisers and communicators, for the development of education and media advocacy campaigns. The findings can also be utilised for the development of policies, codes of conduct and guidelines for the media.

The objectives of monitoring may differ depending on the environment in which the media is operating. Analysis of the information may be either quantitative or qualitative. It may be special case study or studies. It may also look at terminology used in the content of a particular medium. Monitoring can be short, medium or long term. It may include one or several media and one or many countries. Analysis can also look at trends, changes in the media and can be comparative.

Monitoring how often for example how often education is covered , how often women, girls, students and other key stakeholders in the communities are quoted as primary sources is an example of quantitative monitoring.

Types of Monitoring

Qualitative monitoring would analyse whether the critical and emerging issues in education are covered, in-depth analysis of the education sector, issues of policy, resources, gender biases, stereotypes, and the change of value judgment, perceptions and attitudes that are portrayed by the media. These can be identified through the language, placement of stories, sources chosen, focus of the story, and other journalistic and editorial choices.

Qualitative monitoring also helps to reveal how the media portrays the power relations between women and men, i.e., the position of women and men in the division of resources and responsibilities, benefits and rights, power and privilege in the education sector.

A combined approach of quantitative and qualitative monitoring sheds light on whether the media give fair and equal space and time to education issues, whose voices are heard, who is consulted, if the reports carry adequate context and balance; and if the reporting is analytical and objective and more issue-based as opposed to reporting only on an event.

Unit 2

Uses of Content Analysis

Content analysis enables practitioners to understand and accurately describe the actual content of different messages and images in the media. This form of analysis is concerned with how often certain messages occur in the media. For example, how many times issues of education feature in news stories, or programmes? Content analyses can be done on: advertisements, TV/print/radio news, films, videos, magazines, soap operas, music lyrics, music videos, TV series, etc.

How to do a Content Analysis?

- ❖ Select the sample to be examined (e.g. Newspaper or TV advertisements)
- ❖ Decide on content and features to be examined
- ❖ Decide on units (details of content, i.e. age, sex, etc.) to be examined
- ❖ Decide on time frame (i.e. period of time for analysis)
- ❖ Develop recording sheets (local media trainers and researchers can assist you with developing sheets and tools that are easy to use)
- ❖ Record your observations
- ❖ Analyse the data

Audience Research - What does the audience think and say?

Audience research adds credibility to any form of media research as it adds the public's interpretation of media messages and provides insight on how the public engages with the media. Education and media activists should seek out the views and perspectives of others who are not activists to demonstrate to the media that the images and types of stories may not be what the public wants. In many countries in Africa, media institutions have little capacity or resources to conduct audience surveys. Therefore, editors and journalists often produce editorial content based on the journalistic notions of what is news, which can be subjectively influenced. Again, using local expertise in media training institutions, universities, a questionnaire can

be developed and audiences selected to gather information and views across age, sex, education, location, etc.

Focus Group Discussions : These are carefully planned discussions to get people's views and perceptions on a defined area of interest. For example, if you want to focus a campaign around the media's coverage of education, a focus group can be put together to explore their perceptions and views on how issues of education are presented in news stories. FGD often provides qualitative study which gives in-depth information.

The group can be comprised of 6 -10 people selected from the intended audience and sharing a common characteristic, such as age, sex, educational background, religion or something directly related to the topic to a total of about 200 well-selected people will be effective); moderators and note-takers.

Uses of Focus Group Discussions :

- ❖ Probing into people's feelings, opinions, and perceptions of a topic or issue
- ❖ Indicating the range of a community's beliefs, ideas and opinions
- ❖ Gaining baseline information
- ❖ Verifying and obtaining more in-depth details about information collected for an advocacy programme
- ❖ Designing questionnaire or interview guide for individual interviews and questions for the group discussions

It can also be used for:

- ❖ Solving specific problems
- ❖ Evaluating programmes
- ❖ Testing campaign messages

Focus group discussions have a lot of advantages; they are often rich, produce information quickly, gather non-verbal reactions to specific items, allow for the participation of those who cannot read and write and they are flexible.

However, results cannot be extended to a larger community and results might be biased due to group pressure or due to what is considered socially acceptable. Therefore the key to good focus group discussions is to have a good moderator and carefully selected participants.

Tips on how to present media monitoring findings:

- ❖ Present findings to those who can bring about change within the media (media management and media policymakers).
- ❖ Write articles/ record radio and TV programmes for publication and broadcast supported by the findings
- ❖ Distribute and publicise the recommendations widely
- ❖ Launch a strategic lobby campaign for the relevant media houses to implement them.
- ❖ If the media interviews you about education and media issues of concern, highlight the findings or the media monitoring

Activity 1

Do a content analysis of media of your choice (radio, TV, newspaper or online) to demonstrate how educational issues are reported in the media.

Key questions for spotting education issues in the media's content

1. What aspects of education are covered?
2. Who is the source or who are the sources?
3. What section is the article in?
4. Are the issues adequately covered?
5. Prepare a fact sheet or report on your findings.

Activity 2

Why is media monitoring important in covering educational issues?
Develop a feature story using any media of your choice.

Case Study

Global Media Monitoring Project – GMMP

The Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) is the world's most extensive and significant global research on gender in news media. Organized by the World Association for Christian Communication (WACC), it began in 1995 as a one-day study to generate a snapshot of 'who makes the news' in print and broadcast news media in over 70 countries across the world. Among the findings was that gender parity was 'a distant prospect in any region of the world. News [was] more often being presented by women but it [was] still rarely about women.

In 2000 the Second GMMP measured the extent to which women's participation in the news had changed. The picture had remained static: women were found to be just 18% (up from 17% in 1995) of news subjects and men 82% (down from 83%), a statistically insignificant change over the 5-year period.

The Third GMMP in 2005 found that only 21% of people who are interviewed or whom the news is about are female. Even in stories that affect women profoundly such as gender-based violence, it is the male voice (65% of news subjects) that prevails. Expert opinion in the news is overwhelmingly male.

The preliminary report of the Fourth Global Media Monitoring Project, done on November 10, 2009, is a snapshot of news media representation and portrayal of women and men around the world based on a sample of 42 out of the 130 participating countries. According to 'Who Makes the News?', the 2010 GMMP preliminary results show that although there is still a long way to go, change is gaining speed. 'What is needed now', the report states, 'is continued active concern, and concerted dialogue and action by advocates for the advancement of women, civil society groups concerned with human development, media users, media professionals, media decision makers and owners, media training institutions, and where appropriate and relevant, public decision makers.'

Preliminary Findings

- ❖ Women constitute less than a quarter of those interviewed, heard, seen or read about in mainstream broadcast and print news.
- ❖ Initial results suggest a rise from 17% in the first GMMP in 1995 to 24% of stories including women, still far from the desired 50%. However, the authors of the study do acknowledge that there is some semblance of progress as compared to the 1995 to 2000 period when the figure stagnated.
- ❖ News stories by female reporters rose from 29% to 35%.
- ❖ Only 11% of stories in Africa and Asia each, 4% in the Caribbean and Latin America and 1% in the Pacific make mention of such instruments. This supports observations by gender and communication groups on the relative invisibility of human rights and specifically women's human rights in mainstream media content.
- ❖ Only 1.3 % of the stories were on gender, 0.3% on women's economic participation, 1.2% on poverty and 0.9% on peace related issues. When it came to topics to which the media give priority in their news agenda, the socio-political and economic sphere, the numbers of women interviewed or who were the subject of the story was worryingly low. Women as subjects in matters of economy increased marginally from 20% to 21%, while in the area of politics and government from 14% to 18%.
- ❖ In Africa, stories are almost 16 times more likely to reinforce than to challenge stereotypes. Scrutiny at the statistics reveals that stories by female reporters are less likely to reinforce and twice as likely to challenge stereotypes as stories by male reporters.
- ❖ Women are five times as likely as men to be portrayed in their roles as wives, mothers, etc. 19% of women appearing in the news are identified by their family status as compared to 4% of men in the news. Portraying women in their gender roles denies their identities as individuals, eroding gains made by women in securing positions of authority and responsibility in life outside the home.

Conclusion

Unit 1 examined the the process of media monitoring, the types of Media monitoring and their benefits. Unit 2 dealt with the uses of content analysis, audience research, Focus Group discussions (FGDs) and provided tips on how to present media monitoring findings.

Supporting Materials

1. Newspaper articles
2. Radio programmes
3. TV programme
4. Websites
5. Case studies

References

1. WHO makes the news? Global Media Monitoring Project 2010, Preliminary report, 2010. WACC 2010.
2. S. Milivojevic, Media Monitoring Manual, Media Diversity Institute & Samizdat B92, 2003.
3. Getting Smart – Strategic Communications for Gender Activists in Southern Africa, Colleen Lowe Morna and Lene Overland, editors, published by Gender Links and Women’s Media Watch, 2002.
4. Whose Perspective? A guide to gender-sensitive analysis of the media, Women’s Media Watch Jamaica, 1998.
5. My views on the news! The Southern African Gender and Media Audience Study Conducted by Gender Links (GL), in 2004 and 2005.
6. Gender and Media Audit in West Africa conducted by FAMEDEV, the Inter Africa Network on Women, media, gender and development and IFJ, the International Federation of Journalists, Africa office, in 2006.

Module 31

Training and Skills Development

Overview

Acquisition of knowledge for development requires continuous education and training, hence the importance of skill training for the development of journalists and media practitioners. Module examines various channels and opportunities for anyone who seeks an entry into journalism.

General Objective

At the end of the module the user will know about opportunities for training as a journalist and also appreciate the importance of apprenticeship and mentoring as well as practical experience in the pursuit of a successful career in journalism.

Specific Objective

To enable the user know about opportunities in journalism education and channels for continuing education in journalism at media houses and beyond.

Expected Outcome

At the end of module, the user will have a deeper knowledge and understanding about journalism education and other existing channels for continuing education for a successful career in journalism.

Introduction

Module 31 is divided into 2 units. Unit 1 of this module examines opportunities in formal training for those who seek a career in journalism. It also looks at on-the-job training, mentoring and other programmes that help journalists to become more professional. Unit 2 discusses areas of specialization in journalism and highlights a new development-Citizen Journalism where non-journalists contribute to the media.

What is Journalism?

Journalism has been described differently. To some journalism is a profession like medicine or law where only those who have had years of formal training in a school of journalism and have been awarded appropriate certificates qualify to be described as journalists. But to another school of thought, journalism is a vocation where the skills of the profession can be picked on the job.

Journalism is unlike many professions in so far as it does not necessarily follow the strict procedures for the training and qualification of other professions like medicine and law. There are both formal and informal channels for the education of journalists.

Unit 1

Formal Training and Qualifications in Journalism

Although the first formal programme in journalism is reported to have been established in the United States in the 1860s, its spread to other countries was very slow. One of the first journalism schools in Africa South of the Sahara, the Ghana Institute of Journalism (GIJ), was established in 1958 but today there are hundreds of journalism schools and departments of journalism and communication in Africa and over 1500 in the world teaching theories of communication, journalism skills and specialised courses in journalism.

Programmes offered at these institutions either lead to the award of diploma certificate and postgraduate diplomas, masters degrees and doctoral degrees. Most doctoral students go into teaching and research. The advantage of the formal training in journalism and communication is that, it introduces the student to the theory and practice of journalism and in many instances also offers the student a strong background in the liberal arts.

Many postgraduate journalism courses in some universities deliberately target students with backgrounds in the arts, humanities and the sciences for a career in journalism and communication. Entry requirements vary from country to country but generally diploma and undergraduate programmes are open to high school or secondary products whilst postgraduate courses are open to those who already have degrees. With the advancement and spread of education in many African countries today and the existence of opportunities for formal training in journalism and related subjects, the best advice for those who seek careers in journalism and communication is to have this basic formal training.

Several universities offer distance learning or online journalism education programmes. It is pertinent to state here that apart from introducing the student to the theory and practice of journalism, Institutes and Universities which offer journalism as a course most importantly have diverse courses in specialization and special interests—courses in investigative journalism, new media (ICT), financial reporting as well as optional courses in advertising, public relations, communications research, print media and electronic media (radio and television) among others.

On the Job Training

Many entrants to journalism these days go directly from Schools of Journalism and Departments of Communication Studies at Universities to media houses. But the very first generation of African journalists who did not have the benefit of formal training learnt journalism on the job. Many rose through the ranks to higher positions as editors and producers. The tradition has not changed significantly as some contemporary journalists take the same path of learning and perfecting basic principles and skills of the profession on the job.

A beginner may start as a messenger and with time taken through various departments of a news room and in the process gain proficiency in reporting and editing for the print media, and presentation of programmes on radio and television. There is the case of an African journalist working in the BBC World Service who picked basic rudiments in reporting for radio on a local FM station in his country. One of his early jobs was to monitor traffic situations and report on them. It is not only beginners who benefit from on-the-job training. Even new staff at media organizations who have formal training and certificates must go through the same process since perfection of reporting and writing skills take place in practice in the news room. This category of journalists may have had periods of internship as part of their education at news organization but must still learn on the job since knowledge of theory learnt in schools is not enough.

Most media houses have house styles that can only be learnt through practice and perfection on the job. There are several methods and means that are used to improve the proficiency of new staff or beginners in journalism in the field of journalism in the following areas:

- ❖ **The Newsroom** - The news room may be described as the engine room of a news organization, print or electronic media. It is where the news is gathered, processed and disseminated to the public. A news room consists of several

departments or units; news desk, features desk, sports desk, foreign desk, gender desk, arts and entertainment desk, editing section, photo section etc. The various departments or sections contribute to the production of the news that is presented to the public. Accordingly one can learn aspects of journalism wherever one is assigned to. Heads of sections and other more experienced journalists correct and edit the work of beginners and in the process expose them to the fundamentals of journalism

- ❖ **In-House Training** - Some media houses, particularly big ones recognise the need to improve the proficiency of their staff and introduce them to their unique style of reporting, values and ethics and establish training sessions for their staff, both new and old.
- ❖ **Refresher/Advanced Courses** - Journalism is a dynamic profession which is subject to new ideas and developments. There are many short courses for practicing journalists abroad and within African countries. Many journalists associations, national, regional, and international media and development organisations organise seminars, training programmes and conferences aimed at broadening the professional and intellectual horizon of practicing journalists. Sometimes upcoming training events are put online by institutions and organizations. Many of such mid-career programmes for journalists are for free when one's application is successful. Refresher courses help the journalists to keep with new developments in the profession.
- ❖ **Mentoring** - One of the best ways to improve proficiency in journalism is to develop a mentoring relationship with persons who are more experienced. There must therefore be an informal system in the news room whereby more experienced journalists pass on knowledge and skills to new staff. It is similar to the process whereby apprentices in any profession become masters in their own right. The rapid turn-over rates which have seen many experienced journalists leaving the profession for other fields has deprived journalism of experienced mentors but mentorship is very relevant to the training of journalists.
- ❖ **Role of Associations of Journalists** - Membership of professional associations helps any professional to improve skills and knowledge. There are at the national, sub-regional and continental levels professional journalists associations and other bodies that promote and defend press freedom, access to information and the rights of media workers and journalists. These bodies hold conferences and seminars on photojournalism, ethics, investigative journalism and related

subjects and have publications which are useful to practitioners. The same educational role is played by national associations of journalists. Some associations hold annual awards ceremonies to recognize and reward outstanding journalists. Membership of such associations can richly help a journalist to become a better practitioner. Some national associations have established Press Centres or Maison de la Presse where they offer online and library facilities for their members.

- ❖ **Exchange Programmes** - News organizations enter into agreements under which journalists from the two organizations spend weeks or months at each other's media. Journalists have also had extra professional training through attachment programmes with other media organizations both within and outside their countries.

Unit 2

Areas of Specialization

Journalism is so broad and dynamic a profession that there are many areas for specialization. A media practitioner must therefore depending on his or her interest or schedule acquire some training and skills development in specific areas.

- ❖ **Print, Radio and Television Journalism** - There is the possibility for students after their general introduction to journalism in their first or second year to decide to specialise in either print media journalism or radio and television broadcasting.
- ❖ **Economic/Financial Reporting** - To become a financial or economic reporter one must have a strong background and knowledge in economics. As a specialised area of reporting dealing often with budgets, statistics and complex documents, the financial journalist must first of all understand the issues before she or he can report or write effectively and meaningfully on the subject. Some Universities run full courses or refresher courses on financial journalism. There are associations of financial journalists who also organize courses for their members. There are also instances where NGOs and Stock Exchanges organise similar seminars and workshops.
- ❖ **Investigative Journalism** - It is a form of reporting in which the reporter does in-depth investigation into an issue, sometimes for weeks and months before publishing the findings of the investigation. It is taught at schools of journalism

as an option. There are also several associations of investigative journalists who organise workshops and conferences on the subject.

- ❖ **Photojournalism** - Journalism combines both writing and visuals to tell the story. Photojournalism is therefore a popular field that must be specialised in, and is offered in many schools of journalism and film schools. It may also be learnt on the job and membership of professional associations of photo-journalists.
- ❖ **Gender Issues** - With the elevation of gender issues to the forefront in global affairs, many media houses and journalists have recognized the importance of gender in news coverage. Specialisation in this field has thus become necessary for interested journalists.
- ❖ **Online Journalism** - Many news organizations have online editions and websites through which they disseminate the news. These editions are not only reproductions of hard copies but sometimes modified to suit the medium and are produced by journalists. It is a new field that requires a journalist to acquire proficiency in ICT.
- ❖ **Citizen Journalism** - One of the most interesting developments in the media in recent years is the use of new media by ordinary citizens, readers and viewers to send stories and pictures to the media. Traditionally members of the public have expressed their concerns by writing letters to the print media but both national and international broadcasting stations encourage the public to go beyond mere writing of letters to report events in their immediate environment which they believe the public would like to know about. Many have responded enthusiastically to this appeal using their mobile phones and the Internet to send texts and photos to the media. The participation by the public in the media has led to the advent of a new field-Citizen Journalism.

Some members of the public in the exercise of the fundamental right of expression are writing longer articles to the media. No formal training in journalism is required as such for exercising this right but members of the public who wish to contribute to any media may be guided by these tips:

- ❖ Have an idea about the general focus of media-It is important to have an idea about the policy of a publication and its areas of interest. Such knowledge would help a citizen journalist to select which particular media would most likely publish one's article or contribution. For instance, the submission of an article on sports to a publication that is devoted to religious or environmental issues may never see the light of day.
- ❖ Ensure that the subject of your contribution will be of public interest.
- ❖ If it is a story make it as short as possible and use simple flowing language.
- ❖ Establish some contact with the editor or somebody at the news organization. For example it may prove helpful to know which editor is responsible for educational issues if that is your area of concern or interest. Having such a contact will also give you some indication about when to send articles, deadlines for publication, length of articles, format for sending photographs and videos.

Activity 1

Is Journalism a profession or a vocation? Should only journalists who have had formal training be the only ones allowed to practise as such? Examine these questions either individually or in a group discussion.

Conclusion

By providing information about opportunities for training in journalism and areas of specialisation, module 31 has shown the way for anybody who seeks a career in journalism. Tips for non-journalists or members of the general public to contribute to media are also discussed.

Supporting Materials

1. Newspaper articles
2. Radio programmes
3. TV programme
4. Websites
5. Case studies

Further Reading

1. Prof Guy Berger & Corinne Matras **In association with:** School of Journalism & Media Studies, Rhodes University, South Africa & École supérieure de journalisme de Lille (ESJ), France, *UNESCO's Series on Journalism Education Criteria and Indicators for Quality Journalism Training Institutions & Identifying Potential Centres of Excellence in Journalism Training in Africa*, UNESCO, 2007
2. Nordenstreng K & Kwame Boafo S. T. (1988): Promotion of Textbooks for the Training of Journalists in Anglophone Africa: Final Report of an IPDC Project. Available online: <http://www.uta.fi/textbooks/annex5.html>
3. Akinfeleye, R. A. (2003): Fourth Estate of the Realm or Fourth Estate of the Wreck? Imperative of Social Responsibility of the Press. Inaugural lecture, University of Lagos, 14th May 2003.

References

1. BBC-World Service Trust (2007): African Media Development Initiative Research Reports. Available online: http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/trust/specials/1552_trust_amdi/page9.shtml
2. Stiles Associates Inc (2007): A Review of UNESCO's Capacity-Building Function. Internal Oversight Service, Evaluation Section, IOS/EVS/PI/71
3. UN Economic Commission for Africa (2006): Strengthening Africa's Media Reports (STREAM). Available online: <http://www.uneca.org/africanmedia/>
4. UNESCO (2005): Experts Consultative Meeting on Journalism Education Report. Available online: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001469/146937e.pdf>.

Section 7

Advocacy and Social Mobilization







Module 32

Advocacy for Education and Development

Overview

Advocacy is a concept that is utilised to effect a desirable change in society's development programmes and projects. Civil society groups and NGO's as well as development agencies apply advocacy campaigns to gain support both in cash and in kind to institute action development programmes in the educational sector. The educational systems in many African countries are confronted with many challenges, which include infrastructural problems, low admission high drop out rates, low retention, inadequate resources to revamp the sector, low human resources and capacities.

It is recognised that advocacy has a key role to play in soliciting for support to review policies, that are not working well for the sector and to replace it with action-oriented ones that would revolutionalise the entire educational system, to achieve the "Education for All" and the Millennium development goals. Advocacy has a special role to play in the transformation process of change hence its importance to the media.

General Objective

To equip users to develop advocacy skills to influence change in policies to improve the educational sector.

Specific Objectives

Specific objectives are to enable user to:

- ❖ understand the concept of advocacy.
- ❖ organize advocacy campaigns to influence new directives in the educational sector;
- ❖ influence policies which will boost up initiatives in the educational sector;
- ❖ build strong support and alliances for the educational sector.

Introduction

Module 32 is divided into 2 Units. Unit I will discuss some definitions on the concept advocacy, some characteristics, and highlight some important steps for an advocacy process and key issues for planning an advocacy campaign. Unit II examines strategies in advocacy, importance of timing and the importance of building alliances for advocacy.

Expected Outcome

The user would gain the confidence and competency in advocacy to influence change in education.

Unit 1

Key Issues in Advocacy

What is Advocacy?

Like other concepts that have been covered in the training tool kit, advocacy has been defined differently by some authorities in this area. We shall examine two of these definitions.

The Centre for African Family Studies (CAFS) — defines advocacy as:

“a set of coherent activities carried out by a group, an individual or community in any domain of public interest in order to initiate, to change or to ensure the establishment or implementation of policies, laws, procedures, norms, beliefs, programmes, in a way desired by an individual, or a community, which is undertaking the activities.”

The Centre for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA)—provides another definition which sees:

“Advocacy is a process through which issues are addressed by constructive communication with policy makers and other stakeholders to bring about (change, adapt, modify) in policies, laws and programmes.”

Characteristics of Advocacy

From the two definitions, it is clear that advocacy is often directed at influencing policies, laws, regulations, programmes, or funding among others. Furthermore, advocacy is also strategic and always targets well designed activities to key stakeholders and decision-makers/policy makers. It always campaigns with some targeted actions in support of a cause or issues build support for the cause or issue and influence others to support it for a positive change which could be changed in legislation, a review of a policy or programme that would enhance existing situation.

Key Steps in Advocacy

In order to be successful, certain key steps must be taken to ensure an effective advocacy process.

- ❖ Identify the issue or problem and state them clearly stated for easy understanding;

Set an advocacy goal within a time frame-short term, medium and long term backed by a “Smart” objective which must be;

- ❖ Specific
- ❖ Measurable
- ❖ Time-bound
- ❖ Realistic and
- ❖ Achievable

- ❖ Identify key policy audience, target and decision-makers who have the authority and power to take the expected decision to effect the change being envisaged;
- ❖ Develop an advocacy message to suit the specific target;
- ❖ Select the appropriate communication channels to deliver the message. Several media channels could be selected if found viable;
- ❖ Build a strong alliance and seek support from people who are familiar with the target.
- ❖ Fund-raising and resource mobilization mechanism would have to be put in place to support the campaign since without adequate resources nothing much can be achieved;
- ❖ After having satisfied yourself that everything is on course, you can start the implementation process.
- ❖ Monitor and evaluate all activities regularly. Document and publicise success stories for others to emulate.

Key Principles for Planning an Advocacy Campaign

- ❖ The first thing which must be done is to identify the problem;
- ❖ Conduct research to identify causes of the problem, collect concrete data which will help to find solutions.
- ❖ Creating awareness about the identified problem.

Activity 1

Identify a problem in your community and write an article that could bring a solution.

Stakeholders and Advocacy

For change to take place in education, key stakeholders in the sector must be identified since nothing much can be achieved without their support. They include the following:

- ❖ **The Key Stakeholders:** who have the power to bring about change but will need to be persuaded to act, for e.g. Ministers of Education, Cabinet Ministers, Director-Generals of Ministries in charge of Education.
- ❖ **Secondary Stakeholders:** this may include civil society groups that deal with educational issues, such as, education coalition groups which fortunately all African countries have.
- ❖ **Primary Stakeholders:** These include people who will benefit directly and indirectly from the changes being advocated for.

Note that you will need to study very well the various environments in which the campaign will be organized. You also have to take time to think seriously how you will work with and influence each stakeholder. With perseverance your chances of success would be brighter.

Key Messages and Media Mix

Language and Packaging

In advocacy campaigns, language use must be simple to allow room for easy understanding of message. At this juncture, one may ask, “What are the key messages and media mix that you need to communicate to each group of stakeholders to bring about the desired change.

The message packaging is very crucial such that, it is important to have a firm grip on appropriate packaging of messages for specific target stakeholders.

Advocacy Approaches and Tactics

Having gone through the various steps that should be taken to effect a change, let us now examine some approaches that could be adopted for the advocacy process.

Approaches

- ❖ **Sensitization of Stakeholders:** This could be done through seminars or a workshops, during which the key stakeholders could have some face to face interactions with communication officers and other media practitioners. There could be press releases on key issues that need some reviewed policy directives.
- ❖ **Community and Social mobilization:** The entire community is mobilized to tap both, human and material resources.
- ❖ **Working with the Media:** This is one of the most important areas. It is through the Media that a large section of the population will get the message. Different media will have to be used to satisfy all target stakeholders.
- ❖ **Partnership building, alliance, coalition building as well as Networking** should be adopted for use.

Unit 2

Advocacy for Effective Change

Tactics

For any advocacy campaign to succeed there must be appropriate strategies and these should include the following:

- ❖ *Dialoguing*
- ❖ *Debating*
- ❖ *Social demonstration*
- ❖ *Petitioning*
- ❖ *Lobbying*
- ❖ *Pressurizing*
- ❖ *Testimonies and*
- ❖ *Press conferences*

Significance of Timing

- ❖ Timing for campaign is very crucial and must be done appropriately.
- ❖ What will be the timing/work plan for your advocacy strategy/campaign?
- ❖ What are the key dates/occasions for release of messages and materials?
- ❖ It's useful to do a timeline when planning your strategy so that, deadlines are met and tasks distributed in a fair and effective manner.
- ❖ National, regional or international commemorations may serve as useful occasions/opportunity to release and distribute advocacy materials.

Essential Ingredients for Advocacy

- ❖ What system of documentation will you use to capture the process and the results?
- ❖ How much will you need to budget for your advocacy strategy and what skills and expertise are necessary?
- ❖ Resource mobilization especially the use of the private sector.
- ❖ Networking and partnership to share information so that other partners can learn from the experience and establish meaningful collaboration and promote best practices.

Building Strategic Alliances for Sustainability

- ❖ How will you ensure sustainability of your advocacy strategy?
- ❖ If you have successfully brought about changes you need to think about how to ensure that these continue, once the original enthusiasm/conviction has died down. You will need to sustain the intervention by maintaining your strategic alliance group by having regular networking activities. This move will keep the alliance intact. .

Activity 1

Write an article of a successful advocacy campaign that could be emulated by others.

Conclusion

The fight for an improvement in the educational systems of African countries cannot be achieved as an exclusive venture. It will take the collective effort of all important stakeholders to bring the expected changes. Advocacy is one of the important tools that should be used to facilitate the process.

References

1. Andreas Pekarek and Peter Gaham (2008) WERRC. Work & Employment Rights Research Centre. From Resource Mobilization to Strategic Capacity.
2. Popline (2009) Social Mobilization and Social Marketing in developing communities; Lessons for communities.

Module 33

Social Mobilisation and Development

Overview

In any development activity, one needs the efforts of all and sundry to effect a meaningful change in the development process. As such, it is important to get all stakeholders involved and committed to the development. The educational sector which serves as the nerve centre of development needs the full support of all. This is where social mobilisation becomes important.

It is important to mobilise both material and human resources by which expertise is tapped for use. Community participation becomes very crucial because the communities would be the beneficiaries and owners of the development activity. Social mobilisation is needed to bring a desirable change in the educational system.

General Objective

To equip the user with the skills for social mobilisation.

Specific Objectives

To enable the user to:

- ❖ Understand the rudiments of social mobilisation
- ❖ Strengthen their competency skills in social mobilisation
- ❖ Identify key stakeholders involved in social mobilisation;

Expected Outcome

The user will be in a better position to engage in social mobilisation and establish strategic alliance to promote Education for development.

Introduction

Development agencies, civil society groups, and community leaders have recognised the importance of social mobilisation for sustainable development. The educational sector in Africa needs reforms to accelerate the process being envisaged in the sector. To achieve success would require the participation of all stakeholders. It is in the light of this that media practitioners, communicators and other stakeholders in the field of education would need to use social mobilization as one of their strategies to reach the general populace in their various countries.

Module 33 is divided into three units. Unit 1 defines social mobilisation, key steps that need to be taken, and strategies for social mobilization. Unit 2 tackles the importance of Research, Stakeholders in Education, Community participation and the steps needed for participation as well as and the Building of Partnerships alliances and Networking. Unit 3 focuses on Mobilization, Implementation, Monitoring as well as Evaluation.

Unit 1

Social Mobilization, Steps and Strategies

Development agencies have recognised the need to partner with key stakeholders to carry out development activities to foster sustainable development for both the living and the yet unborn. The educational system in many African countries is faced with numerous challenges that state governments alone are in a sound position to shoulder it all.

The importance of social mobilization where people centered approach to development becomes crucial.

What is Social Mobilisation?

The united Nations children’s Fund , UNICEF defines social mobilisation as :

- ❖ “a broad scale movement to engage people’s participation in achieving a specific development goal through self-reliant efforts. It involves all relevant segments of society: decision and policy makers, opinion leaders, bureaucrats and technocrats, professional groups, religious associations, commerce and industry, communities and individuals.
- ❖ It is a planned decentralized process that seeks to facilitate change for development through a range of players engaged in interrelated and complementary efforts.
- ❖ It takes into account the felt needs of the people, embraces the critical principle of community involvement, and seeks to empower individuals and groups for action.”

This definition underscores the importance of total community participation for the success of any programme.

The Process of Social Mobilisation

- ❖ A key element in social mobilization is dialogue with key stakeholders and partnership with a wide spectrum of people with unique characteristics that could meaningfully support the change process.
- ❖ Policy-makers become important at this level, where the need for supportive framework for decision-making and resource allocation becomes important.
- ❖ The solidarity of bureaucrats and technocrats and a broad alliance of partners among various non-governmental groups are equally critical for the attainment of any change-oriented development goal.

Who are the Key Targets (stakeholders) for Effective Social Mobilisation:

Who are Stakeholders?

Stakeholders are people who are engaged in the change process for development. They comprise:

- ❖ Policy-makers,
- ❖ Implementers,
- ❖ Community members,
- ❖ Traditional and opinion leaders
- ❖ Political groups,
- ❖ Non-governmental
- ❖ Civil society groups
- ❖ Bureaucrats/Technocrats;
- ❖ Workers and Technical experts;
- ❖ Households and Individuals;
- ❖ Faith-based organisation

Critical Issues in Social Mobilisation

- ❖ Helping people to organize themselves;
- ❖ Harnessing people's potential to help themselves;
- ❖ Identifying true and genuine activists;

- ❖ Training and capacity building of target groups to understand issues and participate in the process of development activities;
- ❖ Identifying and prioritizing what people are willing to undertake in terms of opportunities and not demands;
- ❖ Undertaking feasibility studies to assess available opportunities and unexpected barriers;
- ❖ Taking action to effect desired change;
- ❖ Ensuring sustainability through regular monitoring and evaluation

Activity 1

Identify two key stakeholders you can work with in an imagined social mobilisation programme

Unit 2

Research and Community Participation

What is Research?

Research can be defined as a search for knowledge or any systematic investigation to establish facts.

Research in Social Mobilisation

Education advocates cannot embark on an effective social mobilization without conducting research or a baseline study. Through the research, a “Needs Assessment” is conducted to acquire information on the environment where the education project or programme would be carried out.

The Needs Assessment exercise would involve a participatory approach which offers opportunity for a close, face to face interaction with the target population.

Through the participatory process, a rapport is established to prepare the people for a smooth take off of the activity. Major problems, available resources, and required resources and the capacity of stakeholders in problem solving can also be identified.

Preparing Plan of Action

With the participatory approach, key problems in the education system can be identified. Prioritization of important problems should be done by identifying the following:

- ❖ Areas of focus during Needs Assessment for mobilization;
- ❖ Number of existing schools and their state;
- ❖ Number of potential learners and their age groups;
- ❖ The number of trained teachers available;
- ❖ The behavior patterns towards education, including the education of the girl-child;
- ❖ Leaders and social groups;
- ❖ Existing resources and additional resources that would be needed;
- ❖ Roles and responsibilities of stakeholders and finally
- ❖ Timeframe within which responsibilities should be carried out.

Community Participation

What is Community Participation?

Community participation can be defined as the active involvement of people in a community in projects to solve their own problems. Community participation in development shows different people of all walks of life are mobilised to participate in educational development activities. Through participation, people are made aware of their needs (real, felt and expressed needs) and their roles and responsibilities in working towards solutions in fulfilling their needs. Through this process their confidence is built.

Community participation in projects needs a sense of ownership and that helps in sustaining projects. Thus, educational structures that are established are collectively owned by the people and therefore their maintenance becomes easy.

Levels of Community Participation

Needs Assessment: At this stage the idea of a project is introduced for the community to express their views and opinions.

Planning: Once a consensus is agreed upon then the planning starts. Many things are considered at this stage such as the role of stakeholders, available resources, contribution of the community both in cash and in kind. Project objectives and implementation processes are established.

Mobilising: To ensure success the entire community must be made aware of the project through traditional means if communication and the media.

Capacity building and training: This is a stage where the capacity and skills of members of the community are enhanced through training to ensure effective participation.

Implementing: Depending on the nature of the project, members of the community contribute directly or indirectly to the project in cash or in kind.

Monitoring and evaluation: this level allows the community to assess the level of progress of the project and their set objectives. A success story of achievements could lead to other initiatives for development.

It is important to ensure community participation at all levels. The people's views must be respected. It is noted that some Supply-Driven educational projects have not been sustainable whereas Demand-Driven Development projects are often decided by the people, who assist in mobilizing resources for development.

Activity 2

Write a story on the level of community participation in projects in your area using media of your choice

Unit 3

Resource Mobilization, Monitoring and Evaluation

What is Resource Mobilisation?

[Kendall 2006] defines resource mobilisation as : the ability of movement's members to acquire resources and to mobilise people towards the furtherance of their goals.

Why the Need for Resource Mobilization

- ❖ It helps to set development process in motion;
- ❖ It encourages people to provide information;
- ❖ Experts are identified; and
- ❖ Experiences are shared.

There is a great need for Resource Mobilization to support development activities in the educational sector. After resources have been fully acquired the implementation and monitoring as well as evaluation for effective management to make room for sustainability become imminent

Resource Mobilization

What is Resource Mobilization?

Resource mobilisation entails the identification of inputs, logistics and human capital for implementation of projects.

In the process experts for both projects and programmes are identified to tap their knowledge and expertise.

Benefits of Resource Mobilization

- ❖ People are encouraged to provide information. Partners may share their views and opinions with beneficiaries.
- ❖ Inventory could be taken to assess capacities that are needed for a smooth take off of the programme or project.
- ❖ There is the need to tap different repertoires for collective action to enhance development.
- ❖ Resources mobilised should however be well managed and accounted for.

Monitoring and Evaluation

What is Monitoring and Evaluation?

The concept of monitoring is a routine gathering of information about aspects of a programme or a project. Under monitoring, a systematic check is carried out on the project being undertaken, bearing in mind the objectives of the project.

There are varied educational programmes and projects that are being run in many African countries to improve the overall educational system. Once implementation takes off, mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation have to be established to assess the progress being made.

Importance of Monitoring a Project or Programme

- ❖ Through systematic monitoring, data is collected on the activities being carried out throughout the project life cycle, to find out if the desired outcome is being generated.
- ❖ Monitoring serves as an auditing mechanism, out of which corrections could be made during project implementation.
- ❖ Monitoring helps to ensure that project remains on its course, and are following procedures according to plan.

- ❖ It helps project/programme implementers to put in corrective measures when mistakes are detected.
- ❖ It helps programme managers to be aware of challenges and other constraints that may be impeding the smooth running of projects.
- ❖ Programme managers may institute new measures to remove the constraints and challenges.
- ❖ Monitoring when carried out systematically allows step-by-step measuring of steady progress being made.

Evaluation

What is Evaluation?

Mason & Bramble, 1997, says:

“It is the process of determining the value of a phenomenon, a project or a programme to determine whether the project, or procedure to determine, whether the project, objective or approach is adequate and worth pursuing”.

Smith, 1995 says:

“Evaluation is commonly regarded as the assessment of the effectiveness of a social programme which has been designed to address a social problem as well as its implementation”.

It is clear that evaluation determines the extent to which the desired objective of a programme being undertaken has been met. It is also an attempt to determine the amount of desirable changes that have occurred as a result of a programme that is taking place.

Through evaluation, implementers could get information required to form the basis for judging the value or quality of a programme.

Evaluation Indicators

Indicators could be categorized into two main groups, Outcome-based and Impact-based.

Outcome-Based Evaluation could be conducted to collect information for instance on a school health programme in a deprived African community by measuring the changes that have occurred on pupils and their attitude.

Impact-Based Evaluation could be conducted to determine the impact of an intervention on the attitude of parents on the education of the girl-child in a community where early marriage among girls is highly prevalent. Video could be shown.

Outcome-based and Impact-based evaluations are indicators that media practitioners can use to bring a change in the educational systems of African countries.

Activity 3

Monitor and evaluate a school project in your community and write a story using media of your choice.

Conclusion

Social mobilisation is a key component of development. It is inextricably linked to research, resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation. If well and effectively conducted, it could contribute to the sustained development of projects and programmes in the education sector in Africa.

References

1. Adjei, F. G. (2008) Evaluation Research Meaning, Functions and Methods. Woeli Publishing Services, Ghana.
2. Kendall 2006 Resource Mobilisation-Wikipedia April 20th, 2010.
3. Mason, E. & Bromble, W. J. (1997) Research in Education and the Behavioural Science Concepts and Methods: Brown and Benchmark Publishers.
4. UNESCO – Dhaka Absamia Missio (2001) Training Manual on Community Participation and Social Mobilization in Basic Education.

Module 34

The Role of The Media in Advocacy and Social Mobilization

Overview

The media is recognised as the 4th Estate of the realm. This recognition alongside the other three pillars of democracy, the executive, legislature and the judiciary is an acceptance of the important role the media play in society. As the main channel through which information reaches the public, the media have the potential to influence policy, attitudes, behaviours and ultimately change society. Consequently, it remains one of the best tools in advocacy and social mobilization.

General Objective

The general objective of module 34 is to examine the agenda setting role of the media and how the media can be effectively used in advocacy and social mobilization to promote the goals of education and development.

Specific Objectives

To enable the user to:

- ❖ Discuss the functions of the media
- ❖ Examine the agenda setting role of the media and its application in advocacy and social mobilization
- ❖ Highlight specific examples of use of the media in advocacy and agenda setting.

Expected Outcome

By the end of the module the user will understand the power of the media and its potential role in advocacy and social mobilization to promote any development cause.

Introduction

Generally, the role of the media is to inform, educate and entertain. The public depends in most cases on the media for information about events in the world. Through its role as the channel and source of news, entertainment and information, the media influence the opinions, attitudes and behaviour of many people.

Module 34 is divided into 2 units and it discusses how the influence of the media can be used in advocacy and social mobilization. Unit 1 discusses the agenda setting role of the media and highlights some guidelines in effective use of the media in advocacy

and social mobilization. Unit 2 offers some case studies of successful use of the media in advocacy and social mobilization.

Unit 1

Agenda Setting

Role of the Media in Advocacy

The traditional function of the media which is to “inform, educate and entertain” enables the media to play what has been described as an “agenda setting role” through which it able to influence the views of its readers, listeners and viewers.

As the gatekeepers of news and information, the media exercise their influence by their choice of what stories to consider newsworthy and how much prominence and space to give them. An insignificant story that is published across a banner headline at the front page attracts more attention and interest than a relatively much more important story that is literally buried in the inside pages of a newspaper. The media have the power through sustained reporting of an issue followed by editorials, features and documentaries to raise an issue to great significance and by so doing influence either government policies or public opinion.

The influence of the media is seen more in politics and elections where endorsements and coverage by the media have in many instances determined winners and losers. Although corruption is endemic in many African countries, the phenomenon has in some countries become a major public issue only after the media have given prominence in coverage to corrupt practices.

A series of media campaigns against the maltreatment of albinos in Tanzania led the government to initiate actions against the perpetrators.

The well-documented coverage of the Washington Post and its two reporters, (the Watergate scandal) that led to the resignation of US President Richard Nixon is a classic example of the influence of the media.

The media with its power and influence would undoubtedly make a big difference if, and when they choose to play an advocacy role in education. For instance important educational issues such as Special Needs Education and the Girl Child Education which are not given the attention they deserve will with sustained reportage in the media become major issues.

How The Media Sets Agenda

The following are recommended tips for the media in agenda setting:

- ❖ Identify an issue or cause that must be addressed by society and government.
- ❖ Conduct research or investigation into issue
- ❖ Convince editor or head of media house about justification of the story.
- ❖ Write an article or produce documentary/news story about issue.
- ❖ Follow up with more articles/stories/documentaries.
- ❖ Write editorials on the issue
- ❖ If possible get other journalists and media houses to write about the issue.
- ❖ Monitor and evaluate progress/change in policy towards issue/issues
- ❖ Use media to publish opinions of stakeholders.
- ❖ Never give up when results are not forthcoming. Sustained coverage of issue will eventually produce results.

Activity 1

1. Identify an issue that calls for urgent attention and solution.
2. Design an action plan that will bring about the desired change.

Unit 2

The Media in Advocacy and Social Mobilization

There are many examples of media advocacy and campaigns in Africa and other parts of the world that have resulted in attitudinal and behavioral changes and most importantly influenced government policies. Public smoking is banned in many countries today thanks to media advocacy that showed the negative effect of such smoking on non-smokers.

Legal reforms in many African countries have resulted in some instances in the repeal of criminal libel laws. Media pluralism and freedom of expression on the continent have witnessed steady progress due to sustained campaign by media organizations, institutions and associations as well as human rights and other civil society groups. Even the very sustenance of good governance in some African countries has come about through the proactive role of the African media.

Both the print and electronic media in many African countries have joined fundraising campaigns to support the health needs of children, hospitals and school buildings. The levels of awareness about HIV and AIDS have been achieved through awareness campaigns in the African media.

The role of the international media such as the BBC, CNN, and RFI in mobilising resources in cash and kind to help victims of famine, earthquake, hurricane and other natural disasters in certain countries like Ethiopia, Haiti, Chile in recent years show the influence the media wield in social mobilization.

Research Paper

The role of reported tobacco-specific media exposure on adult attitudes towards proposed policies to limit the portrayal of smoking in movies

1. Kelly D Blake¹,
2. K Viswanath¹,
3. Robert J Blendon²,
4. Donna Vallone³

Author Affiliations

¹*Department of Society, Human Development, and Health, Harvard School of Public Health and Dana-Farber Cancer Institute Boston, Massachusetts, USA*

²*Department of Health Policy and Management, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts, USA*

³*American Legacy Foundation, Washington, DC, USA*

Correspondence to Dr Kelly D Blake, 44 Binney Street, MS LW703, Boston, MA 02115, USA; kellyblake@post.harvard.edu

Received 5 May 2009

Accepted 18 November 2009

Published Online First 11 December 2009

Abstract

Objective : To assess the relative, independent contribution of reported tobacco-specific media exposure (pro-tobacco advertising, anti-tobacco advertising, and news coverage of tobacco issues) to US adults' support for policy efforts that aim to regulate the portrayal of smoking in movies.

Methods : Using the American Legacy Foundation's 2003 American Smoking and Health Survey (ASHES-2), multivariable logistic regression was used to model the predicted probability that US adults support movie-specific tobacco control policies, by reported exposure to tobacco-specific media messages, controlling for smoking status, education, income, race/ethnicity, age, sex, knowledge of the negative effects of tobacco and state.

Results : Across most outcome variables under study, findings reveal that reported exposure to tobacco-specific media messages is associated with adult attitudes towards movie-specific policy measures. Most exposure to tobacco information in the media (with the exception of pro-tobacco advertising on the internet) contributes independently to the prediction of adult

support for movie-specific policies. The direction of effect follows an expected pattern, with reported exposure to anti-tobacco advertising and news coverage of to

bacco predicting supportive attitudes towards movie policies, and reported exposure to pro-tobacco advertising lessening support for some movie policies, though the medium of delivery makes a difference.

Conclusion: Media campaigns to prevent tobacco use and exposure to secondhand smoke have had value beyond the intended impact of single-issue campaigns; exposure to anti-tobacco campaigns and public dialogue about the dangers of tobacco seem also to be associated with shaping perceptions of the social world related to norms about tobacco, and ideas about regulating the portrayal of smoking in movies.

Case Study 1

Media Literacy Education

Media literacy education provides tools to help people critically analyse messages to detect biases, in news, propaganda and censorship in programmes.

In South Africa the demand for media education evolved from dismantling apartheid, which eventually ended with the 1994 democratic elections after massive advocacy campaigns.

The campaign for media literacy has yielded good results in that now it is being used for health education, with an emphasis on understanding environmental influences on health decision-making.

Case Study 2

“Smoking is not good for youth in school”

Under the media campaign “smoking is bad for students” and through media advocacy and social mobilization, tobacco control became successful. In this campaign, local leaders and community members became involved, by taking control approaches as their own. This eventually enhanced the campaign implementation process of the project, which had an achievable objective. In the end the youth realized that “smoking is not good”, and that, they should concentrate on their schooling in a more serious manner to help their future development.

Case Study 3

Journalists need to be empowered

The Inter Africa Network for Women, Media, Gender and Development (FAMEDEV) is also an example that provides training and production exercises for African women and men journalists on gender and media advocacy and HIV and AIDS. The programmes are aimed at providing practical tools and skills to enable them embark on gender and media advocacy activities, influence gender policies in their media houses and organizations and report effectively on gender, HIV and AIDS from a rights perspective.

Conclusion

These case studies have shown that advocacy and social mobilization have a major role to play in changing attitudes and behavior to bring about the expected change to accelerate the overall development in Africa.

References

1. Outario, 1997 Media Literacy Resource Guide, Ministry of Education.
2. <http://www.mediagram.ru/>
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/media-literacy>
18/07/0 Information Literacy & Media Education
<http://unesco.org/education> (18/07/09)
3. BBC World Service Trust The Role of the Media as an Agent of Change in Africa. Recommendations to the Commission for Africa (18/07/09)
4. Michael Kunczik 1992: Michael Kunczik 1992 Communication and social change, printed by Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.
5. Development and communication, printed by Friedrich Ebert Stiftung

Section 8

Resourcing in Education







Module 35

Institutions of Education

Overview

Whilst schools and colleges are the most visible agencies or institutions in the education system, there are many other institutions or actors whose actions, decisions and contributions impact on education. It is important therefore to identify some of these institutions and also examine the individual role of these agencies or institutions, their challenges and prospects.

General Objective

The general objective of module 35 is to identify and describe the various institutions which play roles in the educational process.

Specific Objectives

The specific objective of module 35 is to enable user to:

- ❖ Identify institutions of education
- ❖ Understand the specific role of such institutions
- ❖ Examine the contributions and influence of institutions of education
- ❖ Appreciate the challenges these institutions face

Expected Outcome

By the end of the module, the user will be able to identify and discuss the various institutions whose activities and decisions influence the educational system and therefore discuss their roles in the media.

Introduction

So many institutions and agencies outside the classroom play very major roles in the education of the child and the adult. Classrooms may be the most visible place where learning takes place but there are other actors whose decisions and activities contribute to the educational process. For instance at the national level, entry examinations into other stages of the educational system, from primary/middle levels to secondary and subsequently to tertiary levels are conducted by external examination boards. Similarly decisions about duration of secondary education, salaries for teachers and budgetary decisions are made by bodies outside the classroom. Module identifies such players in the educational system and their

respective contributions. Unit 1 of module defines what an institution of education is; and lists a number of institutions of education and their respective roles. Unit 2 examines the specific roles of the various institutions of education and the common challenges these institutions face.

Unit 1

What is an Institution?

The word institution has many meanings. In one instance it may refer to “structures and mechanisms of social order and cooperation governing the behavior of individuals within a human collectivity”. (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Institution). The institution of marriage falls under this usage of the word.

The definition of institution for the purpose of this module is the one that defines an institution as “an organisation founded and united for a purpose”; an “established organization, especially one dedicated to public service, culture or the care of the destitute”.

Accordingly an institution of education can be described as an organization, agency or department established purposely to contribute to the educational system.

They are varied and many and include the following:

- ❖ Formal learning centres or schools-nurseries, kindergartens, primary and middle schools, secondary schools, universities, vocational schools, polytechnics, long distance learning centres, ICT centres etc.
- ❖ Ministries of Education
- ❖ Departments of Education
- ❖ Accreditation Boards
- ❖ Examination Boards
- ❖ Management Boards and University Councils
- ❖ Research Institutions
- ❖ Think Tanks
- ❖ Parent Teacher Associations
- ❖ Educational Foundations
- ❖ Libraries and Museums
- ❖ Alumni Associations
- ❖ Teachers Associations
- ❖ Non-governmental organizations
- ❖ International Organisations

Whilst all these institutions and many more have specific goals and undertake varied activities they all collectively influence the educational process.

Activity 1

Identify the types of institutions of education that exist in your country and in your community and examine their influence on the educational system.

Unit 2

Functions of Institutions of Education

Each and every institution of education is established for a specific purpose. Some institutions of education are established by governments or the state and are supported by national budgets. Some institutions of education are private initiatives which nevertheless contribute to the quality of education. Unit discusses these roles.

- ❖ **Formal Learning Centres or Schools** - It is at the various levels of the educational system, nursery, and kindergarten, primary, secondary and tertiary levels that teaching takes place. The school system thus forms the cradle of the educational sector. In this regard the role of the teacher is very paramount since teachers are the centre around which knowledge is imparted. With growing populations of school going children in many African countries and the failure of school facilities to match the former, the pressure is on governments to invest more in education. The issue has been partially addressed by the emergence of many private schools at the various levels.
- ❖ **Ministries of Education** - As a major institution of education found in every country, the Ministry of Education as part of Government set up to oversee and supervise the educational system plays a very major role in the education system. All major policies on education including government subvention, remuneration of teachers, duration of a school system etc are under the purview of the Ministry of Education of every country which works through related departments of education to implement policy. Ministers of Education are ranked very high in many governments in Africa.
- ❖ **Departments of Education** -The day-to-day management of the educational sector is in many African countries the responsibility of departments which among other things supervise the recruitment and posting of teachers, curriculum development, infrastructure development and inspection of schools and the work of teachers. In some African countries such departments are called educational services. Such departments operate at both the national and regional or provincial levels. Departments of Education advise governments on educational issues and implement government policies and programmes for education. Government-established departments of education are responsible for the management of all state-owned institutions and have oversight responsibilities for private schools.

- ❖ **Accreditation Boards** - Accreditation Boards are responsible for the granting of permissions for the establishment of schools particularly at the tertiary level. Accreditation ensures quality education through its monitoring and evaluation of standards in both state-owned and private institutions. Permission to operate schools is granted when an applicant to establish a school meets national standards set by the Accreditation Board.
- ❖ **Regional/National Examination Boards** -They are responsible for the conduct and marking of examinations, particularly those end-of school examinations which are used to determine and select candidates for entry into secondary schools and tertiary institutions. The four English speaking West African Countries, Ghana, Nigeria, Gambia and Sierra Leone, for example have established the West African Examination Council which conducts examinations in the four countries for middle school and secondary school students. Such boards ensure standards and quality as well as fairness and equity in the educational system.
- ❖ **Governing Boards and University Councils** - To assist the management boards of tertiary institutions in their work, Governing Boards and Councils, often made up of representatives of departments of education, alumni associations, and prominent personalities are established. These boards advise on major policies and programmes of the school.
- ❖ **Research Institutions and Think Tanks** -The education system depends on research into science, technology and the arts for its advancement. The work of regional and national research centres such as the West African Tropical Research Centre in Banjul is very useful to teaching in tertiary institutions. . There are also a number of Think Tanks in Africa that study economic and political trends whose findings are used by tertiary institutions.
- ❖ **Libraries and Museums** - As repositories of books and materials from the past, libraries and museums are very important institutions in the education system. Libraries and museums for years have been centres where students and researchers collect information and knowledge. Incidentally there are not too many libraries in many African countries. Libraries are today not only centres where books are found but have taken advantage of the internet to provide ICT facilities in the retrieval process for knowledge.
- ❖ **Parent Teacher Associations and Alumni Associations** -These are voluntary associations established by parents and teachers as well as past students of institutions with the sole purpose of helping institutions. Some of these associations in many African countries have contributed significantly to infrastructure development of schools and colleges and the welfare of teachers.

- ❖ **National Teachers Associations** - In order to improve their own welfare and influence the educational system, teachers have in all African countries organised themselves into unions and associations through which they lobby and negotiate better working conditions and contribute to discussions in the sector that affect their work. The membership of these national associations in regional and global teachers associations has been very relevant to the advancement of education.
- ❖ **Educational Foundations, Non Governmental-Organisations** - There exists in many countries, both in Africa and elsewhere many foundations established solely to assist the educational sector through the donation of money for research, scholarships, exchange programmes and teaching and learning materials. Similarly many non-governmental organizations can be found in many African countries whose focus on educational issues like HIV and AIDS, the education of the Girl Child and related gender issues are major contributions to the educational sector.
- ❖ **International Organisations** - At the international level there are institutions like UNESCO whose mandate and goals are educational and has indeed played a major role in the promotion of education in Africa. UNESCO at both the national and regional levels has offices in many African countries whose collaboration with national governments and departments of education have boosted education on the continent. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), which is a forum for policy dialogue on education policies acts as a catalyst for promoting policies and practices through the pooling of ideas, experiences, lessons learned and knowledge. It encourages exchanges and reinforces links between ministries of education and development agencies. ADEA has contributed significantly to education in Africa.

Challenges Institutions of Education Face

There are many challenges that confront the various institutions of education in the realization of their goals including the following:

- ❖ **Finance** - Finding adequate resources to support institutional goals is a common problem many of the institutions in education face. For all their good intention parent associations and alumni associations are never able to marshal enough resources to meet their goals. Research Institutions and Think Tanks often complain of lack of funds.
- ❖ **Shortage of Human Resources** - related to the lack of resources is the consequent chronic shortage of personnel in an expanding field like education. Government departments of education are not able for instance to employ

adequate and qualified staff in the inspectorate division whose work can assure quality education. Furthermore the lack of funds and shortage of staff renders the work of research institutions difficult. There is a chronic shortage of teachers which inevitably affect the school system.

- ❖ **Limited Collaboration among institutions of education** - United by a common purpose of seeking the advancement of education, there is limited cooperation among many institutions of education.

Activity 2

Identify some institutions of education and write an article about their role and the challenges they face.

Activity 3

Interview the executive of the National Teachers Association in your country / community and write an article based on this interview.

Conclusion

There are indeed many actors/institutions which play a significant role in education. Teachers are the pivot around which the educational system revolves but the effectiveness of the teacher in the classroom can only be enhanced when each and every player in the educational sector contributes meaningfully to the educational goals of a nation. The media must understand and appreciate this fact if they are to play their own role of education and informing the public about this sector.

Supporting Materials

1. Kaunda, Zikani. 'Influencing National Policy Making in Education through Best Practices (Conference Paper): Civic Involvement in Primary Education Project' by, July 2, 2005: <http://books.google.co>
2. 'The International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa: Strengthening Africa's Educational Institutions' (Addis Ababa): <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/custom/portlets>
3. Cummings, William K. 'The Institutions of Education: A Comparative Study of Educational Development In the Six Core Nations'. (Oxford Studies in Comparative Education). Canadian Journal of Sociology Online. May – June 2004.

Module 36

Human Resource Development in Education

Overview

Human capital (labour) is considered as one of the factors of development. The more trained and qualified labour is, the better for efficiency and productivity. It takes more than the existence of good infrastructure such as school buildings for the educational sector to meet its goals. Officials who work in the education sector must not only have good education but must have the opportunity whilst at work to improve their skills and knowledge. With advancement in science and technology as well as in the arts and culture, personnel in the educational sector, particularly the teaching staff must regularly upgrade their knowledge and competence through a systematic policy aimed at human resource development. Many institutions have taken advantage of human resource development policies to enhance the competence of their staff and consequently boosted productivity and efficiency.

General Objective

Module discusses the concept and practice of human resource development and its relevance to the educational sector and also examines opportunities for human resource development for teachers.

Specific Objective

The specific objectives of module are to enable user to:

- ❖ Understand the significance of human resource development in education
- ❖ Examine post-teacher training opportunities for teachers that promote human development capacity of teachers
- ❖ Discuss the challenges of teacher development

Expected Outcome

The user by the end of module will be able to discuss issues related to the development of human resources in the educational sector.

Introduction

The adage, “education has no end” has great relevance for every individual and every institution. Owing to the late introduction of Western education or formal education to many African countries, the first generation of professionals did not have opportunity to learn at tertiary institutions and began their working life in the civil service, banks

and the educational sector with very basic education, middle school certificates or secondary school certificates. Today the employment market can attract a high number of highly-qualified graduates. However many institutions, in order to develop the full potential of their employees, irrespective of their academic qualifications, have strategies for the human resource development of their staff. Such Human Resource Development policies and programmes, first of all, allow the individual to continuously educate himself or herself and secondly enable institutions to boost their efficiency and productivity. Module 36 examines the relevance of human resource development in the educational sector and has two units. Unit 1 defines and discusses the concept of human resource development. Unit 2 examines opportunities and challenges of human resource development in the educational sector and teacher development.

Unit 1

What is Human Resource Development?

“THE CAPACITY OF INDIVIDUALS DEPEND ON THEIR ACCESS TO EDUCATION” Adam Smith (Kelly 2001)

The people in any organization are its human resources. Investing in and improving this resource is very important for the growth of the organization. The process by which the people in an organization are developed to serve their individual aspirations and the goals of the organization is referred to as Human Resource Development.

Human Resource Development is defined as “a combination of training and education that ensures the continued improvement and growth of both the individual and organization”. (Wikipedia)

Human Resource Development, according to Nadler (1984) is not a defined object but rather “a series of organised processes with a specific learning objective”.

Through such a process, an employee who for instance enters an institution with no knowledge and competence in Information and Communication Technology may eventually acquire such knowledge and competence with the support of his or her organization/ Human Resource Development processes in a hospital may enable a general practitioner in a field like medicine to undertake a specialised course whilst on the job with the support of his or organisation.

In recognition of the fact that the basic academic qualifications, either of post-secondary qualifications or post-university qualifications their employees already possess on being employed may not necessarily satisfy the goals of the institution, policies and programmes are put in place that ensure that the worker throughout his or her career gets regular or periodic training that builds on his or her formal training to improve skills and competencies. Human Resource Development is based on a

simple philosophy-reach for superior workforce, hire the best and develop the rest. Many organizations have established fully-fledged departments of Human Resource Management tasked with the responsibility of ensuring that both old and new staff in the course of their employment has opportunities to develop their skills and knowledge and are kept abreast with innovations in their line of business.

It is important to point out that since an organization must spend lots of money on an employee for his or her development, the whole process of HRD fits into the goals and plans of an organization much as it may satisfy the career aspirations of a worker. *“Development occurs to enhance the organizational values not solely for individual improvement. Individual education and development is a tool and a means to an end, not the end goal itself”.* (Elwood F. Holton II. Trott Jnr.).

Benefits of Human Resource Development

Human Resource Development is a win-win situation for both the employer and employee. It also plays an important role in sustainable development strategies at regional and national levels.

Benefits to the employee include the following:

- ❖ Acquisition of new skills and knowledge
- ❖ Ability to perform new duties and at higher levels.
- ❖ Motivation and Promotion

Benefits to Institution or Employer:

- ❖ High morale and motivation among work staff
- ❖ Increased productivity and achievement of the goals of the organization
- ❖ Retention of Staff.

Strategies for Human Resource Development

Every institution develops unique programmes for the development of its human resources taking into account their needs and resources. But generally the following are measures that many institutions embark on:

- ❖ Tertiary or Vocational Courses-Where identified staff require further education either in tertiary or vocational institutions and specialization in their field, institutions may sponsor employees. Employees may thus be allowed to go on a study leave of a long period or be allowed to pursue part-time courses or long distance courses.

- ❖ Refresher Courses-These are short-term courses with specific objectives aimed at equipping a staff with new knowledge and skills relevant to his or her work.
- ❖ In-House Training-many institutions as a policy have regular in-house training programmes using trainers from within and outside the organization aimed at either imparting new knowledge and skills or addressing specific challenges that an institution faces.
- ❖ Mentoring Programmes-It is the process through which old and more experienced staffs impart their experience to new staff.

Activity 1

Identify an institution in your community and find out what opportunities are available for the human resource development of its staff.

Unit 2

Human Resource Development in Education

As a key pillar in the overall developmental strategy of any country, human resource development deserves more attention than it gets today in many African countries. The various personnel in the educational sector from administrators to the teachers in the classroom must continuously improve their skills and competencies as other professionals such as bankers and engineers. With the shift to new fields in education like Specials Needs Education, Inclusive Education and emerging issues such as Gender and Education, HIV and AIDS, Indigenous Language Education and many more others, personnel in the sector must necessarily have their skills and knowledge upgraded to meet the new challenges.

Challenges facing Human Resource Development in Education

Some of the challenges that the education sector faces include the following:

- ❖ Large pool of educational workers-As a sector that caters for the education of the child through kindergarten to the tertiary level, the educational sector has a large pool of workers who are desirous to improve their own education in order to be very functional.
- ❖ Lack of finance-Human Resource Development is an expensive process. Unfortunately educational budgets are woefully inadequate to support a

Human Resource Development programme in most African countries. In countries where teachers for instance are entitled to study leave with pay, the scheme falls short of meeting the needs of many teachers who are therefore forced in their desire to further their education to do so without pay and consequently leave the profession on completion of their education.

- ❖ Limited facilities to meet innovations and emerging issues in education -There is an explosion of innovations such as Information and Communication Technology as well emerging issues in education-Special Needs Education etc. However existing facilities and opportunities lag behind these emerging trends. These new emerging issues in many instances are not incorporated in current curricula used in schools on the continent. Computer literacy is necessary in today's global village but whilst governments and policy makers stress the need for computer education from the primary level to the tertiary level many of the teachers are equally computer illiterate and have no immediate chances of acquiring computer literacy.

HRD and Teacher Development

Africa's expanding population of school kids can only have their potentials fully realized with an equally high population of competent and efficient teachers. However the sad reality in most African countries is "the chronic shortage of competent and qualified teachers" (ADEA magazine). According to ADEA, "the issue of teacher shortages needs to be seen in broader terms: the quality of teacher education and the availability of stable jobs with clear career progression, conditions that keep teachers in the service of education". An equally better management or administration is required in the educational sector to ensure that scarce resources are efficiently managed. Geographic distribution of teachers in relation to subject shortage areas is another issue of concern.

It is to address these issues that ADEA set the following as priority areas for the Second Decade of Education:

- ❖ Improved supply and utilisation of teachers;
- ❖ Enhancing teacher competence;
- ❖ Institutionalising systematic career-long development of teachers;
- ❖ Professionalising and enhancing capacity for school leadership;
- ❖ Improving teacher morale, working conditions and welfare;
- ❖ Intensifying pedagogical research for continued improvement to teaching and learning.

Undoubtedly an effective Human Resource Development Scheme in the educational sector of African countries can have a big impact on addressing the concerns for quality teachers and administrators in the educational sector. In many African countries the lack of trained teachers has led to a situation where many non-trained teachers (pupil teachers as they are called) are recruited to fill in the gap. Even this large pool of pupil teachers with further training can be retained.

Current Forms of Training of Teachers

- ❖ Training Colleges-The basic training of teachers take place at training colleges where post-secondary students are taught general subjects and pedagogical methods and qualify as trained teachers. Many teachers in this category in the course of their career feel the need to further their education at either Advanced Training Colleges or at the University.
- ❖ Advanced Training Colleges-Opportunities for specialization exist at this level in addition to the general training in education.
- ❖ Universities-Although a few Universities with specialization in education exist in some African countries, the bulk of teachers pursue a general course in either the arts and science and join the teaching profession and are not considered as trained teachers since they would not have learnt pedagogy or education and therefore require more training in pedagogy to make them better teachers. In some African countries a distinction is made between graduate teachers-that is those with professional qualification in teaching and non-graduate teachers, those without the professional qualification.
- ❖ Distance Learning-Programmes exist today in some African countries which enable teachers to get further education not necessarily be being on a college campus but through distance learning programmes either on the television or internet.

Why the Need for Human Resource Development in Education

The reasons why there should be emphasis on human resource development in the educational sector are similar to the argument for such a scheme in other sectors. However there is even a stronger case for having a broad scheme for personnel in education for the following reasons:

- ❖ The chronic shortage of trained teachers from the primary to tertiary level calls for measures that would improve the quality of existing teachers and give them the incentive to remain in the field;

- ❖ New emerging issues in education such as Special Needs Education, Gender etc requires that the knowledge and skills of teachers and other educational professionals are enhanced continuously. Current curricula for teaching teachings do not fully incorporate these emerging issues
- ❖ Advancement in science and technology, the wide usage of ICT requires that teachers and other educational professionals enhance their skills and knowledge in these fields.

Activity 2

Write an article of facilities and programmes for the training of teachers in your country.

Conclusion

Human Resource Development has become a very important area in the affairs of many organisations since HRD helps sustainable growth by improving and enhancing the skills and knowledge of staff members. The educational sector more than any sector requires progressive policies and programmes in Human Resource Development to ensure that education has an equally well-trained staff to meet the challenges of modern times.

References

1. Elwood Holton II, James W. Trott, Jr., 1996, "Trends Toward a Closer Integration of Vocational Education and Human Resources Development", *Journal of Vocational and Technical Education*, Vol. 12, No. 2, p7
2. Kelly D, 2001, Dual Perceptions of HRD: Issues for Policy: SME's, Other Constituencies, and the Contested Definitions of Human Resource Development, <http://ro.uow.edu.au/artspapers/26>
3. Kelly D, 2006, Human Resource Development: For Enterprise and Human Development,
4. <http://ro.uow.edu.au/artspapers/114>.
5. Nadler L Ed., 1984, *The Handbook of Human resources Development*, John Wiley and Sons, New York.
6. Retrieved from "http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_resource_development"
Categories: Hu

Module 37

Resource Management in Education Systems

Overview

Resources in education include school infrastructure, curriculum and teaching and learning materials, and all human resources such as teachers, school managers, and ministry of education personnel such as planners and managers. Parental and community participation may also be considered as important resources for making school effective. The priority in Africa today is to ensure that every child in every classroom has access to the pedagogically necessary minimum of instructional materials. The supply of appropriate teaching materials is particularly inadequate in large parts of Africa. There is a need not only for any teaching and learning material or textbooks but for materials that are closely in tune with the realities of and needs of African societies. There is also need for greater investments in the operation and maintenance of physical plant and equipment, and greater expenditure on other inputs that would increase the utilization of these capital assets.

General Objective

The module provides an analysis of the situation with educational resources management in African countries and will enable users to communicate in a better and more effective manner on matters related to improving resources management in education.

Specific Objectives

The user will be enabled:

- ❖ To have good knowledge of educational resources and how they are managed in Africa.
- ❖ Appreciate the practical issues concerning the management of the available resources in African schools to meet the EFA and MDG goals.
- ❖ To communicate well on issues of how resources should be better managed in African education systems.
- ❖ Identify strengths and weaknesses in the values and patterns of allegiance in African cultures in relation to modern forms of organization and management.
- ❖ To develop and advise on a model specific to his or her environment on the efficient use of available resources for education.

Expected Outcome

The user will be better able to articulate and disseminate information on the importance of using educational resources efficiently in Africa if the continent is to achieve most of the objectives set out in the Dakar Declaration on Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.

Introduction

Despite nearly four decades of investment in education, management capacity remains strained and insufficiently developed for a combination of reasons:

- ❖ There have been relatively low investments in this area;
- ❖ The efforts of governments and funding agencies have been so fragmented that sustained institutional development has been inhibited;
- ❖ Multiple and sometimes conflicting policies and procedures have often consumed a disproportionate share of managerial time and attention;
- ❖ And there have been difficulties in adapting modern forms of organization to the values and patterns of allegiance in many African cultures.

Central therefore to the mandate of educational managers will be the strengthening of their own capacity to use available resources. Inefficiency in the use of available resources is seen as the widespread underutilization of facilities, high levels of absenteeism of teachers and students, and a general lack of order and discipline in the operation of education systems. Administrative and logistical infrastructures originally created for systems of quite limited size cannot cope with the vastly expanded structures of today. These constraints the ability of governments to plan, implement, and monitor policy changes that would address the obstacles to higher quality and wider coverage of the education system. Although appropriate policy changes are necessary to improve education in sub-Saharan Africa, they alone will not suffice. They must be coupled with measures to strengthen management if the benefits of the policy changes are to be realized. Initially, the managerial capacity to deliver traditional educational services needs to be strengthened, then the capacity to design and implement change and innovation.

This module examines resources management in education systems in Africa at three levels: (a) the school, (b) policy implementation; and (c) policy development. Educational policy analysts have developed a strong consensus around the importance of the school-level manager – i.e. the principal, headmaster, or headmistress, commonly known as head teacher – and the community environment in which the head teacher operates. Linking the head teacher with the policy maker is a structure for policy implementation, which involves incentives and local politics, budgetary choice and project development, teacher training and teacher supervision.

At the top is management of policy development for the national system. The module shapes managerial performance at each level in the following four units which analyse each of the four factors described per unit. Unit 1 concerns the managerial and organizational structure itself. Unit 2 examines student testing, general statistical and accounting systems that provide information to managers. Unit 3 looks at the analytical capacity of those who generate and evaluate options for managers at all levels, but particularly for managers at the policy level; and Unit 4 delves into the quality and training of managerial staff.

Unit 1

Improving Organizational Structure

Organizational structures establish predictable relationships between people and tasks and thus channel the processes of getting things done. They are intimately connected with the distribution of power and authority, and they have considerable impact on decision-making and resource allocation. The need for structures appropriate to the management of African education is acute. For this, three areas of policy concern stand out: school management, decentralization and structural simplification.

(a) School Management

School management is a crucial component of effective teaching and learning. Effective schools have several characteristics in common. First, they display an orderly environment. Teachers and students attend regularly, records are kept, and buildings and grounds are clean and adequately maintained. Second, such schools emphasize academic achievement. Students progress systematically through the curriculum, they use the materials that are available, take tests, and profit from the results. Third, teachers and principals expect high levels of student achievement. Teachers give students regular feedback on their performance and remedial assistance. Fourth head teachers pursue an activist policy for effectiveness. They have high expectations for the performance of both staff and students. They take an interest in classroom activity and provide professional advice to teachers. They take initiative in acquiring resources for the school. They interact effectively with higher authorities and with the community.

The structure of educational organizations can help support effective school management by granting schools the authority to generate and use local resources. Schools that are able to invest locally generated resources in school improvement are able to show parents a return on their financial sacrifice and, thereby, to ensure continued parental support. School supervision provides technical and administrative assistance for these activities. Head teachers can be given responsibility for these

tasks, as well as for the quality of classroom instruction. The successful implementation of a school improvement policy will demand the establishment of strong and permanent structures for school support and supervision. These structures should allow for regular supervision of schools, permanently available opportunities for in-service training, and frequent upgrading programmes for first-line supervisors.

(b) Decentralization of Policy Implementation

Education systems in most of sub-Saharan Africa are highly centralized. The rapid expansion of schools since independence, combined with the increased importance of central control of funding and expenditure, has led to an increasingly centralised system of education management. Resources are controlled at the centre, and lower level managers typically pass along all decisions to higher level. Although centralised control in the education sector may be more efficient for some purposes than a very decentralized one, there are good reasons to believe with the African context that education systems could be made more efficient if certain functions and responsibilities were devolved away from central ministries of education. The arguments in favour of greater decentralization have to do with the characteristics of most African countries:

- ❖ long distances between individual schools, and the centre;
- ❖ great ethnic and linguistic diversity; and
- ❖ relatively poorly developed systems of communications.

Under such conditions, the flow of resources and information between the central ministry and individual institutions is frequently interrupted or halted. An increased reliance on local initiative might hinder the need for such flows or alleviate the consequences of their not occurring.

Decentralization can be pursued in two ways. The first and more obvious way is by changing the structure of authority and responsibility in the ministry of education so as to increase the authority of units at lower levels. Rigid centralization in Africa has tended to block the flow of information and decisions, to alienate schools from their local environments, and to limit their ability to respond to local needs and resource opportunities. By supporting school autonomy, decentralization can contribute significantly to better school management and increase the responsiveness of the school to the local community – and of the community to the school. Second, governments can decentralize by relaxing restrictions on the activities of private schools and training institutions. These include schools and institutions run by church groups and other voluntary organizations as well as many types of non-formal fee-paying education and training schemes operated by private concerns. Expanding the range of education services in this way would shift more of the costs of education on the beneficiaries. The effectiveness of such schools can be “managed” through

examinations, the setting of standards, and inspections. Such mechanisms help to enforce standards, and disseminate information to the public on the status of individual institutions.

Planning for decentralization in a given education system is a complex task. Work, decisions, responsibility, and authority can be assigned to various levels. Key issues may include what to assign, when, and for what purposes. The size of the country, the nature of the political system, and the effectiveness of communications are also factors to be considered. Decentralization has more advantages in situations where there are greater geographic dispersion, more pluralistic institutions, and weaker communication systems. For effective decentralization to take place, the roles of units at various levels and the effective flow of information between them must be clear. In general, central ministries should retain policy, planning, and monitoring functions. In addition, curriculum policy and development, together with the production of materials, should continue to be centralized, unless and until the capacity of curriculum development is established at lower levels, and even then if the maintenance of national standards is desirable for nation building. Administrative support (such as supervision of the pay-roll, procurement, and school construction), teacher training and certification, and statistical services may not be fully centralized, depending on the degree to which public administration is generally (and effectively) decentralized to states or provinces.

The supervision of schools should be expanded to include technical advice and training for new functions, such as resource generation. Supervision systems must expand to cover new types of institutions and tasks such as non-formal and private education. Communication links to move information both ways between schools and higher authorities increases in importance. For vocational and technical education, staff should be responsible for establishing and strengthening linkages between schools and employers – a specialized task for which training and resources support may need to be centrally provided.

At the school level where responsibility for the quality of instruction lies, head teachers should be given the authority necessary to achieve such quality. The head teacher should have a genuine voice, if not the final say, in all of the following:

- ❖ the appointment, discipline, and dismissal of teachers;
- ❖ the adaptation of curriculum and classroom schedule to local circumstances;
- ❖ the establishment of effective relationships with community organizations;
- ❖ the generation of local resources;
- ❖ a system of accountability, within centrally provided guidelines, for the use of locally generated resources.

(c) Structural Simplification for Policy Development

The term *structural simplification* refers to the adaptation of educational structures and available resources for the management of an education system in the most appropriate manner possible. It can support decentralization and school management as part of a broad strategy for structural reform. As certain administrative duties are delegated to lower levels, central ministries can devote more attention to their principal functions:

- ❖ broad policy planning; designing policy implementation strategies;
- ❖ monitoring the consequences of policy implementation through observation, testing and evaluation; and
- ❖ adapting policy in the light of its evaluated impact.

Delegating to school or intermediate-level officials the power to appoint and dismiss teachers greatly simplifies the responsibilities of the central ministry. The gathering of statistical data is a second case in point: as the capability to gather and aggregate data is decentralized, the tasks of the central unit are simplified and reoriented toward quality control, analysis and dissemination.

The second sort of structural simplification will be the establishment of an entity responsible for over-seeing training with a view to the needs of the national economy. It would track how training activities relate to educational activities and how, they relate to employers, and it would develop appropriate policies toward training. Such a training policy unit might be housed in a ministry of education, an expanded ministry of education and labour, or a national planning ministry. In any case its work will facilitate and be facilitated by consolidation and streamlining of the ministry of education.

Activity 1

Investigate the policy changes in education in your country during the past 10 years. What measures did your government take to strengthen management in order to realize these policy changes? Write a brief article for publication in a daily newspaper on this.

Activity 2

What experiences does your country have in decentralization of education? What would you consider to be the major obstacles to decentralization of the education system in your country?

Activity 3

How should processes of extensive consultations and meetings between the media, government authorities and civil society organizations be made more effective and efficient in understanding better the issues regarding resources management in the education sector in your country?

Unit 2

Improving Information: Testing, Statistical, and Accounting Systems

Each management level – from formulating policy to running an individual school – requires information for its own use and for dissemination to the larger social system. In general, the education sector needs to be concerned with two main types of information. The first is information on the quality of students' performance as revealed by achievement tests; the second is descriptive information concerning the numbers and types of institutions, personnel, and students in the system, their geographical distribution, and the financial flows that affect them. These data are used at all levels for planning and resource allocation. Test data also play a key role in the certification of individual students and their selection for the next level of education. We analyze the following:

(a) Educational Testing

There is a long history of educational testing in Africa, beginning in the colonial era with the extensive use of examinations administered from Europe. After independence, such multinational groupings as the East and West African Examinations Councils helped to develop a cadre of African psychometricians and other professionals experienced in testing. External examinations (that is, those administered outside the individual school) are important today in a significant number of African countries.

External examinations should play the following roles:

- ❖ First, if properly designed, examinations measure performance in the system as a whole and in individual districts and schools, this can allow tracking of performance over time, international and interregional comparisons, and school-level accountability. The accountability function is best served by regularly publishing appropriate aggregations of scores. These measures of performance can also be used for analysis of the education system – for example, the careful evaluation of new projects or reform efforts.
- ❖ Second, well-designed examinations help to improve the curriculum. They encourage teaching and learning of the designated curricula in the

classroom, since teachers teach and students study for the tests, however they are designed; if the tests are well designed, teachers teach and students learn what they are supposed to. Both curriculum improvement and performance measurement – the first two roles of examinations – are central to improving educational quality.

- ❖ Third, examinations allow objectivity in the selection of students for the next cycle of education or for appropriate training.
- ❖ Fourth, external examinations allow the objective certification of students at the completion of an education cycle; such certification is essential for the widespread implementation of independent study programmes.

Performance can be measured by testing only samples of students at selected times. To a lesser extent, the testing of samples may be sufficient for purposes of curriculum enhancement as well. The selection and certification of students, however, will usually require testing all students at appropriate points in their progression through school although it may be desirable to give different tests for each purpose. Most external examinations in Africa today are mainly for selection. Although this provides a base upon which to build, further development of educational testing systems should ensure that examinations serve all their important functions.

To do this, and particularly to improve the curriculum, examinations must cover the full range of cognitive achievement specified in the curriculum – not only the requirements for the minority of students who proceed to the next level, but also those for the majority of students who do not continue. If the examinations fail to test the skills that will be useful for the latter group, there is little or no incentive for schools to teach such skills, nor for students to learn them. As a result, primary education is then treated mainly as a preparation for secondary education (and secondary as a preparation for tertiary), and not as a provider of worthwhile skills for those who do not go on with formal education.

(b) Statistical and Accounting Systems

Investments in testing should be accompanied by the creation of strong monitoring and information systems that provide limited but strategically useful information on schools, classrooms, teachers, students, materials and finances to managers at all levels. These systems should emphasize simplicity and practicality in the gathering and use of data, and they should be based on careful analysis of information needs at different levels. They should be integral parts of the organizational structure, and the necessary tasks should be defined in position descriptions and supported with training. In many countries, the management of these functions should be closely tied to the education policy and planning units.

Information should flow both up and down the administrative hierarchy of the education system. The relevance of statistics for improving the quality of education in

the classroom must be made clear to school-level personnel responsible for collecting the raw information and entering it into the statistical pipeline. School personnel should receive analyses of data in time to be used in their classes, and they also need information about the larger education system.

Testing and monitoring systems may require significant investments in facilities, equipment, and staffing. These investments must address current problems of data reliability and timeliness. With the recent developments of microchip technology, the capacity to analyze data should not remain a major constraint, even in very poor societies, and the timely collection of information assumes even greater importance than in the past.

Activity 4

How would information derived from examinations improve the management of resources in the education system of your country? Write a feature story to explain this.

Activity 5

How can the media's influence be linked to focus, consultations and consensus on key issues related to resources management be linked to significant improvements in education for development in your country?

Activity 6

How best should journalists and other media practitioners use statistics in investigative reporting focusing on resources management in schools?

Unit 3

Strengthening Analytical Capacity

Analysis and planning are central to the efficient allocation of resources and, therefore, to the achievement of quality education under conditions of austerity. Educational leaders must be able to assess the performance of their systems and gauge the effect

of their policies. This takes expert analytical skills organized in strong, well-staffed central policy and planning offices. In larger countries some of these functions may be decentralized to states or districts.

The work of the policy and planning staff must be well integrated with the policymaking process. In some countries the lack of staff, information, and resources has reduced such units to the status of statistics offices, concerned primarily with meeting the information needs of external funding agencies. Such units are not able to use information to generate a range of policy options for review or to monitor – and thus learn from – the implementation of policy decisions.

Considerable effort, centred mostly on training, has been made to develop planning offices and research capacity. The record however is not encouraging. To attract and retain good planners, education organizations need to provide adequate compensation and career opportunities. Planning must be supported by effective information systems and adequate operational resources. The planning unit should have clear access to the highest level of policy making and not be located in a temporary project management unit. In short, an effective analysis and planning unit must be an integral part of the overall organizational design. Ad hoc arrangements that train a few planners under project funding and that fail to provide continuing support within the structure of the education system will not work. Here again, improvement requires sustained (although not large) investment accompanied by whatever structural changes are necessary to make the investment productive.

Another element of strengthening analytic capacity, and a crucially important one, is the development of applied research as the basis for policy analysis. African education research institutions should, of course play a key role in helping to ensure that research is timely, relevant, and of high quality. Since such institutions are only just beginning (ERNWACA/ROCARE, CODESREA, ACBF etc) to consolidate their activities in much of Africa, investment to strengthen their capacity and willingness to conduct research in these areas should be high on the agenda for action.

Activity 7

What are the opportunities for collaboration on both the strengthening of analytical capacities on the part of technical ministry of education planners and the developmental sides of the work of journalists?

Activity 8

How can capacity building mechanisms be made more effective for journalists, communication officers and other media practitioners in your countries? Please describe capacity building opportunities that have a pronounced effect on the effectiveness of journalists and communication experts.

Activity 9

Explain the role of research in the better management of educational resources. As a journalist, how would you use research material to make your point?

Unit 4

Development of Managerial Staff

Lack of skilled managers and low morale are fundamental constraints on African education at all levels. Past efforts to address these constraints have not been successful. Training has generally not been tied to clear long-term strategies for organizational development. As a result, training has been general in nature and not linked with the need to develop managerial skills. Training opportunities have been provided principally for higher-level staff (often trained abroad), not for school personnel.

A broader policy approach to the development of managerial skills is needed in most countries. Fundamentally, this will require the development of strong management institutions – a relatively long-term solution. Meanwhile, governments should consider a number of immediate options. In view of the difficulty of attracting highly qualified individuals to the education sector, priority should be given to developing and advancing talented persons who are already working in the sector. Management development must then be seen as a system wide activity that promotes good managers from the schools through intermediate levels toward the centre. Training should be seen as one of several inputs. The others include the resources necessary to make staff effective, incentives to hold them in the system, clearly defined career paths, and systems for assessing performance. A teacher should enter service with a clear idea of the opportunities for advancement and of the kinds of performance and training that will be necessary to move ahead.

Management development in the central ministry should parallel development at lower levels. Training across levels (or example, of head teachers and district officers

together) should take place frequently to strengthen relationships and coordination. Management development is constrained, however, by the quality of those who enter the profession. One policy option would be to enhance the incentives and career opportunities for highly skilled education staff in order to attract talented nationals. Such a policy is difficult to implement for a single sector and is more likely to succeed when applied across sectors with careful controls. Governments and funding agencies alike might well review current practices with regard to technical assistance to see if ways can be found to divert resources from expatriate expertise, with its very high costs, towards hiring talented nationals. Reliance on expatriate assistance, however, is likely to continue in many countries in the short-term.

It will be important to give due consideration to the gender dimension. This will include:

- ❖ The need to develop a gender policy at every level of the management of educational resources;
- ❖ An analysis of what the actual situation is in African schools;
- ❖ The training in gender for utilization at managerial and school methodology levels; and
- ❖ The need for more women teachers and leaders.

In the short term, the best combination of policies is one that will:

- ❖ Promote the recruitment, development, and retention of skilled national staff in both male and female;
- ❖ Base the use of expatriates on broad plans for the development of human resources; and
- ❖ Emphasize the training role of advisors.

In the longer term, a permanent capacity for management development is needed and, ultimately, African institutions need the ability to provide the full range of management development services, including first-rate research.

Activity 10

Prepare an article to convince policy makers in your country that training opportunities for the education sector should not only be limited to higher level staff and should not necessarily be held abroad.

Activity 11

Define management development as you understand it in the context of the situation in your country. Will you limit this only to training and the provision of incentives? Why?

Activity 12

Do you believe that women managers do better in managing educational resources in African schools? Explain your reasons in a feature article for a major daily in your country.

CASE STUDY

Poor governance jeopardises primary education in Africa New report shows strengthening governance is key for achieving education goals in seven countries

Addis Ababa/Berlin, 23 February 2010

Poor governance and management are jeopardising efforts to provide quality basic education in seven African countries according to a new report published today by Transparency International (TI).

The report, *Africa Education Watch: Good governance lessons for primary education*, shows that despite ten years of efforts to increase school enrolment through the *Education for All* initiative and the *Millennium Development Goals*, deficient or non-existent governance systems and practices are limiting progress.

“Increasing school enrolment is not enough. To ensure true, lasting progress in education levels and best use of the scarce resources available, oversight and accountability must be improved,” said Stephane Stassen, Senior Programme Coordinator at TI, who leads the Africa Education Watch programme.

The report, which assesses primary education management structures in Ghana, Madagascar, Morocco, Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Uganda, analyses data from 8,500 questionnaires completed by parents, head teachers, heads of Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and district education officers.

In the past decade, according to UNESCO, more primary school age children in Africa are going to school than ever before, and in many countries primary education is, by law, free of charge. However, TI's report found that parents who can ill-afford it still face fees. In the countries covered, 44 per cent of surveyed parents were requested to pay registration fees for their children. "Poor accounting and reported diversions of budgeted funds clearly show that funding must come with better management capacity and accountability mechanisms," said Stassen.

The report identifies where the transfer of funds and supplies from central governments to schools is likely to be diverted. Most schools do not keep complete or even basic records of their finances, the report shows. There is also an overall lack of training in financial management by head teachers and those responsible for managing school budgets.

TI chapters in the seven countries will work with governments and civil society to increase management capacity and strengthen accountability mechanisms, in order to ensure, that Education for All goals are met.

Key Findings:

- Funding for schools is not transparent and external inspections are conducted infrequently. The roles and responsibilities of decentralised authorities managing schools are often unclear.
- Parents in all countries surveyed reported paying registration fees for primary education even though by law primary schooling is free. This ranged from 90 per cent of surveyed parents in Morocco to 9 per cent in Ghana.
- Overall, 85 per cent of schools surveyed across all countries had either deficient accounting systems or none at all. This ranged from 100 per cent in Niger to 69 per cent in Madagascar.
- The majority of head teachers in Madagascar (58 per cent), Morocco (77 per cent), Niger (92 per cent) and Senegal (59 per cent) and most members of School Management Committees in all countries received no training in financial management though they are responsible for budgets.
- Parents in all countries said they believed the education system was affected by corruption, ranging from 10 per cent in Madagascar to 85 per cent in Sierra Leone.

Strengthening the governance framework in education management results in a more efficient management of resources, and is a necessary step to improving the delivery of quality education. The report recommends Ministries of Education

introduce stronger accountability norms. Specifically, clearer and more robust rules for keeping school records are needed, coupled with more frequent inspections to ensure that these rules are respected. It also recommends that Ministries of Education and civil society invest firstly in training to ensure school managers and parents have the capacity to administer and oversee budgets, and secondly in public awareness campaigns to educate parents about their rights.

Africa Education Watch is a three-year programme (2007-2010) made possible by funding from the *William and Flora Hewlett Foundation*. The programme aims to assess whether the decentralised education management systems, which began a decade ago, are effective in controlling corruption and making primary school administrations accountable. Surveys were carried out from March to May 2008 and coordinated by TI chapters.

Transparency International is the civil society organisation leading the fight against corruption

Conclusion

Substantial resources will be required to create a management environment in which African education can be improved. Management development institutions will require substantial financial support. Most measures will also incur significant recurrent costs. Such investments impose difficult trade-offs in the current financial and economic climate, in which resources for the management of education systems have stagnated or declined in many countries. However, substantial investment in management capacity is important to the success of other reforms, including financial reforms considered necessary for establishing efficiency and equity within education. A strategy for management development will need to be forged from the range of options given in this module – for organizational structure, testing, and information systems, analytical capacity, and staff development. Using their various communication media, journalists and media practitioners in Africa will be better knowledgeable to participate in the debates that would identify the investments, activities, and support systems necessary to achieve acceptable levels of school management.

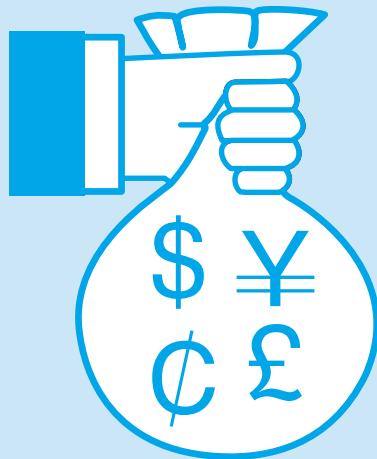
References

1. The World Bank – Priorities and Strategies for Education: A World Bank Review, The World Bank, Washington DC, 1995
2. The World Bank, Education in sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion, A World Bank Policy Study, the World Bank, Washington DC 1990.
3. Wim Hoppers, Post-Primary Education in Africa: Challenges and Approaches for Expanding Learning Opportunities, Association for the Development of Education in Africa, May 2008
4. Albert-Enéas Gakusi, African Educational Challenges and policy responses: Evaluation of the effectiveness of the African Development Bank's assistance, African Development Bank, 2010.
5. Kevin Watkins, The Oxfam Education Report, Oxfam GB, 2000



Section 9

Resourcing For Education







Module 38

Financing Education

Overview

It is recognized that resource mobilization has been a major challenge in the education sector of many African countries. There is need for adequate funding for infrastructural development as well as human resource development. It is also noted that the resources made available to the education sector seem not to be properly managed as expected to achieve the intended purpose. How will the journalists, the communication officers, and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) help to overcome the challenges?

General Objective

To help users develop skills for a better understanding of issues of education financing.

Specific Objectives

By the end of this module the user will be able to:

- ❖ Understand financial problems that retard progress in educational sector
- ❖ Understand the role of the private sector in financing education.
- ❖ Understand the role of donor /development partners in financing education
- ❖ Understand the importance of community participation and financial resource mobilisation

Expected Outcome

By the end of the module the User will enhance his or her competency to analyse issues directed at education on education financing.

Introduction

Education in Africa faces numerous challenges because population explosion and enrolment growth have outpaced financial resources of state governments which have been the main sponsors of the sector.

Module 38 is divided into 2 units. Unit 1 discusses the state of financing educational institutions from the basic level but with particular reference to tertiary institutions and challenges that are being experienced. It also highlights interventions that have been established to redress them. Unit 2 examines the role of development partners in

financing education in African countries. Finally it covers some case studies on community participation in financing education.

Unit 1

The State of Financing Educational Institutions at the Basic Level

Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) , Articles 28 and 29

“The States Parties are...; to formulate, develop and apply a national policy which ... will ... promote equality of opportunity and of treatment in ... education and in particular: ...To make primary education free and compulsory; make secondary education in its different forms available and accessible to all; make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity; assure compliance by all with the obligation to attend school prescribed by law.”

By this convention states are required to provide all the basic facilities such as teaching and learning materials, establish infrastructure to promote a healthy learning environment.

Many African countries have ratified the CRC to ensure that all children of school going age enjoy the right to education. Policies like Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE). Such a commitment calls for the building of more schools, provision of teaching and learning materials, and training of teachers among others. However, the slow growth of most African economies poses a serious challenge to the realisation of these goals. So far the main sources of funding include the following:

- ❖ State budgets
- ❖ Donor support
- ❖ Religious bodies and some CSOs

Generally, some African countries spend between 20% to 25% of their budgets on education. These are often also supported by donors.

In some African countries school feeding programmes have been established and this is encouraging a lot of children from poor deprived communities to attend school. In addition some Scholarship schemes have been initiated to support poor and needy but bright children to pursue their secondary education.

State of Financing Tertiary Institutions

African countries since independence have witnessed a high demand for placement in tertiary institutions. To meet the demands of qualified personnel after independence, many African countries offered free tertiary education in the few universities on the continent and sent hundreds of students abroad on scholarships. The situation has changed dramatically today. Enrolment at tertiary institutions have doubled and sometimes quadrupled. African governments with the pressure on other sectors of the economy can no longer bear the full cost of tertiary education as was the case in the past. This has led to the search for other sources of financing tertiary education.

Challenges of Financing Education

- ❖ Public apathetic attitude,
- ❖ Misuse of scarce resources
- ❖ Lack of adequate remuneration for teachers
- ❖ Inadequate infrastructural development to promote a healthy learning environment among others
- ❖ Resistance from public to support initiatives to finance tertiary institutions

Interventions

As a means to address the challenges of financing tertiary education, some initiatives have been taken by some tertiary institutions on the continent. A few examples are the case drawn from Kenya and Uganda.

Cost Sharing

Some countries in Africa have put in place user fee programmes which are used for management of facilities and institutions.

Outcome of Cost Sharing in some African Countries

Kenya in its version of the dual-track tuition fee policies called module 2 or parallel programmes initiated highly demand driven academic courses such as MBA, Law, education and medicine which fetch the faculties significant income. Under the module 2 of the University of Nairobi a substantial income was generated 45% of which was used for staff salaries, 28% used for academic equipment and materials while 10% was used for capital projects.

The Vice Chancellor of the University of Nairobi remarked “these programmes have gone a long way to make the university attract, motivate, and train competent staff and

staff off the hitherto spiralling brain drain ... led to the improvement of the quality of the teaching and research” Source: Kiamba 2003..11. Kiamba 2003, Oketch 2003 in Higher Education Finance and Accessibility: Tuition Fees and Student Loans in Sub Saharan Africa.

Uganda’s dual-track tuition policy is said to be a striking single example of institutional cost sharing policy adapted at Uganda’s Makerere University. The policy provides between 20% to 30% free higher education. The revenue from 70% fee paying students has improved the university’s budget, capacity and educational quality. According to a UNESCO World Bank report, on task force in 2002, Makerere University” has moved from the brink of collapse to the point where it aspires to become one of East Africa’s pre eminent intellectual and capacity building resources.

Students Loan

Some countries tertiary institutions also provide student loans for their academic work. There is, however, a big challenge on ineffective ways that state governments retrieve repayment of loans given out due to lack of keeping and maintaining records of students and the high administrative and servicing costs involved.

Sandwich and Distance Education Programmes

Sandwich and distance education programmes in some African countries which are normally taken on by workers generate substantial income because the beneficiaries are made to bear the full cost involved.

Unit 2

Major Donors

Donors that assist in financing Africa’s educational system include Germany, United Kingdom and France. Organisations that also assist in financing include Partnership for Higher education in Africa that includes Ford Foundation, World Vision, ADEA and The Norwegian Educational Trust Fund (NETF). A few of these are discussed.

The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)

ADEA formed a Working Group on Finance and Education as far back as 1994 to promote discussion on policy issues related to financing, management and planning of education. In 2008, this Working Group was integrated with the Working Groups on Statistics, and Sector Analysis, which became the Working Group on Education Management and Policy Support (WGEMPS). It now focuses on the national capacity for informed decision-making and evidence-based policy and management. Designed as a catalytic agent for strengthening this capacity, WGEMPS programme promotes

the development of coherent and mutually supportive functions of sound Education Management Information Systems (EMIS), sector analysis, financial planning and navigational tools necessary for informing policy and management decision-making

The promotion provides a forum for educational planners and funding agencies to share experiences on development of tools and sound policies to foster better management of funds towards education.

Management of Resources

A key goal of ADEA working group is to improve educational planning, financing and management by strengthening education and finance Ministries capacities to better administer available resources.

- ❖ It also enhances resource allocation by providing planners with tools to determine priorities in planning and budgeting.
- ❖ ADEA's working group has a Pan-African network of experienced researchers on education financing. It in addition has a Pan-African inventory of practices and results on financial policies, and the strategies for financing, planning and management of education budget. Above all, the group has the technical tools and training programmes on budget planning and financial management.

In effect, ADEA has the resources that journalists and communication officers can tap for use by all countries in Africa.

Capacity Building / Human Capital Factor

A major challenge that acts as a great barrier and therefore retard progress in the educational sector, is the issue of development of human capital at all levels, including administrative to manage educational systems effectively to promote quality education.

The Norwegian Educational Trust Fund (NETF) is also one of the major funding agencies in the educational sector. The NETF has realized that a major barrier to educational change in Africa has been the lack of capacity of systems and of individuals within the systems. We lack some technical competence in planning effectively. "Education for All" efforts have been directed in this area and some achievements have been made.

Need to look at capacity both at the human capital level and how children schooling can be improved to develop their full potentials to enable them contribute to development efforts when they become adults.

Norway's Case Study

The NETF has financed several meetings on education, as well as:

- ❖ Networking activities by key partner organizations;
- ❖ It has assisted the World Bank to expand technical and analytical capacity in the education sector, especially in African countries that have low enrolment.

Donor partners have used Norway's model to create the "Education Program Development Fund (EPDF) to support education program preparation in low-income countries. In collaboration with Donor funders, the NETF will now be integrated into EPDF with – co-funders as DFID and SIDA, to create donor harmonization.

Partners Support for Private Sector in Financing Education

Africa's educational system cannot have a steady development without the support of other partners in the private sector, hence the need for mobilizing participation from all sources, whether in kind or in cash. Contributors could be in terms of both services and funding. Innovative ways of private sector contribution to education could be encouraged and supported.

There are some countries where private sector services to the educational sector is about 40 percent of the total expenditures in education in some countries in Latin America, for example, Chile and in Africa, Kenya and Zambia. The share ranges between 30 percent – 40 percent. In Ghana for instance, private enrolment at the basic level is quite significant with many private schools normally named "International schools", although statistics on them are hard to come by.

In La Cote d'Ivoire, the problem of lack of Public schools capacity is partly addressed by allowing the private sector to fill in the gaps in the short term. Kenya private schools, Financing and Technical Assistance Program provides local currency financing and technical assistance to private primary and secondary schools. With a 50 percent sharing arrangement in place between the IFC and the K-Kep Bank. (source Global Monitoring Report, 2009).

Financing of Private Higher Education in Africa

There are profit and non-profit private high education institutions (PHEIS). Where higher fees are charged by these, with profit making agenda and low fees charged by "not-for-profit" institutions, majority of which are religion supported PHEIS. Most of

these institutions also extend financial assistance through scholarships to needy but intelligent students as well as students from poor families.

Many private higher education institutions have sprang up on the continent. They manage their own finances. However, the issue of private / and public partnership in the provision of higher education is good for Africa, and their finances would need to be enhanced to promote access, equity as well as quality education. A few of African countries with a significant number of private high education institutions are the following:

Ghana	25
Benin	27
Ethopia	12
Nigeria	34
Tanzania	17
South Africa	79
Uganda	23
Senegal	41
Lesotho	15
Madagascar	16

Community Participation in Financing Education

Case Studies

Botswana

When in 1976 former Prime Minister of Lesotho, Chief Leabua Jonathan nationalised all physical and other forms of resources at the main campus of the then University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland at Roma, Botswana found herself compelled to mobilise the nation to start building the now University of Botswana (which subsequently and briefly existed as part of the University of Botswana and Swaziland). Consequently the government launched the Botswana University Campus Appeal (BUCA) whose slogan was *Motho le Motho Kgomo* (translated as 'One-Man-One-Beast'). The cattle industry was by then the mainstay of Botswana's economy, hence the people were encouraged to make donations in livestock and whatever other possessions they had for the

infrastructural development of the campus. The response from the nation was considerably positive with the people donating anything ranging from cattle, sheep, and goats to bags of sorghum, chickens, and bucketfuls of beans etc.

Madagascar

In Madagascar, the community participates in the payment of teachers' salaries and in the cost of housing and motivation in the rural areas in the primary education. The community makes this effort because most teachers would like to remain in urban areas. Members of the community also participate in environmental preservation around the school.

Malawi

Community participation in managing education (primary education)

Malawi Government developed Community Participation in Managing Primary School Strategy. This is the framework that promotes community participation. The 1962 Education Act which currently under review also provides for the establishment of School Management Committee (SMC), and Parent and Teachers Associations (PTA). These are structures represent community interest in managing and running of Primary schools.

Community Involvement and Participation

Members of the community participate in both managing and financing primary education. Members of the community contribute user fees though currently being discouraged. Community leaders together with School Management Committees agree on an amount members of the community are expected to pay towards financing of a particular education (school) issues. Community members contribute towards infrastructure development (class room blocks and sanitary facilities) through community financial contribution. Where there is no financial contribution, communities contribute raw material towards construction or provide non -skilled and skilled labour if is available in the community.

In some cases, communities hired retired teachers to teach at particular schools and also contributed towards the salaries of such teachers (volunteer teachers).

Activity 1

Identify the 3 Key Development Partners that deal with financing on education in Africa and write a story on how you can mobilise them to support education..

Activity 2

State 3 ways you can work with them to enhance their support for the educational sector.

Conclusion

It is now recognized that all stakeholders as well as development partners have key roles to play to support the educational system.

The Private sector in particular must be involved in supporting the education sector since they are part of the key beneficiaries of the human resource produced by the educational sector at all levels. It is also their social responsibility to support social develop of countries they operate their businesses. The idea of putting everything on government to support education sector must be discouraged. There is need for complete community participation in the management, administration and infrastructure management of schools.

Supporting Materials

1. Education budget documents
2. Education review documents
3. Education policy documents
4. Case studies

References

1. D. Bruce Johnstone: Higher Education Finance and Accessibility: Tuition Fees and Student Loans in Sub Saharan Africa
2. Saint W.S. (1992) Universities in Africa: Strategies for stabilisation and revitalisation. World Bank. Washington
3. Tilak. J.B.G. (1992) "Student loans in financing higher education in India". Higher Education Vol.23(4)PP.389-404.

Module 39

Partnerships in Education

Overview

Planning and managing of education can no more be the prerogative of governments alone. It requires the combined effort of government, stakeholders and development partners.

The nature of partnerships in education varies from country to country according to the political and historical background. Consequently the user should be aware of the different types of partnership that exist at both national and international levels.

General Objective

Module 39 aims at equipping the user with the necessary knowledge that could be used to strengthen the educational system.

Specific Objectives

To enable the user to:

- ❖ know the different types of partnerships in education
- ❖ identify the different conditions for a successful partnership in education
- ❖ raise awareness on how to foster good and strong partnerships in education

Expected Outcome

At the end of the module, the user will have an increased knowledge of the different types of partners involved in education for advocacy.

Introduction

Draxler (2008) defines partnership as such: “in the business world, partnership refers to: *“an arrangement whereby partners pool together their competencies and commitments, manage a venture jointly and share equally in risks, benefits and losses”* The World Economic Forum on the other hand sees partnership as: *“A voluntary alliance between various equal actors from different sectors whereby they agree to work together to reach a common goal or fulfil a specific need that involves shared risks, responsibilities, means and competencies.”*

Unit 1 explores the different types of partnership and discusses the rationale for partnerships. Unit 2 examines the conditions for building strong and successful partnerships in education.

Unit 1

The Need for Partnerships in Education

The need for partnerships in education is also clearly articulated in *Article 7 of the World Declaration on Education for All* which states:

“National, regional and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all, but they cannot be expected to supply every human, financial or organizational requirement for this task.”

Partnerships at all Levels will be Necessary: *partnerships among all sub-sectors and forms of education, recognizing the special role of teachers and that of administrators and other educational personnel; partnerships between education and other government departments, including planning, finance, labour, communications, and other social sectors; partnerships between government and non-governmental organizations, the private sector, local communities, religious groups, and families. The recognition of the vital role of both families and teachers is particularly important. In this context, the terms and conditions of service of teachers and their status, which constitute a determining factor in the implementation of education for all, must be urgently improved in all countries in line with the joint ILO/ UNESCO Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers (1966). Genuine partnerships contribute to the planning, implementing, managing and evaluating of basic education programmes. When we speak of “an expanded vision and a renewed commitment”, partnerships are at the heart of it.”*

The excerpt from the World Declaration on Education (1990) describes the different partners needed in education and their roles and highlights the commitment and genuineness that should be displayed to improve the sector.

As it can be seen, there are several reasons which bring people together. The different rationales are stated in the following box.

Rationale for establishing partnerships

- ❖ **Shared experiences and expertise.** Each partner can bring knowledge and skills to the task at hand.
- ❖ **Mutual support.** When circumstances are difficult, partnership provides mutual support to persist in efforts to achieve goals.

- ❖ **Division of labour.** Collaboration can allow partners to concentrate on the tasks that they do best. The tasks which one partner can do best are not necessarily the ones that other partners can do best. In this situation, division of labour permits all sides to gain.
- ❖ **Increased resources.** When each partner brings resources to the common forum, the total availability of resources is increased. These resources can be human and material as well as financial.
- ❖ **Increased sense of ownership.** When people work together on a task, they are more likely to feel a sense of ownership than if someone else performs the task for them.
- ❖ **Extended reach.** Different partners may have voices in different places. This can extend the reach of initiatives.
- ❖ **Increased effectiveness.** When partners come together, they each bring their own perspectives. They may help each other to identify obstacles to effective implementation of programmes and ways around those obstacles.
- ❖ **Evaluation and monitoring.** When partners have links to different sectors of society, they can complement each other's efforts in assessing the impact of programmes.

Activity 1

Go back to Article 7 of the Declaration of the World Education Forum cited above. Identify the different partners in education described. Then match the rationales in Box 1 with each group of partners. Which rationale (s) is/are the most common?

Different Types of Partnerships

There are two main types of partnerships: “Public Private Partnerships (PPP) and “Multi-Stakeholder Partnerships” (MSP).

Examples of PPP are Civil Society groups and non-governmental organisations. Multi-stakeholder partnership (MSP) is a new terminology that highlights the multi-faceted

nature of development actors. An example of MSP is the Multi-Stakeholder Partnerships for Education (MSPE or MSPEs) that brings together governments, the private sector, civil society, academic institutions and other organizations to pool and jointly manage resources and competencies that contribute to the expansion and enhanced quality of education. They differ from PPPs (Public-Private Partnerships) in their explicit focus on a broader coalition of partners and stakeholders than merely the public (governments) and the private (companies) sectors.²

Partnerships in education can involve actors at national and international levels.

Partnerships in Education at the National Level

Governments, parents, civil society organisations, non-government organisations and the private sector are considered as stakeholders in the educational system. At the school level, Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs) and governing bodies jointly manage school matters in the community. In the past, their roles were generally just either to finance education or play an advocacy role. However, the roles are changing as these actors become more involved at the level of decision-making in the educational system that includes curriculum development to management and policy-making.

At the International Level

There are various actors at the international level. These include donor agencies, regional bodies and international organisations such as UNESCO and UNICEF.

There are new endeavours to pool expertise together. Draxler (2008) cites a few: the Global Compact, the World Economic Forum's Global Education Initiative, the Institute for Public-Private Partnership³ and the Partnering Initiative. In 2007, the World Economic Forum's Global Education Initiative started a joint programme called Partnerships for Education (PfE). At the continental level, one can cite among other initiatives, education coalitions within the economic regions, and the Forum for Parliamentarians for Education (FAPED).

A new initiative at the global level has given birth to new mechanisms such as: One-UN and the Fast Track Initiative. These are just a few of the many endeavours working to advance education in Africa specifically and in the world in general.

The Forum of Parliamentarians for Education (FAPED)

The Forum of Parliamentarians for Education (FAPED) was created in 2000 with the objective of contributing to the advancement of EFA. The objectives are to build capacities for financial resource mobilization, promote education development, strengthen skills in the monitoring and evaluation, strengthen initiatives in the area of

² Definition available on the site of Partnerships for education at: <http://www.pfore.org/>

³ Additional information available at: <http://www.ip3.org>



advocacy for reforms, and perpetuate the programme by establishing partnerships between parliaments and the other components of national institutions.

The Fast Track Initiative (FTI)

The Fact Track Initiative is a financing mechanism in selected countries. It is: “a global partnership between donor and developing countries to ensure accelerated progress towards the Millennium Development Goal of universal primary education by 2015. All low-income countries which demonstrate serious commitment to achieve universal primary completion can receive support from FTI.

Activity 2

1. Choose a partner of education in your community and investigate the kind of actions conducted. Write an article for the public.
2. Choose an international partner in education in your country investigate the kind of actions implemented. Write an article for the public

UNIT 2

Key to a Successful Partnership in Education

There are enormous gains in educational systems when partnerships are effective. However, some challenges for instance conflict of interests, lack of transparency and apathy among some stakeholders are often encountered. In her study, Draxler, (2008) presents six elements to make the outcome of partnerships in education successful: “the definition of needs, ownership by stakeholders, a conscious focus on impact, strong regulation and accountability, sustainability and monitoring and evaluation”. The following are principles involved in successful partnerships:

Principles for Partnerships in Education

- ❖ *Partnerships need trust.* This trust must be on both sides: governments must trust communities, and communities must trust governments
- ❖ *Partnerships need long-term commitment.*
- ❖ *Partnerships need clear and mutually accepted roles.* Government and community partnerships do not need equal roles to be played by both sides.
- ❖ *Partners must focus on both big and small pictures.* Governments are more likely than local communities to have a big picture of the patterns and directions of development.

- ❖ *Partnerships need nurturing.* Skills do not develop overnight, and attitudes may take even longer to adjust.
- ❖ *Partnerships are relationships between individuals as well as institutions.* Ministries, NGOs and community bodies are institutions. However, they are all composed of, and run by, individuals.
- ❖ *Genuine partnerships involve much more than mere contribution of finance.* Some governments are chiefly interested in partnerships as a mechanism for securing resources and reducing budgetary crises

Case Study

Maasai Education Discovery (MED)

Bridging Tradition and Modernity

By making education more accessible and affordable, MED helps prepare the tradition-bound Maasai for success in the twenty-first century. In addition to expanding their view of the world and increasing opportunities for economic participation, MED helps the Maasai understand why certain traditions, such as female circumcision, are no longer acceptable.

MED has a strong focus on education for women and girls because in the Maasai culture women hold a position of respect in the household and are regarded as the key decision makers in matters related to the family. Within this social structure, the 900 female students who attend primary school, secondary school, and college through MED each year are likely to have a positive impact on their children's education. For many girls, MED also provides an alternative to an early marriage into a life of poverty.

Creating New Opportunities for the Maasai

A few years ago, Waseem Sheikh, Director of Cisco's Internet Business Solutions Group and MED Board Member, visited the MED education resource center in Narok, Kenya. After learning more about the project goals and MED's desire to bring education onto the Maasai reservations, Sheikh actively sought out support from a variety of sources, including personal acquaintances, college students, international development agencies, and the Cisco® Product



Grant Program. Sheikh also worked with the Maasai elders to gain their approval to send children within their communities to school, rather than sending them onto the fields to graze cattle all day.

As a result of Sheikh's efforts, college students from the United States donated hundreds of refurbished PCs to MED and many volunteered their time and funds to support the project. In addition, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) started an Ambassador Girls Scholarship Program and solicited the help of other agencies such as the International Red Cross and Oxfam. Also, Cisco provided an equipment grant to support the establishment of a high-speed wireless network connecting the center to 16 surrounding schools. MED is now offering free network access to hospitals in the area. In addition to enabling remote diagnostics, this capability allows for education delivery in the healthcare sector.

Sheikh also raised more than \$50,000 in personal contributions from friends and family members, which he used to construct a boarding school for 360 Maasai girls. The school began offering the Cisco Networking Academy® curricula in 2004, and 50 students have earned their Cisco CCNA® certification to date. "These young women now have marketable skills for today's economy," Sheikh explains, "skills they can use to support their families and communities so that others may take advantage of the same opportunities."

The majority of women who graduated from the academy have already found employment, and those employed contribute 10 percent of their salaries back to MED to promote the program's sustainability. Networking Academy students and instructors in Kenya have also used some of the equipment donated to MED to set up networks at 15 local organizations, including dormitories, libraries, an orphanage, and schools.

Maasai Education Discovery (MED) by Susan Porter Cisco Global Education, <http://www.pfore.org/library/success-stories/maasai-education-discovery-med>

Activity 3

Discuss what will make the case-study a success. Research in your community similar cases of partnerships in education.

Conclusion

Partnerships in education are necessary in order to maximize the use of competencies and means available at country and international levels. There is a need to stress that each country has a unique political and social environment. This is why collaboration and participation in educational system can only be unique. The user should make an effort to understand the types of partnerships in education existing in the country and their role in the educational sector.

Further Reading

The following sites have articles and data on partnerships in development and/or education. Definition taken from the Fast Track Initiative website: at <http://www.educationfasttrack.org/about-fti/>

- ❖ The Global Compact is a UN Policy Initiative for business. <http://www.unglobalcompact.org/>
- ❖ World Economic Forum: <http://www.weforum.org/en/initiatives>
- ❖ Partnerships in education at <http://www.pfore.org/>
- ❖ Draxler, A (2008). New partnerships for EFA: building on experience. Partnerships for Education, UNESCO/World Economic Forum: www.pfore.org.
- ❖ Education Assessment (2000), Community Partnerships in Education: Dimensions, Variations and Implications. Thematic Studies. World Education Forum, Dakar, 26-28 April 2000

References

1. Draxler, A (2008). New partnerships for EFA: building on experience. Partnerships for Education, UNESCO/World Economic Forum: www.pfore.org.
2. Education Assessment (2000), Community Partnerships in Education: Dimensions, Variations and Implications. Thematic Studies. World Education Forum, Dakar, 26-28 April 2000.

¹ Definition available on the site of Partnerships for education at: <http://www.pfore.org/>

² Additional information available at: <http://www.ip3.org>

Module 40

Education and Research

Overview

The educational sector is arguably one that is most be-devilled by great challenges, limitations, and constraints. Considering the major role that the sector is expected to play in providing skills which subsequently become the propelling force for both the technological and socio-economic developments, it is fairly easy to understand the precarious situation characterizing the sector. Through research.

The findings of which could be used to address the numerous Challenges base thing the sector.

The module, therefore, seeks to address and redress such kind of scenario by suggesting that research can be used as an effective means of providing formalized monitoring and evaluation of the existing educational system.

General Objective

To determine ways through which research can be used to ensure the provision, maintenance, and sustenance of good quality education.

Specific Objectives

By the time the user completes module - s/he should be able to:

- ❖ appreciate ways in which research can be used to enrich and enhance education
- ❖ understand the challenges that confront the educational sector and how research can be used to reduce them
- ❖ demonstrate an understanding of how research can be used as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism

Expected Outcome

By the time the user completes module, s/he should be able to probe the key issues related to the education sector.

Introduction

Research is undoubtedly a relevant and necessary component of the education process. Because it ensures the monitoring and evaluation factors, research inevitably promotes capacity building and thus implies growth. It is through research that issues pertinent to the education sector can be thoroughly scrutinised. Unit I provides a definition to the concept research education and the purpose of research in education, and highlights some challenges in research.

Unit II provides some areas of research in the sector. In addition, it provides some steps to take to conduct a simple research and a case study.

Unit 1

Understanding Education and Research

What is Education Research?

It can be defined as “scientific enquiry into a question that provides an answer towards increasing the body of general knowledge”. Educational research can be understood to mean “research conducted to investigate behavioral patterns in pupils, students, teachers and other participants in schools and other educational institutions” (Hopkins Antes, 1920: 24). Research generally focuses on problem detection and solutions.

The Purpose of Research

Research activity focuses on identify causes and effects of problems and finding solutions to them. From the context of this toolkit, therefore, education and research can be regarded as meaning the role that research should play in the educational sector. Research can be used to monitor the educational system as a way of policing and ensuring that the system does provide good quality education. It is expected that research in the sector can be used to address some of the following issues:

- a. access and equity:
 - ❖ special needs
 - ❖ a study on challenges facing teachers
 - ❖ accessing management structures in schools
 - ❖ management of financial resources
 - ❖ strengthening Girls education in Rural Communities

There is need for the user to acquire some basic competencies in research.

Challenges in Research

Research as an activity is expensive and generally funding for research becomes a big problem:

- ❖ Researchers need training to carry out effective study (research).
- ❖ Generally findings of research are not used, eg. Studies carried out in many tertiary Institutions are not put to good use. This is the reason why there should be a strong linkage and collaboration between educational researchers and policy makers.

Unit 2

Some Areas for Research

These are some key areas for research :

- a. Researching the way in which education can meet the demands of the labour markets e.g. research could be conducted to determine what types of skills are needed in the labour markets
- b. Tracking the resources inventory in the education sector
- c. Monitoring financial management in particular:
 - ❖ Budget tracking
 - ❖ Administrative monitoring
- d. Monitoring relationships between teachers, students and parents:
 - ❖ Abusive incidents
 - ❖ Gender equity
- e. Researching policy making in the education sector
- f. Using research play watchdog position for development partner involvement
- g. Facilitating access for journalists to obtain information on researched issues (i.e. research information)

Steps in Basic Research

- ❖ Identify problem
- ❖ State objectives
- ❖ State methodology
- ❖ Identify target population
- ❖ Do a reconnaissance survey
- ❖ Carry out field survey to collect data

- ❖ Analyse data collected
- ❖ Write report on findings
- ❖ Report can be used to write a story on the issue
- ❖ On which the research was carried on

Activity 1

Do a simple research on sexual harassment in rural community school and write a report on it for your media. As shown study in the following case study.

Case Study

In an extract from a report on 'Suffering at School' (from Malawi) we learn that almost "one third of all children reported that teachers at their school demanded sex from children in return for good grades. The majority of the children 13 years [old] and younger knew someone to whom this had happened, while one third of all the children could think of an actual incident." (Patrick Burton, October 2005: www.africanfathers.org)

Conclusion

It is important to recognise the significance role research can play in the development of the sector. Indeed, failure to support issues and challenges of the education sector by scientific research coupled with statistics, and failure to put in place tracking and management systems in education could only see very little achievement being made in improving the quality of education and ensuring the attainment of EFA, which is one of the millennium development goals.

Supporting Materials

1. American Educational Research Association (AERA) <http://www.aera.net/>
2. The Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa (ERNWACA) <http://www.ernwaca.org/web/spip.php?article471>
3. The Educational Research Network in East and Southern Africa (ERNESA) website or links

Appendix A - Glossary

- **Adolescents:** the transitional stage of physical and mental human development that occurs between childhood and adulthood.
- **Education** is a concept, referring to the process in which students can learn something.
- **Gifted children** are those whose superior intelligence puts them in the top 2% of their age group or whose special gifts in such activities as music or art make them outstanding for their age.
- **Impaired:** This is a damage or loss of a body part due to accidents, diseases, genetic factors and other conditions.
- **Informal education:** general term for education outside of a standard school setting. It can refer to various forms of alternative education.
- **Instruction** refers to the intentional facilitating of learning toward identified objectives, delivered either by an instructor or other forms.
- **Learners with Learning Difficulties:** learners with mental retardation, specific learning disabilities, behavioral/emotional difficulties, language and communication difficulties, physical and health impairments.
- **Non formal education:** the education you get, skills you acquire, training you get in e.g. a youth movement, by taking up responsibilities, using the space you get there, using programs / trainings you have access to.
- **Remedial education** is any program of teaching which has a reasonable chance of restoring to normal the educational performance of children whose progress has been adversely affected by environmental factors.
- **Special education** describes any teaching system that attempts to provide a more appropriate form of education for children whose physical or mental condition makes normal teaching methods unsuitable for them.
- **Sign language: These** are standardized signs and/or finger spelling for communication of learners with hearing impairment.
- **Specialist Teacher:** A teacher trained to teach LSEN at a resource centre, special school or in the mainstream.

- **Teaching** refers to the actions of a real live instructor designed to impart learning to the student.
- **Teaching** refers to learning with a view toward preparing learners with specific knowledge, skills, or abilities that can be applied immediately upon completion.
- **Youth:** the period between childhood and adulthood, described as the period of physical and psychological development from the onset of puberty to maturity and early adulthood.