

Kenya Studies Review

ISSN: 2150-5764 (online)

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Volume 6, Number 3, Fall 2013

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Eradication Of adult Illiteracy in Kenya By 2030: Are Teaching Methods A Challenge?

By

Tundo, Night* & Achoka, JSK**

Abstract

Education is one of the key pillars that foster social and economic developments in both developed and third world countries. Adult education signifies any form of learning undertaken by men and women who are no longer involved in formal education and who improve themselves by increasing their knowledge, skills and attitudes through organized activities in a non-formal set up. This programme is especially made for them so that they can get knowledge at any stage of life. Basic Adult Education (BAE) was established in 1979 with the aim of eradicating illiteracy and paving way for economic development. However, the road to success in implementation of BAE has been met by many challenges pedagogical issues cited as one of the major road blocks. The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which teaching methods affect implementation of BAE in Mumias District of Kakamega County. The descriptive survey design was applied in the study. A sample of 32 purposely selected adult teachers and 553 learners selected through stratified sampling was surveyed through questionnaires for both qualitative and quantitative data which were analyzed and presented in tables of frequencies, percentages and figures. Key findings revealed that although there was a curriculum supported by teachers and learning resources, teaching methods used did not factor the age of the learners and their mastery ability. Practical oriented materials were not available forcing teachers to rely heavily on traditional method of content delivery. The study was significant in so far as it added value to BAE by availing useful data for improvement of quality standards towards realization of objectives of adult education. It was recommended that BAE teachers through the Ministry of Education should be inducted on effective methods of content delivery that will enable adults meet their objectives in their learning centers.

Key Words: Adult education, goal, pedagogy, curriculum, economic developments

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Tundo, Night & Achoka, JSK (2013). Eradication Of adult Illiteracy in Kenya By 2030: Are Teaching Methods A Challenge? *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

Basic Adult Education (BAE) is one of the major components of the adult and Continuing Education (ACE) sub-sector of education. It provides basic education and training opportunities to adults and out of school youth aged 15 years and above who either missed their chances in the formal education system during their childhood or dropped out of school before attaining sustainable levels of education. As manifested in government policy documents, the Government of Kenya recognizes the importance of BAE programmes in unlocking and maximizing the potential of human resource for individual, community and national development. Current policy documents clearly state that the Government is committed to the provision of education to all its citizens by 2015 irrespective of age, gender or geographical locations.

BAE programmes target an estimated 4.2 million illiterate adults and another 2.2 million out of school youth 60% of these adults being women (1999 Population and Housing Census). However, this estimation was based on individual self-reporting of illiteracy status and it is believed that the level of illiteracy is actually much higher. Kenya National Adult Literacy Survey (KNALS) conducted in 2006 revealed that over 7.8 million Kenyan adults and out of school youth are illiterate. It is well known that many illiterates are too stigmatized and embarrassed to reveal their true literacy status. Further the gender dimension of illiteracy is still unclear and more data is required to ensure that adult education programmes are targeted, gender sensitive and tailored to needs and expectations.

According to the Kenya Education Sector Support Programme, access to (BAE) programmes will be expanded particularly for women and people living in disadvantaged areas including ASALs, low potential and slum areas. Due to socio-economic and cultural barriers, more women than men have had no access to education.

Statement of the Problem

In the Sessional Paper No.1 of 2005, the Government recognizes the important role played by Adult and Continuing Education (ACE) as a vehicle for transformation and empowerment of the individual and society. The BAE programmes are consciously designed to meet the specific learning needs of out of school youth and adults. Adult education is especially a powerful support for the Free Primary Education (FPE) initiative since literate parents will send their children to school and give stronger support to their learning. The education of adults has also been acknowledged as critical in contributing to the country's development. Education goals of vision 2030 are to provide globally competitive quality education through reducing literacy by increasing adult literacy rate to 80%. The Ministry of Education (MoE) in particular expects to achieve 50% improvement of adult literacy by 2015.

Following the launching of the literacy campaign in 1979, 321,208 women were enrolled in Kenya's adult literacy classes compared to 93,968 men. By 1990, however, respective enrolments for women and men were 105,458 and 32,696. These figures suggest that overall enrolment figures have been gradually declining since the early years of the initial enthusiasm (Mwiria, 1993). The government has supported BAE by employing the teachers and developing a curriculum. Despite the substantial allocation of resources BAE has continued to face numerous challenges and the effectiveness of the system has had to undergo increased scrutiny e.g. in 2008 the enrolment of adult learners in Mumias sub-county was 1400, in 2009 enrolment was 1,002, in

2010 total enrolment in the first and second quarter was 620 (DAE Report 2008-2010). One wonders whether Kenya will achieve education for all by 2015 and its objectives in vision 2030 given that the state of BAE is still a subject of debate.

The purpose of the study was to establish the extent at which teaching methodology affects BAE in Mumias sub-county in Kakamega county.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to establish the extent at which teaching methodology affects BAE in Mumias sub-county in Kakamega County.

Objectives of the Study

To assess the extent to which teaching methods affect implementation of basic adult education in Mumias District

Research Question

How does teaching methods affect Implementation of basic adult education in Mumias Sub-County

Significance of the Study

The study was significant in so far as it added value to BAE by availing useful data for improvement of quality standards towards realization of objectives of adult education. Recommendations might help teachers of adult education to change their teaching approach to favor the needs of the learners. Further, recommendations made if implemented might motivate illiterate adult to join adult literacy classes hence achievement of education for all by 2030.

Literature Review

Methods of Teaching Basic Adult Learners

There are various strategies used to impart skills and knowledge to learners in any learning institution. This include: discussions, presentations, storytelling, role play, demonstration, experiments, lecture, drama, participatory and use of electronic media such as radio. A method used in teaching depends on the nature of the content, age of the learners and their level of understanding. There has been a developing interest in meeting the education needs of adults with low levels of literacy proficiency. Few systematic studies have been undertaken concerning the quality of educational services provided to adult basic education learners and the effects of these services on student learning. Cannon, R& Newble, D. (2000)

The adult education literature supports the idea that teaching adults should be approached in a different way than teaching children and adolescents (preadults). Many aspects of effective teaching apply to all age groups. However, adults have had more life experiences and in many ways are differently motivated than children. Adults are more self-directed in their learning and have a greater need to know why they should learn something. They have set habits and strong

tastes. They may have prejudices, which are detrimental to the learning environment. They want a choice in what they learn. These characteristics of adult learners can be addressed in the learning environment to optimize learning. Understanding the principles of adult learning can help teachers become better facilitators of learning.

Not all people learn in the same way. Research shows that there are many different learning styles or characteristic ways that adults prefer to learn. Individual learning styles are influenced by personality, intelligence, education, experiences, culture, sensory and cognitive preferences. To engage all learners, it is best to vary the methods in which information is communicated. These methods can include small- and large-group discussion, role-playing, lecturing, case studies, games, questioning, and varying technology (eg, media, video, and computer, interactive). Studies reveal that over a period of 3 days, the retention of learning is 10% of what we read, 20% of what we hear, 30% of what we see (demonstration), 50% of what we see and hear (discussion), 70% of what we say (practice), and 90% of what we say as we do (teach others, immediate use). It follows that an effective learning protocol is to watch one (demonstration), do one (practice), and teach one (use new learning).

There are several different “learning intelligences” or ways in which individuals can learn information. Instructors should attempt to include as many of these different intelligences as possible in the design of their educational activities. These intelligences are linguistic (language and words), logical and mathematical (numbers and problems), spatial (perception of objects through senses), kinesthetic (use of body to learn), interpersonal (social skills, working with others), intrapersonal (learn on one’s own), musical (learning through music), and naturalistic (learning through the natural world).

Dames (1982) observed that the most important thing in learning wants to learn but the most difficult thing is maintaining the people’s interest in learning. One way of doing this is ensuring that “doing” is part of learning. Participatory learning becomes more effective when done in groups. This enables the adults to tap and share their experiences. When leading a group discussion the adult teacher must avoid dominating the discussion because adults might not be comfortable with this. They have their own opinions to offer and they feel happy if given opportunity to do group discussion in which everybody is free to participate, arouse interest in the subject and help in building the confidence.

In such discussions learners open up to one another and built cooperative relationship which brings encouragement and enhances their learning. Adults respond with much interest to learning methods that appeal to their feelings by touching on common experiences of daily life (Wells, 1992) Folk drama is another learning activity which also appeals to people’s feelings whether performed by the learners themselves or by an outside group which learners may be able to watch (John and Powel 1990).

Mackie (1983) argues that use of electronic media is a powerful strategic means of teaching adults. The radio in particular is a convenient medium that reaches many people in different parts of the country with educational messages because it sounds very close to the listener. A mobile cinema can be used effectively for adult learning because it pulls large crowd motivated by the

desire for entertainment while the objective of the film is to pass educative messages through demonstrations

The national studies of adult education program has collected limited data on program implementation such as strategies used in managing local adult education services and methods used in delivering instructions. Rather, these studies have documented outcomes achieved by program participants without an in-depth understanding of the services that have facilitated adult's attainment of outcomes. The study further revealed that instructors of adult education used multiple of instructions such as didactic, group response and individual response. Learners make progress when the instruction is tailored to their needs and are utilizing approaches to address varied learning styles of learners. (Alamprese, 1998)

KNALS (2006) revealed that participatory learning becomes more effective when done in a group. This enables adults to tap and share their experiences. Adults respond with much interest to learning methods that appeal to their feelings by touching on common issues of daily life. Mackie (1983) argues that use of electronic media is a powerful means of teaching adults. The radio in particular is a convenient medium that reaches many people in different parts of the country with educational messages because it sounds very close to the listener. Pedagogy,

The programme is operated without a curriculum to guide the teachers, who single-handedly decide on the content in disregard of the learners' needs. The 3Rs and language skills are the most taught, but some teachers teach primary school subjects to adult learners. While the method used should always focus on learning rather than teaching, and be geared towards problem-solving rather than information-giving, teachers use the primer (whole word) approach rather than REFLECT or whole language, which are more innovative and involve the learners in the learning process. Teachers therefore oppose instructional innovations that give learners control over the subjects they learn and over their classrooms.

Although literacy education involves cooperative learning, group or class activities were lacking and the learners could not open up to share views and experiences, as learning was purely teacher-centred. Even the few Income-Generating Projects of '*merry-go-round*' lacked the capacity to generate sufficient funds. There was no homework or co-curricular activities although it is recognized that learners open up more freely during sporting activities than in the classroom.

Theoretical Framework

There is no single theory of learning that can be applied to all adults. Indeed, the literature of the past century has yielded a variety of models, sets of assumptions and principles, theories, and explanations that make up the adult learning knowledge base. The more the adult educator is familiar with this knowledge base, the more effective their practice can be, and the more responsive their practice can be to the needs of adult learners. The study however applied Knowles theory of adult learning known as "Self directed Learning". Approximately 70 percent of adult learning is self-directed (Cross, 1981), and about 90 percent of all adults conduct at least one self-directed learning project a year (Tough, 1971). Self-directed learning (SDL) is a "process in which individuals take the initiative, without the help of others" in planning, carrying

out, and evaluating their own learning experiences (Knowles, 1975). In essence, SDL is an informal process that primarily takes place *outside* the class-room.

What qualifies learning as “self-directed” is where the learner makes decisions about content, methods, resources, and evaluation of the learning. Individuals take responsibility for their own learning process by determining their needs, setting goals, identifying resources, implementing a plan to meet their goals, and evaluating the outcomes.

The benefit of SDL is that learning can easily be incorporated into daily routines and occur both at the learner’s convenience and according to his/her learning preferences. It can involve the learner in isolated activities, such as researching information on the internet; it also can involve the learner in communication with experts and peers, as in a traditional class-room. SDL can be difficult for adults with low-level literacy skills who may lack independence, confidence, internal motivation, or resources. Brookfield (1985) suggests that not all learners prefer the self-directed option and that many adults who engage in SDL also engage in more formal educational programs, such as teacher-directed courses. Within the adult education setting, the teacher can augment traditional classroom instruction with a variety of techniques to foster SDL for individuals or for small groups of learners who are ready and willing to embark on independent, self-directed learning experiences.

Research methodology

Research Design

The study was conducted through descriptive survey design which provided opportunity for the researcher to ask many questions about a given topic giving considerable flexibility to the analysis.

Sample size and Sampling Procedure

A sampling procedure is a strategy used in selecting sample from the target population (Saunders et al, 2007). Stratified sampling was used to sample 553 learners that were used in the study. This procedure was effective because it gave learners equal representation in the study (Orodho, 2004).

The total number of teachers used in the study was 32. The researcher used purposive sampling technique to identify the sample population for teachers. This method was convenient for a small sample size.

Research instruments

Data was collected through use of questionnaires for both teachers and learners. Questionnaires covering both closed and open ended questions were given to the respondents.

The questionnaires permitted greater depth of responses and allowed the respondents to express themselves freely (Oso & Onen 2002).

Instrument Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which research instrument can accurately be interpreted and generalized basing on the findings (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). There was need to test the content

validity of the instruments to measure what the instruments intended to measure. The validity of the instruments was sought from experts in the university. They were requested to examine the research tools for content validity. Their comments were incorporated in the final draft to strengthen the content validity. Piloting was conducted in neighboring Matungu District. The respondents in the study included teachers and learners. The data was compiled, analyzed by use of SPSS programme of computing. The results were then used to revise the instruments. Ambiguities and irrelevancies were then corrected, to enhance validation of instruments (Kothari, 2004).

Instrument Reliability

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results after repeated trials (Willis and Onen, 2005). The researcher employed the test retest method of estimating reliability. The same questionnaire was given to the respondents on different occasions. The correlation between the two tests was found to be higher resulting to good test retest reliability. The correlation between the two tests of scores was completed by use of spearman's rank correlation coefficient (rs)

Data Analysis Techniques and Interpretation

The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Quantitative data was subjected to coding; (Mugenda wa Mugenda 1999). The data was analyzed quantitatively by use of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and presented in the table of frequencies (f), percentages (%) and figures. Open ended questions were analyzed qualitatively where the collected data was thoroughly read and put into meaningful themes, patterns and categories for interpretation.

The findings from the learners 353 (66.2%) revealed that their teachers use lecture method while teaching basic adult education. This is contrary to the curriculum developers and quality assurance and standards directives as the syllabus contain suggested practical activities for learners. Seventy (13.1%) and 71 (13.3%) of learners reported that teachers use group discussion and role playing/demonstration respectively. Out of 533 learners only 15 (4.6%) reported that their teachers used experiments which is the most effective method of teaching adults according to Knowes. However 24 (4.5%) reported that their teachers used all of the above methods in teaching.

The interpretation therefore, would mean that either teachers lacked the basic training in use of varied methods or lack of resources may be the reason behind scarcity use of all the integrated method of teaching in the center. Most teachers used vernacular language (Kiwanga) in teaching the learners out of the 32 teachers sampled only 2 (6.3%) reported to be using English as a language of instruction. Five learners (31.2%) reported to be using Kiswahili language and most of this were teachers in centers next Mumias town where the population in cosmopolitan.

Analysis from the teachers revealed that twenty teachers (62.5%) use lecture method in teaching. Five teachers (15.6%) reported that they involved their learners in learning process through experiments, discussions and presentations. Six teachers (18.8%) reported that they engaged the learners in practical activities using locally made and available resources.

Findings and Conclusion

It was established that majority of adult teachers still apply archaic approach of teaching despite the current changes in pedagogical issues. Teaching and learning resources have not been improved to address the needs of adult learners. Teachers have not been inducted in proper methods of teaching adult learners. The government's financial support towards adult education programmes is wanting

Recommendations

To attract adult learners, adult literacy program should replace authoritarian methodologies with learner centered approach which involves active learner participation from the very beginning.

The programme must be accompanied by income generating activities and skills that will make the adults acquire necessary skill for self- employment in their respective communities. As the society changes, adult curriculum should be changed to adapt to the needs of the learners and the community. The curriculum should be accompanied with teacher's manuals to include suggestions on teaching methods for different educational objectives. Adequate and relevant materials particularly in local languages should be provided.

BAE should be in the mainstream of MoE to enhance proper training personnel and enough supply of resources and equipments that will enable teachers to vary the teaching methodology. There is a need for investment in capacity building to have a full and well trained professionalized staff because majority of adult teachers lack pedagogical skills.

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An Ethnographic Investigation of Cultural Values Pedagogy to Promote Unity in Diversity: The Kenyan Experience

By

Beatrice N. Manyasi*, Peter L. Barasa & Peter Amuka***

Abstract

Education is a social pillar. *It can be used as a tool for social reform* (Gichunuku, 2005). In Kenya, education is considered fundamental for the success of vision 2030 (Kenya Vision 2030 Research team 2007). It ought to equip citizens with knowledge that should enable them to make informed choices about their lives and problems facing the nation. It is expected to provide knowledge, skills and attitudes that will steer Kenyans to the economic and social goals of vision 2030. Curriculum development in Kenya has factored in such issues hence it targets to tackle some of the social problems such as tribalism, knowledge and respect for learners' own and other communities' culture to achieve unity in diversity in Kenya. The instruction of Integrated English is one of the vehicles used to achieve this objective through curriculum implementation. This paper is an ethnographic investigation of the instruction of cultural values to promote unity in diversity in Kenya. The study will apply the qualitative research paradigm. It will use ethnography and multiple cases research methods. Thirty one participants will be purposively sampled and used in the study. The research instruments to generate data will be informal interview, non participant observation and document analysis. The trustworthiness of the study will be established using: multiple research instruments, rich thick description of procedures and methodological triangulation. Data will be analyzed and reported in narration according to emerging themes as per the study objectives. The study will be of much significance to educators, curriculum developers, researchers and policy makers.

Key Words: culture, values, pedagogy, unity, diversity

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Beatrice N. Manyasi, Peter L. Barasa & Peter Amuka (2013). An Ethnographic Investigation of Cultural Values Pedagogy to Promote Unity in Diversity: The Kenyan Experience. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

This paper highlights the importance of using Oral literature items in Integrated English language to sensitize learners to be culturally literate. The paper limits itself to progressive cultural values in the different speech communities in Kenya. The rationale of teaching cultural values of the different speech communities in Kenya through the instruction of Integrated English is to facilitate learners' to understand their own culture and other people's culture and enable them to respect the diverse cultures hence harmonious co-existence among the different speech communities. One of the objectives of teaching oral literature is to enhance national integration (KIE 2006). It was therefore important to investigate the pedagogy used by teachers as curriculum implementers to instruct cultural values to enable learners to master the diverse cultures to enhance social cohesion according to the philosophy of education in Kenya.

Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives.

- (i) To establish the strategies used to teach cultural values to promote unity in diversity in Kenya.
- (ii) To find out the objectives of teaching the cultural values during instruction.

Literature Review

The term culture refers to *“that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, laws, customs... and any other habits acquired by man as a member of society.”* (Lentricchia & McLaughlin 1990). Details as what are considered as virtues or vices in society are usually captured in literal works. It articulates cultural codes of behavior and the roles played by men and women in society. The National Center for Cultural Competence defines culture as an *“integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations”* (Goode et. al, 2000).

The Philosophy of Education in Kenya

The Philosophy of teaching is the sense of purpose of teaching, the critical rationale of teaching or a personal vision of teaching (O’Cormor 1992). Education in Kenya is guided by the philosophy of *“Education and Training for social cohesion as well as Human and Economic Development.”* (Ministry of Education 2005). Social cohesion is only possible when people understand their culture and respect other people's culture, given that Kenya is made up of many speech communities. The varied cultures can be experienced through reading several literal texts based on the culture of different communities. The importance of culture in education is also supported by some philosophies of education.

The Idealism Philosophy

It was advanced by Plato (427-347 B.C) and Froebel (1782-1852). This philosophy advocates that learners should be taught moral values and intellectual knowledge which they need in order to become model citizens. (Myra and David 2000). Teachers should instill respect for authority, perseverance, fidelity to duty and consideration for others. Learners should be taught to be *‘culturally literate’*- to be familiar with the people, events, and institutions that shape their society. In Kenya, education should *“nurture our cultural heritage”* (MOES&T 2005). The eleventh objective of teaching English in secondary schools in Kenya is, *“appreciate and respect*

own as well as other people's culture" (MOES&T 2002). This paper is based on the fifth objective of secondary education; "enhance understanding and respect for own as well as other people's culture and their place in the contemporary society" (KIE, 2002).

Importance of Culture in Language Teaching

Linguists and anthropologists have long recognized that the forms and uses of a given language reflect the cultural values of the society in which the language is spoken. Linguistic competence alone is not enough for learners of a language to be competent in that language (Krasner, 1999). Language learners need to be aware, for example, of the culturally appropriate ways to address people, express gratitude, make requests, and agree or disagree with someone. They should know that behaviors and intonation patterns that are appropriate in their own speech community may be perceived differently by members of other speech communities. They have to understand that, in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behavior. In many regards, culture is taught implicitly, imbedded in the linguistic forms that students are learning. To make students aware of the cultural features reflected in the language, teachers can make those cultural features an explicit topic of discussion in relation to the linguistic forms.

Instructional Strategies for Teaching Language and Culture

Cultural activities and objectives should be carefully organized and incorporated into lesson plans to enrich and inform teaching content. Some useful ideas for presenting culture in the classroom are:

Authentic Materials

Using authentic sources from the target speech communities helps to engage students in authentic cultural experiences. Teachers can adapt their use of authentic materials to suit the age and language proficiency level of the students. For example, even beginning language students can watch and listen to video clips taken from a television show in the target language and focus on such cultural conventions as greetings. The teacher might supply students with a detailed translation or give them a chart, diagram, or outline to complete while they listen to a dialogue or watch a video. After the class has viewed the relevant segments, the teacher can engage the students in discussion of the cultural norms represented in the segments and what these norms might say about the values of the culture. Discussion topics might include nonverbal behaviors such as the physical distance between speakers, gestures, eye contact, societal roles, and how people in different social roles relate to each other. Students might describe the behaviors they observe and discuss which of them are similar to their native culture and which are not and determine strategies for effective communication in the target language.

Proverbs

Discussion of common proverbs in the target language could focus on how the proverbs are different from or similar to proverbs in the students' speech community and how differences might underscore historical and cultural background (Ciccarelli, 1996). Using proverbs as a way to explore culture also provides a way to analyze the stereotypes about and misperceptions of the culture, as well as a way for students to explore the values that are often represented in the proverbs of their native culture.

Role Play

In role plays, students can act out a miscommunication that is based on cultural differences. For example, after learning about ways of addressing different groups of people in the target culture, such as people of the same age and older people, students could role play a situation in which an inappropriate greeting is used. Other students observe the role play and try to identify the reason for the miscommunication. They then role play the same situation using a culturally appropriate form of address such as during a marriage negotiations of. The way such negotiations are conducted in varied speech communities can be conducted through role play, discuss the similarities and differences, then know and appreciate one's own and other communities' culture.

Culture Capsules

Students can be presented with objects (e.g., figurines, tools, jewelry, and art) or images that originate from the target culture. The students are then responsible for finding information about the item in question, either by conducting research or by being given clues to investigate. They can either write a brief summary or make an oral presentation to the class about the cultural relevance of the item. Such activities can also serve as a foundation from which teachers can go on to discuss larger cultural, historical, and linguistic factors that tie in with the objects. Such contextualization is, in fact, important to the success of using culture capsules.

Students as Cultural Resources

Kenyan schools are more culturally and ethnically diverse. Students can be used as expert sources. These students can share authentic insights into the home and cultural life of their communities.

Ethnographic Studies

An effective way for students to learn about the target language and culture is to send them into their own community to find information. Students can carry out ethnographic interviews with native speakers in the community, which they can record in notebooks or on audiotapes or videotapes. Discussion activities could include oral family histories, interviews with community professionals, and studies of social groups (Pino, 1997). Literary texts are often replete with cultural information and evoke memorable reactions for readers. Texts that are carefully selected for a given group of students and with specific goals in mind can be very helpful in allowing students to acquire insight into a culture.

Film

Film and television segments offer students an opportunity to witness behaviors that are not obvious in texts. Film is often one of the more current and comprehensive ways to encapsulate the look, feel, and rhythm of a culture. Film also connects students with language and cultural issues simultaneously (Stephens, 2001), such as depicting conversational timing or turn-taking in conversation. At least one study showed that students achieved significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching videos from the target culture in the classroom (Herron, Cole, Corrie, & Dubreil, 1999). The idea of teaching culture is nothing new to second language teachers. In many cases, teaching culture has meant focusing a few lessons on holidays, customary clothing, folk songs, and food. While these topics may be useful, without a broader context or frame they offer little in the way of enriching linguistic or social insight, especially if

a goal of language instruction is to enable students to function effectively in another language and society. Understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greetings, farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments means more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences. It means knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations, and it means understanding the beliefs and values represented by the various forms and usages of the language. Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning to enable learners understand and appreciate their own and other people's way of life. Language teacher educators should therefore prepare language teachers to facilitate the achievement of the above objective.

Methodology

The study used the qualitative research methodology. Qualitative research methods gather in-depth understanding of issues that concern education such as content, knowledge, pedagogy and the goals the education system should serve (Cohen, 2007; Mason, 2002). The researcher used ethnography. A researcher can choose to use a *compressed time* mode where the researcher inhabit a research site almost permanently for a given period of time, usually up to three months. The second time mode is referred to as a *recurrent time mode*. The researcher visits and observes social issues in phases, usually when the particular social issue occurs. The study used the third type of time mode, which is the *selective intermittent time mode* (Jeffrey and Troman, 2004). Selective intermittent time mode calls for a longer time of the researcher's visits, three to two years. However, it is a very flexible approach; the frequency of the research site visits is determined by the researcher's own programs (Pole and Morrison, 2003). Creswell (2007) says that ethnography as a method emphasizes the importance of studying at firsthand what people do and say in particular contexts. In Kenya all secondary schools offer the subject hence have teachers of English. The researcher selected public schools which offer the same curriculum. The only difference was the school setting. The study therefore used an *ethnographic case study* (Hammersley and Artkinson, 2007). Qualitative research uses small samples that do not have to be representative of a target population (Cohen, 2007; Yin, 2003). Thirty one teachers of English were purposively sampled from TSC return forms in the selected county that is inhabited by diverse communities. The research instruments used to generate data were informal interview, non participant observation and document analysis. The trustworthiness of the study was established using: multiple research instruments, rich thick description of procedures and methodological triangulation. Yin (2009) says that multiple cases hence multiple settings in qualitative studies are important when generating data. I therefore used five schools, having a total of thirty one teachers of English. The background information of the different case schools is summarized in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: Case Schools Background Information

<i>Case school</i>	<i>Type of school</i>	<i>Target population</i>	<i>Number of students</i>	<i>Number of streams</i>
C _{S1}	National	10	1100	6
C _{S2}	County	7	800	4
C _{S3}	County	6	760	4
C _{S4}	District	4	400	2
C _{S5}	District	4	380	2

Key

- C_{S1}. Case School 1
 C_{S2}. Case school 2
 C_{S3}. Case school 3
 C_{S4}. Case school 4
 C_{S5}. Case school 5

In Kenya, schools were previously categorized by the government as national, provincial (current county schools) and district schools. The school category is a reflection of the catchment area of the school in terms of admission of students. National schools admit the best performed students from all over the nation. County schools admit a significant percentage of the students from the county within which the school is located and a small percentage from the entire nation. District schools admit students from the district the school are located. It was important to get the background information of participants. Apart from the case schools background information, the participants' background information is summarized in Table 1.2 below. Cohen et. al (2007); Creswell, (2009) and Yin (2009) have argued that qualitative research calls for thick description of the cases used in the study, the entire research process and the participants, to ensure dependability and transferability. Based on their arguments, I described the case schools and participants' background information case by case.

Table 1.2: Case School One Participants' Background Information

<i>Case school</i>	<i>Participant</i>	<i>Teaching Subjects</i>	<i>Qualification</i>	<i>Teaching Experience</i>
C _{S1}	Tr1	Eng / Lit	M.ED	20
C _{S1}	Tr2	Eng / Lit	B.ED	6
C _{S1}	Tr3	Eng / Lit	B.ED	30
C _{S1}	Tr4	Eng / Lit	B.ED	15
C _{S1}	Tr5	Eng / Lit	B.ED	12
C _{S1}	Tr6	Eng / Lit	B.ED	11
C _{S1}	Tr7	Eng / Lit	M.ED	20
C _{S1}	Tr8	Eng / Lit	B.ED	16
C _{S1}	Tr9	Eng / Lit	B.ED	5
C _{S1}	Tr10	Eng / Lit	M.ED	19

Key

Cs1 – means case school one

Tr1 – means teacher one

The other numerical represent the ten (10) teachers of English in case school one respectively.

Eng/Lit- means the two teaching subjects for the teacher are English and Literature.

Cs1 Tr1 – means teacher one, from case school one

B.ED – means a bachelors degree in education

M.ED – means masters in education.

Teaching experience – means the number of years the teacher has served in the teaching profession as a trained teacher. All the ten teachers were trained to teach English and Literature. Three of them had a masters degree in education while the remaining seven had bachelors degree in Education. They were quite experienced as their years of service ranged from five (5) to thirty (30).

In case school two, I established the background information of participants and the data is summarized in Table 1.3 below.

Table 1.3: Case School Two Participants' Background Information

<i>Case School</i>	<i>Participant</i>	<i>Teaching Subjects</i>	<i>Qualification</i>	<i>Teaching Experience</i>
Cs ₂	Tr1	Eng / Lit	M.ED	30
Cs ₂	Tr2	Eng / Lit	B.ED	12
Cs ₂	Tr3	Eng / Lit	B.ED	10
Cs ₂	Tr4	Eng / Lit	M.ED	22
Cs ₂	Tr5	Eng / Lit	B.ED	15
Cs ₂	Tr6	Eng / Lit	PGDE	19
Cs ₂	Tr7	Eng / Lit	B.ED	6

Key

- Cs 2 - Case School Two
- Tr 1 - Teacher one
- Cs2 Tr1 - Means teacher one from case school two
- Eng/Lit - English and literature
- B.ED - Bachelors Degree in Education
- PGDE - Post Graduate Diploma in Education

Two teachers had a master's degree in education. One had a post graduate diploma in education. Four had bachelor's degree in education. The participants were experienced teachers as their years of service ranged from six to thirty.

In case three (C3) school, participants' background information is summarized in Table 1.4 below.

Table 1.4 Case Three School Participants' Background Information

<i>Case School</i>	<i>Participant</i>	<i>Teaching Subjects</i>	<i>Qualification</i>	<i>Teaching Experience</i>
Cs ₃	Tr1	Eng / Lit	PGDE	9
Cs ₃	Tr2	Eng / Lit	B.ED	7
Cs ₃	Tr3	Eng / Lit	B.ED	23
Cs ₃	Tr4	Eng / Lit	B.ED	18
Cs ₃	Tr5	Eng / Lit	B.ED	19
Cs ₃	Tr6	Eng / Lit	M.ED	11

Key

- Cs3 - Case School three
- Tr1 - Teacher one
- Cs3Tr1 - Means case school three, teacher one.

One teacher had a master's degree in education. Four had a bachelor's degree in education while one had a post graduate diploma in education.

The background information of teachers from case four school (C54) is summarized in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5: Case School Four Participants' Background Information

<i>Case School</i>	<i>Participant</i>	<i>Teaching Subjects</i>	<i>Qualification</i>	<i>Teaching Experience</i>
C _{S4}	Tr1	Eng / Lit	B.ED	18
C _{S4}	Tr2	Eng / Lit	B.ED	10
C _{S4}	Tr3	Eng / Lit	B.ED	17
C _{S4}	Tr4	Eng / Lit	PGDE	4

Key

- C_{S4} - case school four
 Tr1 - Teacher one
 B.ED - Bachelor of Education
 PGDE - Post Graduate Diploma in Education

Apart from one teacher who had a post graduate diploma in education, the other three had bachelor's degree in education. Their teaching experience ranged from four years to 18 years.

Case school five participants' background information is summarized in Table 1.6 below.

Table 1.6: Case School Five Participants' Background Information

<i>Case school</i>	<i>Participant</i>	<i>Teaching Subjects</i>	<i>Qualification</i>	<i>Teaching Experience</i>
C _{S5}	Tr1	Eng / Lit	B.ED	5
C _{S5}	Tr2	Eng / Lit	B.ED	9
C _{S5}	Tr3	Eng / Lit	B.ED	2
C _{S5}	Tr4	Eng / Lit	PGDE	11

Key

- C_{S5} - Case School 5
 Tr1 - Teacher One
 B.ED - Bachelor of Education
 PGDE - Post Graduate Diploma in Education

Three teachers had bachelor's degree in education while one had a post graduate diploma in education.

After coding the participants were best identified by the case schools as below.

- Cs1 Tr1 - teacher one from case school one
 Cs2 Tr1 - teacher one from case school two
 Cs3 Tr1 - teacher one from case school three

Cs4 Tr1 - teacher one from case school four

Cs5 Tr1 - teacher one from case school five

Findings and Discussion

Strategies Used to Teach Language and Cultural Values

The researcher observed the instruction of reading lessons to establish whether the aim was to enable learners to understand and respect their own and other communities' culture and the instructional strategies used.

The researcher observed the teaching of an oral narrative by Cs3Tr1 about, '*The origin of Death.*' One student read the narrative aloud as others read silently. Learners were given time to discuss the following questions.

Classify the oral narrative.

State the features of such narratives.

How would the narrator make the story more interesting?

List characteristics of death evident in the narrative

What economic activities are practiced in the community the narrative originates?

State five significance of storytelling

List other types of oral narratives.

The students discussed the questions and reported their answers to the teacher. The teacher corrected them as they took notes. The teacher did not tell students from different cultural backgrounds to narrate different narratives to understand the different views from different communities.

The researcher observed the teaching of a trickster narrative by Cs2Tr7 about, '*Hare meets his match.*' Students read the narrative silently then one student read it aloud. Students answered comprehension questions based on the narrative orally.

The questions were:

Why did the sweet potato farm become the envy of the village?

How did Hyena react when Hare was whipped by the farmer?

Why did hyena agree to demolish the statue?

Do you think Hare was justified to leave Hyena in the shamba?

The researcher also observed the teaching of an ogre narrative titled, '*A young woman and the Ogre*'

One student read the narrative aloud as others read it silently.

The teacher conducted the lesson being guided by the comprehension questions after the narrative. The questions that guided the discussion were:

Classify the story giving reasons from the passage

Identify and illustrate two features of oral narratives found in the story

If you were to narrate the story, how would you make it lively?

Identify and illustrate social and economic activities practiced by the community in which the story is drawn from.

Give the character traits of the following:

Ogre

Civil

Warrior

State the functions of the song used in the narrative.

Using a proverb, summarize the moral lesson in the story. NB.

The questions to be answered were more of comprehension of the genre integrated with a summary writing task. No culture teaching strategies were used to capture views from different cultural orientations.

To understand the perspective of teachers about learner's mastery of diverse cultural values through reading pedagogy to promote unity in diversity, I used a follow up interview to seek clarification on some issues. Participants' responses were as presented bellow.

Researcher: why is the teaching of oral narratives similar to the teaching of comprehension? passages? Students read the passage, and then they answered comprehension Questions.

Participant: To train learners to approach answering questions the way KNEC sets exams. It is Part of examination skills. Teaching the way it will be examined.

Researcher: Why should you use oral literature (oral narratives) to test grammar items such as rewriting sentences in the passive, active, direct and indirect speech.

Participant: To conform to the recommended approach of integrated English language teaching. Literature items are used to teach grammar. Grammar items should not be taught and examined in isolation. The same is emphasized during assessment of learners at all levels in secondary schools. Teacher workshops emphasize about integrating of language skills while teaching.

Researcher: Which instructional strategies do you use to teach language and cultural values to ensure that learners respect their culture and other people's culture?

Participant: Reading, question and answers rewriting sentences, summary writing, integrating the teaching of language items and skills with culture values.

Participants had no knowledge of instructional strategies used to teach language and cultural values. They were mentioning how to integrate the teaching of language skills and literature.

Use of Reading to Understand Own and Other People's Culture

Kenya has over forty speech communities hence cultures. There is no one Kenyan culture hence students from different communities should be exposed to the culture of other speech communities in the classroom. There are many reasons of teaching oral literature. One of the objectives is to enhance national integration (Akombo et al. 2009). Being aware of one's culture and other people's cultural practices is meant to make secondary school students more tolerant of other people's cultural practices, accept them the way they are, respect their way of life and stop cultural stereotypes; which has been a major cause of tribalism (Akombo, 2009). No one is supposed to view other communities as inferior due to their cultural practices.

Oral literature is taught as part of integrated English in secondary schools in Kenya. For the teachers to take up their role to facilitate learners to know about their cultural practices and other communities' practices, it means they should select oral literature reading materials from different communities purposefully to achieve the objective. Learners should understand that no culture is superior or inferior, but we are different because of cultural diversity. Kenyans should live in harmony as one people, one nation although different communities have different cultural practices, hence unity in diversity.

Objectives of Teaching Cultural Values

Cultural values are found in oral literature items selected from the diverse communities in Kenya. Therefore, the objectives of teaching cultural values could be established through analysis of the objectives of teaching oral literature items in the schemes of work. Aanalysis of schemes of work revealed that the objectives of teaching oral literature items were:

To classify the genre of oral literature.

- To state and describe the features of the piece of oral literature.
- To list the functions of the piece of oral literature.
- To describe the economic activity practiced by the community from which the genre is taken from.
- To explain the suitable audience for the given genre of oral literature.
- To answer comprehension questions on the narrative correctly after listening to the teacher read it.
- To analyze stylistic devices used in the piece of oral literature
- To explain the moral lesson in the piece of oral literature
- To identify the features of and narratives
- To describe the characteristics of certain oral narratives.

The objectives focused on students knowing about the genres and answering comprehension questions on the genres. There were no objectives in the affective domain. Likewise, the instruction of oral literature genres was not used to facilitate learners' understanding of their own culture and other people's culture to enable them respect other people's culture hence harmonious co-existence of the different communities in Kenya. One of the objectives of teaching oral literature is to enhance national integration (Akombo et al 2009). It would not be achieved by the way the instruction was conducted.

Data generated through observation established that the teaching of oral literature genres such as oral narratives which were read and analyzed was not different from the teaching of other reading passages. Students read the narratives and answered comprehension questions based on the oral narrative. Instructional strategies for teaching cultural values that can facilitate students to understand and respect their own culture and other people's culture include the use of authentic materials, role play, culture capsules, students as cultural resource persons, resource persons from outside the school and films (Cicarvelli, 1996 and Stephens, 2001). None of these instructional strategies were used during classroom practice.

Conclusion

All participants in the study were experienced teachers of English. They were all trained to teach English and literature. Their teaching experiences ranged from two years to thirty years. Therefore, their views reflect English language teacher education and English language teaching in Kenya.

English being a compulsory subject to all secondary school students, it can be best used through the instruction of reading to instill cultural values among students in secondary schools hence using the curriculum or education as a tool for change and for social reform which is fundamental for the success of vision 2030 in Kenya. The study revealed that from the instructional planning stage to classroom practice, there was no significant attempt to enable learners to understand the diverse cultures in Kenya and acquire positive attitudes which would lead to harmonious co existence hence unity in diversity. Teachers' cognition, their thoughts and beliefs influence their classroom practice, specifically their pedagogy of cultural values to promote unity in diversity. No culture teaching strategies were used to enable teachers achieve the objective of national integration through curriculum implementation. None of the participants said that they would consider using the strategies in future as they belief they are doing the right thing; adding value to students, meaning, enabling learners to get high scores in the subject. Besides, the affective issues about cultural values are not examined hence they are ignored, much emphasis is put on strategies that enable learners to score high marks. They also said that the Integrated English Language content is overloaded putting on them a lot of pressure to complete

the syllabus hence it was impractical to expect them to use culture teaching strategies as they would consume a lot of time.

Implication for Policy

Education in Kenya is guided by the philosophy of *Education and Training for social cohesion as well as Human and Economic Development*, however, the study revealed that teachers are guided by the philosophy of education of cultural values to score high marks. The Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (K.I.C.D.) should exam learners' on their knowledge about cultural values of the diverse speech communities through essay writing to motivate teachers to teach them.

Curriculum developers should consider teachers' complain that the Integrated English Language syllabus is too wide and design a short course about 'Diverse Cultures but one Nation.' The course should be taught to all high school students specifically focusing on the diverse cultures and it should be examined through essay writing to make teachers explore the affective dimension of the course.

Teacher educators should design a course about 'Diverse Cultures but one Nation' to prepare teachers to teach the course and establish the rationale of teaching it in secondary schools in Kenya.

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An Evaluation of the Social Studies Programme Textbook Content at Stage Four (4) Level in Zimbabwean Primary Schools

By

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Abstract

The research study sought to find out if social studies textbooks used at stage 4 level in Zimbabwean primary schools are deficient in content. The focus was on the relevance and adequacy of the content to meet National Curriculum Standards. Available literature point to the fact that some textbooks are big but teach less and that graduates from various courses are coming out raw in terms of content because of poor textbooks. It was therefore pertinent to draw data from teachers and also carry out a rigorous content analysis of the textbooks to determine the extent to which they satisfy National Curriculum Standards. The study adopted a mixed approach whereby both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. Teachers from one Education district in Zimbabwe were involved in the study. Data was collected through questionnaires, interviews and a content analysis of the prescribed textbooks. Data was presented, analysed and discussed in line with the sub- research questions. The findings of the research reveal an inherent deficiency in content in the prescribed textbooks. The findings show that there are glaring omissions of significant content in the textbooks. It also emerged that aspects like objectivity of text, multidisciplinary approaches, multiculturalism and the constructivist approach have not been addressed adequately in the prescribed textbooks. The study also found out that there are flaws in the provision, evaluation and adoption of prescribed textbooks in Zimbabwean primary schools as not all stakeholders are involved in this enterprise. The need to engage all stakeholders in the writing of course material and evaluation of prescribed textbooks would go a long way in assuring the availability of quality prescribed textbooks to learners. In this regard some numerous recommendations have been proffered to ensure that textbook development benefits the teaching learning process. It is interesting to study this area because Social Studies is a relatively new subject in the Zimbabwean primary school curriculum and it appears there are still some grey areas that need interrogation.

Keywords: Textbook evaluation, Content analysis, Constructivist, Interdisciplinary; Multiculturalism

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Kapfidze Gabriel & Maile Simeon (2013). An Evaluation of the Social Studies Programme Textbook Content at Stage Four (4) Level in Zimbabwean Primary Schools. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

After independence in 1980, the government of Zimbabwe embarked on major curriculum reforms particularly in the primary school system. The shift from the teaching of history and geography in primary school to the introduction of the 'new' subject Social studies is of particular concern in this research. However the inclusion of Social studies in the national curriculum was a major innovation as the old history and geography had become irrelevant in independent Zimbabwe. The old history and geography popularized imperial interests at the expense of national interests and indigenous knowledge forms; such colonial approaches were culturally toxic.

Banks (1990) says Social studies is that part of the curriculum which has the primary responsibility of helping students to develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to participate in the civic life of their local communities, nation and world. While the introduction of Social Studies was innovative curriculum reform it can be noted that content in Social studies is very diverse and there is need to constantly edit and re- edit Social Studies textbooks in line with changing patterns in the world. Editing would ensure the subject content remains relevant to prevailing situations (Van Zyl 2007).

The National Report on the Development of Education in Zimbabwe (2004:6) acknowledges the textbooks problem as follows:

“As for the content of education, the system is grappling with the challenges of recruiting suitable material writers and timeous production of materials. The main problems and challenges facing the education system at the beginning of the 21st century include inadequate textbooks and stationery in schools.”

Hence this research has been prompted by the need to find out the relevance and adequacy of content in current Social Studies textbooks. Textbooks content at stage 4, grade six and seven can ensure pupils understand critical social issues from local occurrences to international perspectives. Textbooks can seek to give pupils access to relevant information, such detail in the textbook would ensure pupils meet new demands and emerging issues in various social institutions across the world.

Hendrickson (2008) supports the above contention when he states that pupils will be equipped with innovative knowledge so that they understand complex societal concepts.

Kochhar (1984) alludes to the fact that social studies is interdisciplinary and it would appear that educationists are not clear on the Social Studies content. Social Studies textbooks have to be crafted to meet the multi- disciplinary approach of the subject. This ideal calls for competent authorship to address the various concepts inherent in Social Studies.

My experience in teaching Social studies points to the observation that some textbooks in Social Studies for the primary school do not cover the syllabus content adequately. This research sought to carry out an empirical investigation to determine if the Social Studies textbooks have a content deficiency and the way forward in resolving the problem.

It is therefore necessary to carry out this study and make a textbook content analysis of the Social Studies textbooks to determine the level of content they hold and whether the content meets syllabus stipulations at stage 4.

The textbook is a vital vehicle in passing on information and knowledge particularly in Third World countries where resources are limited. Textbooks can cover the syllabus adequately in the absence of other resources (Kapfudz 2003). It is important to bring this problem to the fore so that the 'new' subject does not suffer in terms of effective and relevant publications.

Examining textbooks demonstrates diversity in research as not much has been written in the Social Studies area. Nicholls (2007:9) states that, "it does not take expert frequency and space analysis to realize that published discussions of generic methods in textbook research are under-represented.

If an innovative approach to textbook evaluation, production, evaluation and adoption is not envisioned, the relatively 'new' subject Social Studies aims will be negated and the subject will drown into irrelevance as happened in the 1920s.

Statement of the problem:

The shift from History and Geography to Social Studies in Zimbabwe's primary schools had its own problems of implementation; of particular concern is resource allocation to facilitate effective implementation of the Social Studies programme. The main problem this investigation seeks to unravel is that: it would appear that there is content deficiency in the prescribed textbooks for stage 4 Social Studies in the primary schools in Zimbabwe. The content deficiency in Social Studies textbooks would impact negatively on the grade seven graduates as he/she would lack the general knowledge base acceptable in Social studies as prescribed in the Social Studies Syllabus.

The structural content deficits in the textbooks would affect the effective and adequate coverage of the Social Studies syllabus at stage 4 level; grade six and seven. The deficiency in content would lead to the production of a grade seven graduate who is uninformed. There is therefore need to establish the content levels in stage 4 Social Studies textbooks in Zimbabwe from educators and also a content analysis of the prescribed textbooks.

Main research question

Do the Social Studies Textbooks at stage 4; grade six and seven in Zimbabwean primary school have relevant content and cover the syllabus adequately?

Sub- Research Questions

In answering the main research question the following sub- questions assisted in collaborating the main question:

To what extent do teachers in grade six and seven know content in Social Studies?

Is there sufficient coverage of all the topics in the Social Studies textbooks from national, regional to international issues?

Do the Social Studies textbooks adopt a constructivist approach to knowledge construction?

Do the textbooks cover contemporary issues as envisioned in the syllabus?

Is the multi- disciplinary nature of Social Studies exhibited in the textbooks?

Is the Social Studies textbook content accurate, objective and recent? i.e. bias, prejudice and bigotry.

What is government policy in terms of the provision, evaluation, publication and adoption of prescribed textbooks?

Justification of the study

The research is essential as it seeks to get opinions of practicing teachers and also an empirical content analysis of the textbooks. The findings would assist in improving practice in the schools and also from the various stakeholders. The findings of this research would instil confidence in practicing teachers in the use of textbooks if they happen to read this report. The Social Studies arena in Zimbabwe is littered with many programmes that have not been evaluated. This has dissatisfied this researcher and hence this research is aimed at self- satisfaction.

An identification of any problems with the prescribed textbooks should surely lead to improvement in this area. In this research the researcher will come up with an analytical instrument for textbook content evaluation. This will help in textbook selection and adoption processes in future. I am assuming that the findings of this research will get their way to policy makers and professionals in the education fraternity through library reading or further researches of this nature. This will assist in coming up with policy that is based on empirical investigations. In textbook evaluations, checklists feature much of McCormick (1981), Williams (1983), Shaw (1993), Cunningsworth (1995), Chambers (1995) and McGrath (2002)'s works that contain pertinent steps relevant to textbook evaluation.

Most of these checklists are relevant to English language Teaching. This research will come up with an analytical instrument which is Social Studies Content Specific. The instrument so designed would be usable in the pre-use, in-use and post-use of given textbooks. Thus it will be a universal instrument on Content Analysis (Cunningsworth 1994). The instrument will evaluate potential and suitability of the textbooks. (Rubdy 2003) advocates for a needs analysis process in the construction of checklists e.g. does the text have potential for self- directed, independent learning, this goes along favourably with constructivists' thinking. Textbooks should cover all aspects of the curriculum. (Tyson- Bernstein 1993) and they are crucial to the effective implementation of the curriculum (Chisholm 2000).

It is therefore imperative that a research of this nature is critical. Education should not frown on content and the bedrock of content provision is textbooks.

Theoretical considerations

In examining social constructivism I do so with the understanding that it is a philosophical foundation that is informing this research. The philosophical underpinnings are that knowledge is a social construct hence textbooks should demonstrate the learners' experiences in society in their totality. It is society which determines whether the level of knowledge one has at a particular level or grade is socially acceptable. Society determines which graduate is content deficient and which one is knowledgeable. However, no book can manage such huge content. The activities and questions at the end of each chapter can seek to broaden the informational base of the learners. This coupled with relevant diagrams and other relevant illustrations. The textbook must act as a conversational partner in knowledge acquisition (Bakker, Blokland-Eskell and Ruane -2010). This is the essence of constructivist pedagogy.

Theoretical framework

The study will be informed by the theories of Content Analysis. This theoretical overview of my research will guide the research processes as to the precise intentions of the investigation.

(Trafford and Leshem 2008: 44) call this the picture of the theoretical territory or theoretical scaffolding. It gives clear guidelines i.e. an architectural plan of how the research will be conducted.

The theoretical framework gives a strategy for the research planning and the actual investigation i.e. data collection and analysis. That means the analysis of content in the set textbooks will be done using the stated theoretical framework. General views in terms of policy issues in textual analysis will be adopted from the theoretical framework. Hence the framework will integrate the theory and practice. A theoretical framework is a conceptual model of how one theorizes or makes logical sense of the relationships among several factors that have been identified as important to the problem (Sekaran, 2000, Radhakrishna, Yoder and Ewing 2007). The definition of the word framework is a theory which can be used as a lens to look at a set of facts. (OPPapers 2010). It determines what things you will measure. The theoretical framework will ensure that you are objective in your research as preconceived ideas (bias) are erased. Thus a theoretical framework is a guide in research.

Content analysis models

Newman et al 1995

Newman's model is grounded on critical thinking and the unit of analysis is thematic. Newman advocates for group learning, deep learning and critical thinking (Wever et al 2006). In his model on analysis of content he includes ten categories which are relevance, importance, novelty, outside knowledge, ambiguities, linking ideas, justification, critical assessment, practical utility and width of understanding. Newman proposes the use of indicators YES or NO on the categories envisaged.

In this research I adopt Newman's model of content analysis because it is grounded in constructivist pedagogy and the unit of analysis is the theme which are characteristic of themes in Social Studies. Newman's model advocates for critical thinking, group learning and deep learning. These ideals form the bedrock of constructivist approaches to textbook production. Newman et al's model is also a hybrid model developed from Henri's (1992) and Garrison's 1991 models. This makes it a more comprehensive content analysis model.

Overview of the methodology

Both qualitative and quantitative paradigms were used in this investigation. However the qualitative approaches dominated. According to Berg (1998) it would be appropriate to employ both paradigms to facilitate triangulation. On the choice of a research design, White (2005: 80) states that, "it ought to be clear even at this early stage that a researcher can choose to combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches in the same study."

The basic research design in this thesis is case study method which naturally falls under qualitative research (Insch, Moore and Murphy 1997). According to Mouton (2006: 55), A research design is a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research. The design looks at the type of study you want to engage in and the research instruments you intend to employ. This research design was constructed to evaluate the content adequacy in stage 4 grade 6 and 7 Social Studies textbooks in Zimbabwean primary schools.

Samples & sampling procedure

The target population

Primary school teachers teaching stage 4 Social Studies; that is grade six and seven where the target group. Headmasters and pupils in grade six and seven were also part of the target population. The research was restricted to six (6) primary schools in Norton Urban Area which is a small dormitory town 40km from the capital city of Zimbabwe, Harare. Rural schools were left out because of transport costs and problems of accessibility. Besides, it was easier for the researcher to target this group as he resides in Norton.

The researcher also noted from his experience in the education field that what happens in Zimbabwean Primary Schools as regards the textbook situation in Social Studies is not fundamentally different.

Population sample

It was wise to choose a portion of the population, as it was not feasible to address the whole population because of; time, accessibility and financial constraints. Sharma (1993) alludes to this position when he says that a handful is examined and the idea about the whole is formed. The sample for this research was six (6) primary schools in Norton Urban area. At each school grade 6 and grade 7 teachers were engaged in this research. The six headmasters were also involved. This sample was easier to access as the researcher resides in Norton. Sharma 1993 goes further to state that a doctor uses only a single drop of blood to gain some inferences on the nature of diseases affecting a person. This clearly justifies the use of a population sample and the case study research method. Sampling has the added advantage of facilitating a detailed study as respondents will be few and manageable (Kapfudz 2003). Sampling makes research economic and reliable as items investigated are almost homogenous. The accessible population for this research was six primary schools in Norton Urban Area, particularly the headmasters and primary school Social Studies teachers in grade six and seven. Harare schools were avoided because of research fatigue inherent in this area (Kapfudz 2003).

Sampling procedure

Norton urban area has six primary schools of which only one is a former Group 'A' primary school i.e. former whites only school. All other 5 schools are Group B schools i.e. former black's only schools. The resource base of all these schools is similar in terms of textbook provision.

The researcher selected all the six primary schools in Norton Urban Area which constitutes 100% of the primary schools. This sample is quite representative and research findings can be safely generalized, as there are no fundamental variables among schools in Zimbabwe in terms of prescribed textbook usage.

Borg and Gall (1989:215) support the above contention when they state that,

“The sample should be selected by some process that permits us to assume that the sample is representative of the population which it has drawn on those variables that are relevant to the research we are planning to conduct.”

Ary, et al (1990) suggests that the required minimum for a representative sample would be 10% of the population.

Data collection techniques

In this study, the researcher used interviews, questionnaire and document analysis to ensure impartiality of data collected. Cohen and Manion (1994) encourage the use of a multi- method

approach to facilitate triangulation. Document analysis was carried out and an extensive literature study was used to analyze textbooks.

Questionnaire

Out of 42 questionnaires dispatched 26 were returned after being completed satisfactorily. This constitutes 61.9% positive response rate.

Interviews

Unscheduled interviews were conducted as complementary to the questionnaire with Headmasters and teachers to solicit perceptions on Social Studies content adequacy in prescribed textbooks. A conversational approach was adopted in these interviews.

Documents analyzed

SCHEMES OF WORK: Schemes used in the schools cover a term and given topics. The schemes examined covered all the ten topics in the Social Studies Syllabus.

Details of textbooks analyzed.

All in all six books were examined, three for each grade. It should be noted that these are the only available books in the primary school system in Social Studies in Zimbabwe. All in all six books were examined, three for each grade. It should be noted that these are the only available books in the primary school system in Social Studies in Zimbabwe.

No.	AUTHOR	BOOK TITLE	GRADE	PUBLICATION YEAR
1	House .J. House .M. Nyamufukudza .S.	Ventures Living Together .Social Studies Stage 4	6	1988
2	Machawira .M.S	Social Studies in Action Stage 4	6	1988
3	No Author	Living and Working Together Stage 4 Pupils' Book	6	1986
4	House .M. HOUSE .J. Edited by Nyamfukudza .S.	Ventures Living Together Social Studies Stage 4	7	1989
5	Machawira .M.S	Social Studies in Action Stage 4	7	1989
6	No Author	Living and Working Together Stage 4 Pupils' Book	7	1989

Summary of the main findings and discussion of the findings

Introduction

In this installment I summarize the findings of this research based on each sub- research question. I also present a proposed analytical instrument which may be used for supposedly effective content analysis. I further present limitations of the study and also suggest avenues for further research in this area. Finally I conclude this research and proffer some recommendations as regards textbook content analysis.

The study was premised on a general feeling that there is a data deficiency in our Grade 7 graduates in Zimbabwean Primary Schools and this could be attributed to inadequacy of content in the prescribed textbooks the learners use at that level.

Sub- research question I: to what extent do teachers in grade six and seven know content in social studies?

The findings of the study in this regard were that the teachers are highly qualified and that they have the requisite core subjects in Social Studies at 'O' Level. This may demonstrate that they know content in Social Studies. However the figures show that out of N= 26, 13 teachers had a very good knowledge of social studies content while the rest N- 13 suggested some inadequacy in the content knowledge of Social Studies.

The contemporary element in Social Studies requires continued reading by teachers to keep abreast with content and this aspect of readership was not inherent in the respondents. Hence quality textbooks would assist teachers who do not have a sound base of the Social Studies content. (Graseck 2000 Kynlicka 1992) allude to the above contention when they indicate that when teachers know less the learners have little to learn from them. The textbook becomes a critical component to enhance teacher subject content knowledge (SCK)

Sub- research question 2: is there sufficient coverage of all the topics in the social studies textbooks?

What emerged from the study is that the content coverage in the textbooks is inadequate. Responses from teachers varied in some cases but implicit in the data was the fact that content coverage was inadequate. The figures for content adequacy and inadequacy were hovering around 40% and 54% respectively, an indication that the content ranges from unsatisfactory to satisfactory.

The overall figures of 61, 54% showing non coverage of adequate content of textbooks in Social Studies reveal that the textbooks have a content deficiency. (Schulman 1986) suggests that if content is deficient to some degree in the textbooks the amount of content they pass on to the learners is also undermined.

The content analysis of the 10 themes in the Social Studies textbooks also reveal that there are glaring omissions in content in the textbooks when measured against the National Curriculum Standards.

Sub-research question 3: do the social studies textbooks adopt a constructivist approach to knowledge construction?

Constructivist theorists advocate for learner activity in the teaching/ learning process. Learners have to construct their own knowledge through various activities that are crafted by teachers or are found in the prescribed textbook. Newman's model on content analysis advocates for critical thinking, group learning and deep learning. These ideals form the basis of constructivist approaches even to textbook production.

The textbooks so analysed showed some evidence of group learning and also some activities or tasks set out for learners. However at stage 4 level the tasks were not challenging enough as they did not develop deep learning and critical thinking.

Stage 4 as an exit stage requires learners who are interrogative and inquisitive not submissive elements. The textbooks fail to produce this envisioned learner. The textbooks propagate transmission learning which results in surface learning and uncritical thinking as outlined by (Wever, Schellens, Valcke and Van Veer 2005)

Sub-research question 4: do the textbooks cover contemporary issues as envisioned in the syllabus?

The study revealed that this aspect has been ignored grossly. The textbooks do not have any section to cover this critical component in the Social studies program.

The Social Studies graduate must be an informed person who is well versed in current issues. The textbooks could have had a section or session to deal with this important aspect. This could have been in the form of set tasks at the end of the chapter or at the beginning so that learners are able to link past, present and future practice, characteristics common to the Social Studies. (Project 2061: 2012) buttress this assertion when they say that textbooks should help learners

understand and apply important concepts. The application component is closely related to current practice.

Teachers' responses on contemporality of the textbooks reveal that 58% felt that the textbooks do not address this aspect clearly yet Social Studies is a living subject that calls for dialogue on day to day occurrences

Sub- research question 5: is the multi- disciplinary nature of social studies exhibited in the textbooks?

The study revealed that the textbooks tend to concentrate more on History and Geography and neglect the other subjects that constitute the Social Studies. Of particular concern is the major omission on anthropological studies. The learners need to be exposed to various cultures in terms of the 10 topics in the Social Studies. There is need say to know about clothes and food in various cultures as we are now living in a global village.

The textbooks fail to adopt a multicultural perspective in their approach and yet this component is crucial to the Social Studies. Social Studies need to be examined as a whole and not to compartmentalize knowledge (Mehlinger 2000).

Sub- research question 6: is the social studies content accurate, objective and recent?

The study noted that the textbooks that were under scrutiny were published in 1988 and they have some elements of outdated content characteristic of all outdated publications. However much of the content is accurate. The textbooks are quite objective in most instances but the more political topics tend to have glaring biases and prejudices bordering on indoctrination. Such biases create learners who are less critical of leaders and institutions (Graseck 2000, Longstreet 1996, Print 1996 cited in Mckay and Gibson 2004). The textbook content needs to be reviewed so that it remains relevant to current situations. Objectivity should be a virtue in prescribed textbooks so that we develop independent thinkers in our societies.

Sub- research question 7: what is government policy in terms of the provision, evaluation, publication and adoption of prescribed textbooks?

The study noted that the provision of textbooks is the responsibility of the Education Ministry through allocated funding to schools to purchase books. However, the choice of books rests with the school i.e. administration and teachers. In some schools the Headmaster chooses all the books while in some there are committees that are set up to choose from the prescribed textbooks. The problem is that they end up purchasing all the 3 sets of available books. Provision of textbooks is generally adequate but supplementary textbooks are not available.

Textbooks in Zimbabwe are published by private publishers and the evaluation is carried out by individuals selected by authorities in the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) which ultimately adopts the prescribed textbooks. There is need for a broader approach on policy on textbook provision, evaluation, publication and adoption

Conclusion

The adequacy of content in prescribed textbooks at institutions of learning is a critical component in the improvement of the quality of graduates that these institutions produce. This is also relevant to Zimbabwe's graduates at stage 4 grade 6 and 7. This research points to some

major anomalies in the textbooks. There is need to put in place structures for the improvement of the textbooks so that they benefit the learners. All stakeholders need to be involved in this textbook enterprise so that the final product is quality textbooks that facilitate the development of critical thinkers, deep learners and informed graduates.

Recommendations

From the findings in this research I am presenting the following recommendations.

That all textbooks be reviewed after every 3 years to ensure that content remains relevant.

That teacher is continually in- serviced in the subject area to keep them abreast with current practice.

Those schools should be having facilities to find information on content in various fields and also current issues i.e. connection to the internet.

That the textbooks so prescribed should be more tasks oriented than just transmitters of content.

That school should set up a more vibrant current affairs programme to ensure that learners are abreast with current happenings.

That a more multicultural approach to the teaching of Social Studies be adopted.

Those textbooks are devoid of elements of bias, prejudice and bigotry. They need to be highly objective.

That all stakeholders in the education system pupils, teachers, headmasters, education officials and publishers be involved in the adoption of prescribed books for use in schools.

That teachers and headmasters should be involved in the writing of books as used to happen in the CDU as private publishers tend to be more commercial and produce books that may not suit the needs of the child.

That a clear detailed instrument for textbook content analysis be used in evaluating textbooks than a mere checklist which lacks detail.

Limitations of the study

An outline of the limitations of the study is presented here so as to inform future research of this nature.

The study was carried out in Norton Urban Area, just one education district. It would be difficult to generalize these findings to the whole of Zimbabwe. However the content analysis of textbooks is quite representative as these are the textbooks used in all schools in Zimbabwe.

The textbook evaluation concentrated on content analysis only leaving out other features of the textbook. Future research may also want to address other aspects of the textbook. This was done in the interest of time and costs.

The dominating research paradigm in this study was qualitative approaches. A more quantitative approach to the same study may be interrogated.

Stakeholders like publishers were not adequately engaged in this discourse. It would be interesting to engage them in future research.

It would be interesting to include the wider participation of pupils in a study of this nature in future. This would be beneficial when addressing older high school learners who would respond more favourably.

Suggestions for further research

This study was limited to 6 schools in one education district in one province in Zimbabwe. There may be needed to make a comparative study of happenings in the other provinces.

The study also concentrated on 3 sets of textbooks used in Primary Schools in Zimbabwe. Studies concentrating on just one textbook may bring out more detailed findings. Future studies may also address the instruments that are used for content analysis in Zimbabwe's textbook selection process to determine their effectiveness.

If the above suggestions are carried out it may help in the development of knowledge as regards the textbook situation in Zimbabwe.

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Education and development in Africa: Nigeria's experience

By

Jibowo, A. V* & Iteogu O**

Abstract

Nigeria is strategically placed in Africa such that events in the country have a way of affecting other countries on the continent. By reason of her size in population, landmass natural and human resources, history seems to have thrust upon her a position of prominence in national, regional and continental affairs. Nigeria's influence historically, geographically, politically, military, economically, educationally cannot be denied considering that one in five, as it is often said black people in the world is a Nigerian. As expected, Nigeria's experience in education and development are likely to have a ripple effect on other nations of Africa, whether negatively or positively. Thousands of graduates from Nigeria are sent to other African nations (Technical Aid Corps) at the country's expense. Currently, the multiple challenges in managing the country's educational development have pushed many young Nigerians to universities in other African countries for higher education. Nigeria learns from sister nations as other countries learn from her experience. This paper focuses on Nigeria's historical experience in using education as a vehicle for overall national development, progress so far made, challenges ahead and prospects for better development in the years ahead. The paper is a historical review of Nigeria's educational development, as a factor for overall development of the vast human and natural resources the country is blessed with. The historical analysis has taken us through the activities of the Christian missionaries who arrived Badagry in 1842 and built the first primary school in 1843, and the first secondary school – CMS Grammar School Lagos in 1859. After the colonial period, the development of education began to witness several criticisms especially after independence. Between 1960 and 2013, education has witnessed a phenomenal growth in Nigeria at all levels – primary, secondary and tertiary. Some of the multiple challenges facing education, the major ones of which are poor funding, policy inconsistency, poor implementation of the National Policy on Education, population explosion in students' enrolment at all levels, excessive unionism by workers in the sector are discussed. Other challenges discussed include political interference, cultism, thuggery, violence, nepotism, corruption, unregulated increase in the number of educational institutions, etc. Finally, we canvass that with better funding and less political interference in educational administration, as well as less interference by foreign interests which inhibit the flourishing of local initiatives in Nigeria, nay Africa, and education will be a better effective tool for National development.

Key words: Education, Development, Africa, Nigeria, Experience.

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Jibowo, A. V & Iteogu (2013). Education and development in Africa: Nigeria's experience. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

The stark reality of Nigeria's education system as in several African countries, is characterised by unstable socio-political and economic policies of development, population explosion in school enrolment at all levels and poor funding of educational institutions across board. Researches portray a poor quality output from school system to match contemporary skills requirement. This is in addition to the frequent proliferation of educational institutions at all levels without commensurate employment opportunities leading to so many social vices such as robbery, cultism, corruption, "sorting" in higher institutions etc In fact, the challenges of education and development in Nigeria are too numerous to exhaust in this write-up. In this paper, our attention is drawn to contemporary challenges. These are obviously unavoidable results of previous poorly implemented policies aimed at using education as a tool for the overall development of the linguistically fragmented country founded by Lord Frederick Lugard in 1914. That was year of the amalgamation of the Lagos Colony with the Northern and Southern protectorates of the Niger-area to form the potentially powerful nation named Nigeria at independence in 1960. This is our start - off point in this discourse.

Agitations for reform of Nigeria's post – independence education began, more as a continuum of the pre-independence anti-imperial movement that is the first attempt to indigenize Nigeria's educational system. These agitations, in varying degrees, have continued to grow as the needs of the people continue to increase in an attempt to catch up with the more advanced nations of the world. These agitations have surprisingly taken the form of internal resistance to the western education bequeathed to us by the colonial masters; that is, despite all the benefits of the 'foreign' educational system? In fact, we share the current view by Mkpa (2002) that "illiteracy, ignorance and their attendant consequences fit the current institution in which "there are communities in most Western Africa where western education is viewed as a 'taboo' and resisted with a passion." He pours out his anger as he wonders why there is this ignorance – based resistance when the benefits of western education are available at everyone's reach, including the modern agents of resistance to the positive contributions of education to development. This is a sore point that must be treated fast before it spreads like a malignant tumour in the minds of our youngsters who may fall for the fallacy that western education is the sole cause of break-down in the morals and the disappearing cultural values of Africa.

Current Challenges to Nigerian Education and Development

Unstable educational environment for development

From the very beginning of the educational enterprise, the seeds of instability had been present. Right from 1842 when the first missionaries arrived in Badagry, Lagos and founded the first primary school in 1843, Nigerians had seen education as a route to human capacity development. Going by history, Omolewa (1996) has indicated that "education was the core of development in Africa". Making reference to frequent interventions in Africa's development, Omolewa (OpCit) mentions the balkanization of Africa, slavery and colonialism all carried out by Europe who reduced the traditional education as primitive. According to him,

The traditional methods of fishing, farming dancing and processing the natural products were sidelined. At the same time, the alternative systems from Europe were hailed as the best and portrayed as the only viable option for progress and development (Pg.25)

This trend in policy changes in education and development continued from the 19th to the 21st century. The colonial administration in most of West African countries moved from direct

government funding to mere supervision of the early schools. With the advent of independence in the 1960s' the 6-5-3-2 system of education bequeathed by the British began to receive severe criticisms by elite who felt the need for a total review of the policy. This was because the system produced more of people suited for white collar, jobs, with a negligible few capable of working in technical fields – Engineering, medicine, etc. Another area of concern to the early educated elite was the need to teach student in Nigerian languages, instead of English language only.

In the case of Nigeria, the elites succeeded in making the Federal Government of General Yakubu Gowon to inaugurate the National Curriculum Conference on 1st September 1969 in Lagos. The Conference produced the first National policy on Education (1977) revised 1981, 1998, 2004, 2010 with several innovations included. Around this policy document have been built five objectives which form the philosophy of Education of Nigeria: these include;

- i. A free and democratic society
- ii. A just and egalitarian society
- iii. A united, strong and self-reliant nation
- iv. A great and dynamic economy
- v. A land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens

While these philosophical objectives have formed the bedrock of Nigeria's educational objectives, implementation of the National policy on Education has encountered a steady inconsistency that has ultimately affected their effect on national development. From the 6-5-3-2 system, Nigeria shifted to the 6-3-3-4 (UPE) system of education which has somersaulted again to the current UBE 9 – 3 – 4 system, each with its own peculiarities. Currently, some rumours have it that the Nigerian Government led by President Goodluck Jonathan is planning to revert to the old 6-5-3-2 system of Education, as if policy inconsistency is a panacea to the multifarious problems of Nigeria's education and development efforts.

In another contribution, Ajayi (1996) outlines problems that seem to defy all attempts to resolve them in the education sub-sector. These include among others: political interference, funding problem, maladministration, moral problem, trade unionism, and cult membership, phenomenal growth in number of schools and explosion in school enrolments. From our discussion so far. It is obvious that the challenges facing education and development in Nigeria originate from all fronts – political, historical, economic and social.

Funding Challenge:

The concept of education financing is a key component of educational planning and administration. According to Elvin (1979) "education system in developing countries seems to be heading towards a period of financial crisis". This is most striking because for some years now numerous countries in the third world have been spending a big chunk of their annual budgets on Education, to the detriment of other socio-economic activities because to them, education is an important indices of development. Therefore, there is a correlation between the current crisis in education and development in relation to poor funding by proprietors of educational institutions- Federal, state and private owners inclusive. In the case of Nigeria, the funding challenge is more acute because of the mono-product economy we operate, depending solely on resources derived from the petroleum industry to the neglect of other areas of potential

wealth derivable from the agricultural and other sub-sectors like solid minerals, tourism, taxation, etc.

Political interference

In Nigeria, there is frequent interference by the regime in power. Such have been these political disruptions in the education and other socio-economic activities that every new government finds a way of either distorting or abandoning the existing policy due to the pervasive role of government in educational matters. It is so serious that there are about five or more versions of the National policy on Educational in Nigeria (1977, 81, '98, 2004, 2010)

According to Ajayi (1996) “the Nigerian political scene can be described one of the most unstable among the countries of the sub-region and indeed among the developing countries of the world”. As he bemoans, in the area of planning and administration, over - politicization of all development efforts seems to be the order of the day... a situation has emerged in which, there are wide gaps between plans and implementation thus defeating the aims and goals of education”. This explains why there is always a back - and - forth changes in policy implementations. The result is that today the more schools we have at all levels, the fewer the admission places available for the million of candidates applying for admission, especially at university level (about 1.5 million candidates apply for admission each year but only about 500,000 get admitted!) This is due to the lack of political will to make laws for adequate expansion of existing facilities. No one doubts that education is a vital instrument for innovations, changes, growth and overall development of society, so it should not be left to the of frequent political interruptions which seem to create the challenge of instability. Therefore, there is need to reduce political interference in the running of educational institutions, let that be left to the experts not politicians whose interests are not on the whole very consistent with national goals.

Rapid Expansion in school Enrolment at all levels:

In recent times, especially in the last twenty five years the sudden rise in the number of schools – at all levels- has created the twin problems of congestion in classrooms and lack of adequate human capacity development. This is due to the undue pressure put on the scanty available infrastructure. In 1976 / 77 school, year Nigeria had thirteen (13) universities, all owned by the Federal Government. But, today the country boasts of about one hundred and forty universities some federal, some owned by states (36 of them) and private individuals and organizations. This number is beside the numerous Polytechnics, Monotechnics, Colleges of Technology and Colleges of Education. Ownership of schools at the lower levels – primary and secondary – has so increased that government oversight for them is almost nil. The result is that the standard is fast cascading into the embarrassing low quality products from our schools. Another outcome of the phenomenal growth in the number of schools is the high level of school drops who society sees as “rejects” who end up in crime, cultism and political gangsterism. Ajayi (1996), Opcit) gives a picture of this rise in school population and enrolment between 1980 and 1990. He says that “the primary school enrolment figures were 4.1 million in 1970, 19.0 million in 1980 and 29.2 million in 1985 and 19.6 million in 1990.. for the tertiary institutions the figure stood at 0.4 for 1970, 2.1 for 1980, 3.2 for 1985 and 3.9 for 1990”. Then, imagine what the figures are today with the massive rise in the number of schools opened and pupils/students enrolled. As stated earlier the negative effects are tremendous: examination malpractices, corruption (sorting”, i.e

money or sex for marks), mass-come, mass-go system of promotion (that is no one repeats a class, even if he / she fails in a given class – no one is compelled by the system to repeat a class before progressing to the next level) certificate – craziness, etc.

Trade Union Activism in Schools

The National policy on Education and Labour Laws permit the existence and operations of trade Unions at all levels of education. But somehow, the activities of these unions are severely affecting the overall development of these schools and the nation at large. The unions, especially at the tertiary level get frustrated when owners refuse to grant them audience to discuss the rights of their members. Often times, these confrontations lead to long closure of schools and distortion of academic calendars, thus negatively affecting the progress of students.

Challenge of Leadership quality in education and development in Nigeria.

For any system to succeed, the result expected depends a lot on the quality of the leadership appointed to pilot affairs. That explains why the quality of the Headmaster, Principal, and Rector, Provost or Vice chancellor must be paramount in their appointment because any wrong choice will inevitably affect the quality and fortunes of that institution. Infact, the decline in Nigerian educational institutions started with the appointment of mediocres – who became political stooges to the politicians in government – into leadership positions. Government actions have compounded the situation. For example, Late Prof Kenneth Dike (an Igbo by tribe) was once Vice Chancellor at the University of Ibadan located in Yorubaland). After his tenure, no non-indigene had been appointed Vice chancellor of a University outside his area of linguistic origin. Though, the cheering- news at least for now is that the current President Goodluck Jonathan in establishing Nine new federal Universities appointed non-indigenes to head them. But the system operated by the military regimes and civilian governments before President Goodluck Jonathan destroyed the concept of good quality leadership to the detriment of our educational development by appointing only indigenes to head Federal Government Education institutions in their area of origin. Writing a paper titled “Leadership of the Nigerian Universities Against Best Global Practice,” Ekwueme (2013) writes:

The failure or success of any university revolves around the calibre of people appointed to head in the system. Once proper choice of leadership is made, the system grows and develops. On the other hand, any mistake in the choice of leadership spells doom for the system.

The respected professor advances the argument that “a proper leadership is that which has the interest of the system and its survival at heart. It is selfless, incompatible and inclusive.” His position is unassailable because leadership is sacrifice made by individuals for the system to survive, and not to crumble.

Massive brain drain of competent personnel

Since the economic down-turn of the Babangida era of 1985 (alias structural Adjustment Programme or SAP) the fortune of professionals in the academia, especially has nose-dived. This has created a situation where many qualified and experienced Nigerians have gone abroad to ply their trade. Without doubt, the brain –drain phenomenon has made Nigeria a production factory for professionals for other nations of the world. Many institutions lack enough experts, and this has led to low quality service in schools, hospitals, civil service, etc. The irony is that millions of Nigerians abroad are helping to build other economies, except theirs at home. Who is to blame? We think that it is a challenge of systemic failure which must be tackled fast to encourage

Nigerian experts in the diaspora to return, home like the Biblical call to Apostle Paul to “come over to Macedonia and help us”.

Corruption, Educational Progress and National Development In Nigeria

Corruption in education has taken several forms, such that practically all stakeholders bear a level of responsibility, consciously or unconsciously. In other words, there are many sides to this line of reasoning. One school of thought expounds the view that the educated elite now in power perpetrate fraud in funds allocation to education. Yearly citizens hear of huge amounts “ear-marked” for education without any concrete result on ground what those funds have achieved. According to Mkpa (2002) “year after year billions of Naira are ear-marked for the improvement and advancement of education for the purpose of grass-root and national development. It is however, obvious that only a little (if any at all) is actually channeled appropriately while the bulk of such money ends up in individual pockets”. This colossal loss in revenue leads to so many an accumulated projects and delayed salaries to workers in the sub-sector. The second school of thought heaps the blame on both the policy – makers and implement that is the Government as well as the end-users of the products of the educational enterprise (the general public). This is because what they preach such as wisdom and enlightenment is far removed from what they do in practice. Due to the unbridled appetite for power and influence, these elite encourage violence and thuggery against one another, angling for one political favour or the other. While this is going on, the welfare of teachers is not given enough attention; the frequency of workers’ strike in the education sub-sector is increasing such that students spend more time in school due to extended school calendars. These hiccups are no doubt one of the negative outcomes of the corruption in the area of educational development in Nigeria. As long as misappropriation of educational funds due to lack of accountability among Nigerian leaders continues, corruption will continue to constitute a cog in the wheel of progress in national development. The students and their parents, encouraged by corrupt teachers, have become certificate crazy to the extent that impostors are hired to write examinations for students. The result is that the quality of certificate possessed does not match the demonstrable knowledge expected of such graduates. In Nigeria, the Post-University Matriculation Examination (UME) was instituted to reduce the influx of unqualified candidates into universities. It is that bad. It is hoped that something will be done soon to obviate the production of half-baked graduates unable to compete with contemporaries in other nations of the world.

Who Bears the Blame?

Looking for a *bouc emissaire* (a scape-goat) on this issue will be a fruitless exercise because practically all stakeholders must bear a measure of blame for the rot in the system. It is pointless to excuse anyone among the stakeholders from blame; this is because everyone is a stakeholder in the building of the nation, especially in the educational sector. All Nigerians must encourage the growth and development of education for the common good. Students who frequently destroy school infrastructure and records because they are angry with government policies / decisions or by authorities of their schools are guilty. How about teachers’ unions or unions of Non-academic staff whose only tool of protest is strike action. They are equally guilty. What do we say of parents who encourage examination malpractice, buying of impostors to write examinations for their children? Or what do we say of many parents especially in Northern Nigeria, who deprive their children of modern (western) education, especially the girl-child? These parents are guilty. Those teachers/lecturers who miss lessons/lectures without permission,

or those who have turned schools into alternative markets for their covert sales activities? They are guilty. In short, from the Federal, State to Local Governments, students, teachers to parents who encourage corrupt practices in education, the indicators of corruption are there for everyone to see.

From these observations so far, we must alert Nigerians, and other Africans for that matter, that if modern education is working for the advancement and civilization of other nations, then it must work for Nigerians. We share the sentiments by Mkpa (2002, op cit) that “we must however be ready to wake up from our unconsciousness brought about by corruption and moral bankruptcy, and team up to make a better generation of Nigerians. We must oppose all forms of cultural or religious norms that stand in the way of education”. Indeed, we can, and should retrace our steps from any attempts to destroy the benefits accruable from modern education.

External Opposition to African Initiatives to Modern Development in the Continent

African initiatives to the development of the continent have, over the decades received opposition from the western world; especially the Brettonwoods Institutions such as the IMF, the World Bank and the World Trade Organization supported by their sponsors, USA-led G8 economies. African scholars and other groups (Asia, Europe, USA etc in Accra, Ghana) met and reviewed the situation with support from the council for Development and Social Science Research in African (CODESRIA) and the third world Network-Africa (TWN-Africa) to review the challenges of development facing Africa.

Among other issues of African Initiatives at Accra Conference on 26th April, 2002 were inter alia, mobilizing financing for development in Africa, education, health / social services and development, etc. Therefore, the major plank of discussion was the opposition against what should be regarded as Africans’ thinking on development as it concerns them. Reference was made of the Lagos plan of Action, the Companions African Alternative framework for Structural Adjustment. Sadly, there was the stark realization of counter initiatives from outside Africa, which have been devised and forced on African nations. These foreign-inspired counter initiatives give the false impression of an international consensus on a road map to Africa’s development paradigm. As Mkpa (2002) explains, “these counter initiatives designed in bad faith are promoted through the Brettonwoods institutions and the World Trade Organization” (Op cit). It is in the context of this hostile opposition to Africa’s development that the African scholars gathered in Accra realized that the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) was ab initio designed not to address the developmental problems facing Africa such as heavy burden, unfair competition in international trade, tax evasion by commercial groups operating in African nations. The overall effect of the external hostility and conspiracy against Africa’s socio-economic development initiatives can be reduced to three observations. First, African economies are so structured that they are mere producers of primary commodities suitable only for export, and importers of manufactured (refined) goods. This is the practice in many African economies, including Nigeria. This has inevitably led to trade losses which weaken our economic base. Secondly, the Babangida – style of economic liberalization, privatization and deregulation, in short the structural adjustment a la Babangida (1985) have conspired to bring African economies to their knees. This has crippled or demobilized Africans’ capability to manage their economies to the benefit of their peoples. The inevitable consequences of the international control and opposition have affected every facet of socio-economic activities, including educational development.

Imposition of Four Languages on the school system

From colonial times, English has been imposed on the education system, being the official language of the nation. Much later, four out of about 250 languages were selected as national languages – Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba, representing the three largest ethnic groups. Expectedly, the minority groups are still protesting this imposition. Writing in *World Education News & Reviews* Nick Clark and Robert Sedgwick (2004:1) opine that “Language has created something of a problem with respect to Education in Nigeria. Because the smaller languages are not written, devising instructional materials in those languages is difficult.” In addition to this situation, an emerging problem in this aspect is what we term “curriculum overload” in school language programmes especially at the primary level. Pupils are taught in their mother tongue in primary 1-3, then in English from primary 4 upwards. At the secondary level (especially Junior JSS), students are made to study English, French plus their mother tongue as compulsory subjects. At the tertiary level, English is used for all transactions but at 200 level, every undergraduate is expected to study French for between one and four semesters depending on each University’s preference in the matter of duration. We consider this an overload for many students because of their bitter experience with English language at all levels.

School Attrition among Boys in South-South & South East Political Zones of Nigeria

It is perhaps one of the negative effects of the Nigerian Civil War (1967-1970) that the school drop –out rate is high among the males in the two southern zones of Nigeria. These are areas occupied, by the Igbo (18% of Nigeria’s population), Ijaw (10%), Edo, Itsekiri, Ibibio (3.5%) Efik, Isoko, Afemai and several other small ethnic groups. This explains why accurate statistics of the boys affected would be better obtained on the major streets of cities in Nigeria and other ECOWAS countries. They are mainly petty traders, hawkers of wares in between moving cars and big Lorries in our major cities. They seem to be everywhere. When confronted why they embark on the risky business of hawking in between moving vehicles, or running away to Gabon or other countries for menial jobs, their reply is, ‘ I have no money to continue my education.’ So, where do we go from here if so many young males are seeking pastures outside our shores without adequate education and skills acquisition?

Challenges at each level of education

Primary School Level

Ownership inconsistency concerning primary schools poses a great challenge since the colonial period. Ownership and running of primary schools was in the hands of the missionaries between 1843 and 1870. Between 1870 and 1872, the British colonial authorities began to extend grants-in-aid to mission schools. Then stepped in the Regional Governments created by the Macpherson Constitution of 1951. According to Sindiku (1996) “the Macpherson Constitution of 1951 adopted a federal system of government thereby creating three regions. This constitution gave the responsibility for educational matters to the regions...giving rise to Local Education Authorities LEA’s) and Local Education Committees (LEC’s) all in an attempt to decentralize education...”p 67. This instrument empowered the Regions to design their own education programmes, for instance the Universal Primary Education of 1955 in the Western region and 1957 free education in Eastern Region. The matter did not rest there because in 1976 the Federal Military of Gen. Olusegun Obasanjo declared free education and federal funding of education. The oil boom was a catalyst for centralized control of education, even at this basic level. The 1991 Federal constitution gave control over Primary Schools back to the states, but the 1999

constitution gave state Governments more control over primary schools, leaving Local Governments, communities and parents little or no role to play at this level of education. The reason given was that LGAS were not to be trusted in prompt payment of teachers' salaries. The circus area continues. Today, the states and Local Governments are fighting for the sole of primary school administration in Nigeria.

Secondary School level

A simple observation of the secondary schools will show two key problem areas. First, there is a high level of congestion in classrooms, with the related issue of difficulty in class control by teachers. Secondly, there is a serious shortage of qualified teachers to handle several subjects, for instance, English, French, Arabic, Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba, Mathematics, English Language and the sciences. These situations have led to inadequate teaching and learning; the result has been a high failure rate in the West African School Certificate Examinations, examination malpractices, cultism, violence, etc.

Tertiary education level:

The first major problem today is the “argument regarding the deterioration that is so noticeable in some of the end – products of our educational institutions, especially at the tertiary level” (Sobowale, 2007, p.7). We are tempted to ask, do Nigerian parents have the correct attitude and orientation to Education when they insist on the choice of subjects/courses for their children going to university? Frequently, the question is asked are Nigerian Governments paying enough attention to funding education at all levels. What is the moral and intellectual quality of students enrolling in tertiary institutions? These are some thorny issues, apart from the rapid increase in new tertiary institutions all running the same programmes.

Strategies for Tackling Nigerian Educational & Developmental Problems

Based on the observations made in this write-up, some suggestions are made on the possible way out of this current state of uncertainty fuelled by numerous challenges, both internal and external. The challenge of institutional and policy instability in the educational sector should be checked by reducing the frequency of policy review, this allowing innovations to mature before allowing any further review. Nigerian leaders, especially in education, should exhibit a high level of patriotism and selflessness in order to move education forward by sticking to a thorough implementation of every version of the National Policy on Education for a considerable length of time before any review is undertaken. In the area of funding of education, it might be necessary for all tiers of government to work towards the UNESCO- prescribed 26% allocation of national budget to education. There is need to curb wasteful spending, especially at the tertiary level where State Governments in Nigeria seem unprepared to foot the high bill necessary to run universities and other tertiary Institutions. State Governments should share responsibility of funding their universities with the Local Governments (as practiced in the case of Osun State University, Ikhire). At the Federal level, it is suggested that state universities should come under federal control or at least receive some monetary sub-vention so that quality of graduates produced would not cascade into a laughable mediocrity in the international labour market.

At the international level, the time has come to give a strong government support to African initiatives supported also by international bodies and organizations who make billions of dollars from Nigeria, and other African countries. Such support must extend to the development

policies that promote productive sectors of the economy such as agriculture and industry, public education and other social services. Mkpka (2002) puts it clearly:

A strategy for financing must seek to mobilize and build on internal and intra-African resources through imaginative saving measures; reallocation of expenditure away from wasteful items including excessive use of remittances of Africans living abroad; corporate taxation, retention and re-investment of foreign profits and the prevention of capital flight and the leakage of resources through practices of tax invasion practiced by foreign investors and local elites (Pg.8).

In other words, these measures are necessary if the challenge of funding education in Nigeria (as other African countries) must improve to enhance the smooth running of education in the country. The other areas of challenge in developing education such as trade unionism, cultism, corruption, massive braindrain, leadership quality and political interference also need institutional review by governments and proprietors of educational institutions. In this way the challenges of education and development in Nigeria Africa, are expected to be reduced. This discussion shaves the view of Obanya (2002) that in addition to efforts of Governments to revitalize Education in Nigeria, “the important point is for the private sector to become a major stakeholder in that major sector of the national economy called Education and to do so in an impactful manner”. This is a call to Nigerian and other African leaders that Education, as an important component of national, regional and international development deserves the concerted and holistic effort of all citizens so the challenges can be profitably managed for the promotion, integration and international understanding in the continent.

Conclusion

In this brief historical review on challenges of education and development in Africa with focus on Nigeria, we have tried to identify the several challenges facing education system, the role of key players in the sector and the effects of historical events which have impacted on public education in Nigeria. An attempt was made to mirror the challenges in general terms and as they occur at the three levels of education: primary, secondary and tertiary. The conclusion is that the challenges are internal and external, political, economic, attitudinal, logistic, etc. At the core of these challenges, from colonial times to the present, is lack of adequate funding of education as a key component of Nigeria’s national development. Indeed, the time has come for Nigeria’s managers of education to show prudence in resources management, and enough altruism in public service for the overall interest of national development.

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Education and Food Security: Letting Research Come Alive Through School-Community-Field Program

By

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E

Abstract

Nigeria's agricultural development has always been involved in the search for a holistic policy framework that should address the myriad problems inherent in the sector. The major challenges faced in this sector include; lack of access to information on government policies due to illiteracy and lack of awareness, lack of incentives from stakeholders, age-long belief in crude farming methods, poor storage facilities and distant farms location as well as severe change in weather. To mitigate these factors causing food insecurity, various Government regimes in Nigeria have evolved projects such as: Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), Basin Development Authority (BDA), Agricultural Development Co-operation (ADC), Agricultural Development Project (ADP), etc. All of these have yielded little results in strengthening the entire value chain process as undue emphasis has always been placed on production that often leads to glut, post-harvest losses and food insecurity in the country. It is consequent upon this that the SCHOOL-COMMUNITY-LAND program has been proposed. The program is designed to help Government coordinate activities in the agricultural sector by creating avenue for research results interpretation and on-farm implementation, government policy interpretation to farmers and problem awareness creation at the Research and Development (R&D) level through a feed-back mechanism from farms to Research Institutions through Government. The program which will be run in special centres is also intended to give the illiterate farmers an informal education and the government, a true figure of farmers' population to allow adequate budgeting. Program results will be assessed through Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) of output in the various areas by means of well designed Data base forms. All these will aim towards ensuring that the three aspects of food security: food availability, food access and food adequacy are met.

Key words: School-community-land program, Agricultural Development Project, illiterate farmers, Monitoring and evaluation.

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Introduction

Food sufficiency plays a vital role in the development of any economy and is very vital in Food Security. According to ADB, (2000), Food security has three aspects: food availability, food access and food adequacy. Food availability has to do with the supply of food. This should be sufficient in quantity and quality and also provide variety. Food access addresses the demand for the food. It is influenced by economic factors, physical infrastructure and consumer preferences. For households and individuals within them to be food-secured, food at their access must be adequate not only in quantity but also in quality. It should ensure an adequate consistent and dependable supply of energy and nutrients through sources that are approvable and social-culturally acceptable to them at all times.

The evolution of thinking reflects an altitude that society's goal should reach beyond the ability of a country to produce and import enough food. Issues related to its production, distribution, availability and acceptability have become equally important (Ganapathy *et al*, 2005). However, achievement of food security in any country is typically an insurance against hunger and malnutrition; both of which hinder economic development (Rentlinger 1985). This is why all developed and some developing countries make considerable efforts to increase their food production capacity. Approximately, one billion people worldwide are undernourished; many more suffer from micronutrient deficiencies especially in sub-Saharan Africa (FAO 2008).

According to Ezekiel (2011), in order to boost food security, achieve self sustenance in food production, and attain the Millennium Development Goals of reducing by half the number of hungry people by 2015, the Federal Government of Nigeria inaugurated the National Special Programme for Food Security (NSPFS) in 2007. According to Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the Federal Government is expected to spend about \$45m to implement the NSPFS programme, whereas the F.A.O would offer the technical and managerial support on demand to the Federal Government. The objectives of the NSPFS are to improve national and household food security and reduce rural poverty in an economically and environmental sustainable way; to improve household food security and incomes through increases in productivity, diversification and sustainable use of natural resources; to enhance food security of consumers through improved access to and availability of food and also increase income of producers through more efficient marketing. Speaking on the problem of policy inconsistency, the Minister of Agriculture, Prof. Sheikh Abdullah, said, "Nigeria's agricultural development has always been involved in the search of a holistic policy framework that should address the myriad problems that are inherent in the sector. Thus, policies from the era of Operation Feed the Nation, Green Revolution, Back to Land to the establishment of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure yielded little results in strengthening the entire value chain process as undue emphasis was placed on production that often leads to glut, post-harvest losses and food insecurity in the country."

In Africa in general and Nigeria in particular, food production is left in the hands of local farmers who are mostly poor illiterates, who are deficient in modern knowledge of food production, protection and preservation. If food security must be ensured, farmers must be educated to appreciate positive innovations that will ensure approach to the three (3) dimensions of food security.

The concept of food security has evolved and expanded over time to integrate a wide range of food related issues and more, it completely reflects the complexity of the role of food in human society. Early definitions focused almost exclusively on the ability of a region or nation to assure an adequate food supply for its current and projected population. This emphasis was on secure access to food for a population, with a singular focus on the role of food as a vehicle for nutrition. However, food holds much more significance to humans than just its nutritional value. It can also have important symbolic, cultural, social and political roles. Food security, as a conceptual goal, has expanded to explicitly include more and more of these roles.

Challenges to food security in Nigeria

Nigeria has great agricultural potentials. Though the climatic conditions in some of the zones do not support an all-year-round farming, some government programs like the Fadama project and other artificial irrigation projects have created room for this. To mitigate factors causing food insecurity, various Government regimes in Nigeria have evolved projects such as: Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Basin Development Authority (BDA), Agricultural Development Co-operation (ADC), Agricultural Development Project (ADP), etc. All of these have not given solution to the food insecurity problem. There are many challenges faced by agriculture (Food Production) in developing and underdeveloped countries. One of the major problems is productivity issue. Our agricultural productivity is still very low. Interaction with local farmers has shown that government has been subsidizing their farm inputs, though not as expected. Another School of thought has it that, with the little they get from government, they have been able to increase their farm areas but, the problem is that, they cannot bring out these produce because access roads have not been created to their farms neither can they store these produce because of lack of facilities. These scenarios show that it is not all about millions of dollars in the pockets of farmers but, development of these key areas by the sectors concerned as declared by FAO'S twin-track approach for fighting hunger which combines sustainable agricultural and rural development with targeted programs for enhancing direct access to food for the most needy.

Another major challenge is illiteracy on the part of the farmers which experts in the agro-sector have capitalized on to deny the poor farmers their rights to innovations in the Research and development (R&D) sector. There is lack of information flow amongst Research, Extension and Implementation sectors. There are so many Tertiary Institutions in Africa running Agricultural programs with researches being carried out yearly along this line but, they are not passed down to the target group (Farmers). Most of the results of these researches end up in shelves. According to Singh and Kiran (2012), poor validation and feedback mechanisms mean lack of large-scale on-farm validation of techniques and feedback thereon which lead to practically, no scope for enlargement.

This illiteracy situation has given way to a stigmatized culture of shifting cultivation emanating from the long standing believe that a plot of land cultivated once or twice is inundated and so, cannot give good harvest. With the increasing population and quest for new fertile lands for cultivation, farmers are forced to encroach into farmlands owned by neighboring towns and villages. The result of this is often communal wars. This in turn leads to SHIFTED cultivation because the defeated community is forced to transfer its farming technology to a different area. Within this period, the feeders become fed and there is a downturn in food security.

Where there is success in the newly found farm location, it may be too far for a reasonable quantity of farm produce to be supplied within a given period. Where the crop is genetically modified for early maturity, abandonment of the crops in the field due to lack of evacuation means or wastage in the field after harvest due to the same reason, is a sure way of inviting pests and pathogens to the field which is likely to cause REPLANT FAILURE and a build-up of pests and pathogens complexes novel to the area (epidemics is eminent). This is a very big challenge to food security in Africa.

Majority of the local farmers in Nigeria in particular and Africa in general, believe that application of fertilizers depletes soil nutrients after a cropping season. With this belief, Government's effort at providing fertilizers is in futility as only the enlightened few, use the quantity that may not even boost yield in their farms due to inability to calculate their applications and the large quantity that will be left, is either wasted or trafficked out of the Country by merchants. Despite the Federal Government's laudable policies and huge budgetary allocation to the sector, the country is currently spending billions of naira on importation of major food items.

Our Research Team gathered from visits to 21 of the 36 States in Nigeria through on-farm interaction with farmers that, though they are aware of Government's effort towards improving agriculture in the Country, no impact has been felt at the grass root level due to the following reasons;

1. Lack of access to information on government policies.
2. Lack of incentives from stakeholders.
3. Age-long belief in crude farming methods.
4. Poor storage facilities and distant farms location.
5. Severe change in weather.

Analysis of these submissions vis-à-vis Ezekiel (2011) research results (the agricultural sector is currently being plagued by policy and funding inconsistency as well as inefficiency in the implementation of various programs aimed at boosting food security), show that there is a lacuna between government's effort on innovative policies implementation and farmers' reception as well as on-farm application of these policies and yield monitoring. The greatest marker for this lacuna is farmers' educational standard coupled with ineffective government agricultural agents or poor feed-back mechanism.

This proposal on **School-Community-Field Program** has been designed to bridge the gap between researchers in the agricultural and allied fields and the local farmers at the grass root level with government and other stakeholders mediating and facilitating to ensure strict compliance to and adoption of innovations under a conducive and environmentally friendly setting.

The Program

The **School-Community-Field Program** is aimed at interpreting research results conducted in Agricultural Institutions and Government Policies to farmers to their understanding no matter the level of education and location of the Community where the farmer resides.

The Project

The project shall have a site in a Local Government Area to serve farmers in that area. The site will be demarcated into plots that will be intended to carry pilot projects. The pilot projects will be on-farm trials of novel and result-oriented research outcomes. In the project site, there will be an Education Centre where farmers will be taught how to draw up farming Calendar, monitor diseases and pests incidences and severity, identify indicators of climate change, learn fertilizer application formalities, and receive first hand information on government policies and programs. On the part of government, the program will help give a true number of farmers in an area so as to ease budgeting and relay results of on-field trials back to Institutions for results evaluation.

Research Goal

The goal of this research is to provide machinery through which research outcomes from Agricultural-based institutions reach the local farmers for appropriate on-field implementation to produce desired results in the form of qualitative yield.

Research Questions

How well have farmers been educationally-empowered to aid proper understanding and implementation of research ideas and government policies if eventually made available to them

How much research outcomes have translated into improved or value-added agricultural practice and/or productivity in our locality.

How many farmers have access to information, ideas or products emanating from research institutions geared at the improvement of agronomic practices available to farmers at the time.

How well has government fared in the area of provision of funds and basic infrastructure (like access roads and storage facilities) to enhance farming operations when the research ideas eventually produce results in the form of increased yield.

AGRICULTURAL BASED INSTITUTIONS (R&D)

Researches



Request for solutions to meet the Needs of

Government policies to meet the yearnings of her citizens

52

Monthly reports to activity assess

ORGANOGRAM



Strategic Plan

Strengths

1. Favorable climatic conditions for development of agriculture.
2. Vast land mass for on-field implementation of novel farm techniques.
3. Increasing number of Universities and research bodies running programs in agriculture.
4. Government increasing interest in food security.

Weaknesses

1. Inadequate information transfer.
2. Inadequate developed linkages between R & D and results implementation.
3. Inadequate farm equipment.
4. Frequent land fragmentation which does not allow mechanized farming.
5. Lack of education on the part of farmers.
6. Poor funds distribution and monitoring strategies by government.
7. Inability of government to obtain and preserve true farmers' population figure to allow for effective budgeting.

Opportunities

1. Huge employment opportunities
2. Increased research potentials in tertiary institutions and allied research bodies.
3. Increased demand for farm produce by agricultural based industries.
4. World interest and support for increased agricultural processing to ensure food security.

Threats

1. Climatic change and environmental degradation.
2. Age-long belief that agriculture is for illiterates and the poor thus, there is no use educating the farmers.
3. Merchants direct contacts with farmers in the purchase and sales of farm produce.
4. Lack of access roads to communities where the farms are located.

Personnel

The proposed research will be carried out by this team, expectedly, in collaboration with Local, State and Federal government of any country.

Team Leader

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5. Dr. E. N. Okey. Plant Pathologist. Department of Biological Sciences, Akwa Ibom State University, Ikot Akpaden, Mkpata Enin, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.
6. Other field staff from the Communities will be employed

Budget

Below is an estimated budget for the proposed research activity for a particular site.

S/n	Items	Cost (USD)
1.	Five (5) acres of land for on-field experimentation	34,375
2.	Motorcycles (5)	187.5
3.	A three (3) bedroom apartment at program centre (one year rent)	1,875
4.	Project Vehicle and fuel	218.75
5.	Five (5) tables, ten (10) chairs and twenty desks	1,875
6.	White marker board (Magnetic board)- (2) pieces	218.75
7.	Flip Charts (5)	312.75
8.	Laptops (3), Desk top computers (2) and computer desks (2)	2,500
9.	Rain coats and rain boots (20)	62.5
10.	Knapsack sprayers (10)	1,250
11.	Farm implements and farm inputs	937.5
12.	Stationery and books for training	1,250
13.	Internet Facility	1,250
	Total Cost	73,094

Schedule

This project will commence in the planting season by February.

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Factors contributing to low enrolment of girls in primary schools in Mogotio District, Baringo County, Kenya

By
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Abstract

Education plays a key role in human development through acquisition and knowledge and skills that are necessary for active participation in the development of a nation. It is propagated through the school system as a social unit. Despite the importance of education, enrolment and completion rates in primary school education in Arid and Semi Arid lands (ASAL) of Kenya is generally still low. This study sought to establish factors contributing to low enrolment of girls in primary schools in Mogotio District within the ASAL region. The study adopted a descriptive research design. Six schools were purposively selected out of the twenty four primary schools in the District. A sample of 6 headteachers, 52 classteachers, 45 girl pupils, 12 household heads who took part in the study were selected using stratified and simple random sampling techniques. Four instruments namely: head teachers` and class teachers` questionnaires and girl pupils` and household heads` interview guide were used to elicit data. The data collection tools were validated and pilot tested for reliability. The head teachers` and class teacher` questionnaires yielded reliability coefficients of 0.7571 and 0.7193 respectively. The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and the results of the analysis presented in the form of frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations and charts. The results of the study show that boys have higher chances of enrolling than girls. It was also found that economic and social-cultural factors contribute to girls` enrolment. It is hoped that the knowledge gained from the findings of the study will enable teachers, parents, the government and other stakeholders` device interventions that will lead to higher enrolment of girls in primary schools.

Keywords; standard deviations, social-cultural factors, descriptive research, sampling techniques

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MJ. Ayub and TK. Ronoh (2013). Factors contributing to low enrolment of girls in primary schools in Mogotio District, Baringo County, Kenya. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

Education has been recognized by many countries as one of the most effective tool for promoting economic, social and political development. It plays a key role in human development through acquisition of knowledge and skills that are necessary for active participation in the development of a nation. Education empowers individuals and communities and increases peoples' capacities to make improvements in their lives while enhancing inter-active and positive socio-political participation (O'Reilly, 1994). Many countries therefore continue to invest heavily in education because of the value attached to it and the benefits associated with it. Education is propagated through the school system as a social unit and through the school system the values and goals of a nation are enhanced (Ominde Commission, 1964).

Education had been declared a human right by the United Nations (UN) and the achievement of Universal Primary Education (UPE) is an objective towards which many countries have been striving to archive (Opoti, 1999). Since independence the government of Kenya has tried to address the challenges facing the education sector through commissions, committee and taskforces. The Ominde Commission (1964) sought to reform the education system inherited from the colonial government and make it more responsive to the needs of independent Kenya. The Gachathi (1976) and Koech (2000) reports focused on redefining the country's education policies giving more consideration to national unity, industrialisation, economic and social development. Recent government policy initiatives have focused on attainment of education for all EFA and in particular universal primary education (MOEST, 2005).

Indeed, Primary school education is considered an important component of the education system in Kenya (GoK, 1992) as it is the first phase of formal education. The main purpose of primary school education is to prepare pupils to participate fully in the social, political and economic wellbeing of this country (MOEST, 2005). The primary school curriculum has therefore been designed to provide a functional and practical education that caters for both the needs of children who finish their education at primary school level and to those who wish to continue with secondary school education (KIE, 2003).

Kenya has done well in her efforts to provide education for all (EFA) since she attained independence in 1963, particularly at primary school level. Enrolment in formal primary school grew from 893,533 pupils in 1963 to 7.2 million pupils in 2004 (MOEST, 2005). Out of the 7.2 million pupils that were in school in 2004, 3.5 million were girls and 3.7 million were boys. The re-introduction of the free primary education in 2003 contributed a lot to the increment in enrolment.

The total enrolment in 2003 following the introduction of FPE stood at 6,819,324 with around 3,702,800 being boys compared with 3,505,300 being girls giving a sex ratio of 51.5 to 48.5 MOEST (2005). The numbers on enrolment show that there is near parity in enrolment by gender at the national level.

Although statistics show that gender differences in enrolment has narrowed, girls' primary school participation varies considerably at provincial and district level. Girls are well represented in primary schools in formerly Central and Nairobi provinces and urban centres such as Mombasa, Kisumu and Nakuru (CBS, 2005). Girls access to education in ASAL districts such

as Turkana, Wajir, Samburu, Tana River, and Mandera is very low. For example, in West Pokot district girls account for only 37% of the total number of pupils in primary school (Chege and Sifuna, 2006).

Participation of children in education has been affected by a number of factors that can be classified as economic, social-cultural and school environment. The economic status of a region plays a major role in influencing children participation in education (Cheboi, 2006). It has been observably noted that a province like Central that is economically well endowed has high enrolment and school completion rates. Poverty has been cited as a major factor that discourage parents from investing in education especially in ASAL regions where food availability is scarce and erratic (MOEST, 2003). Due to poverty, many families are not in a position to meet the ever increasing cost of education, even after the re-introduction of free primary education (FPE) in 2003. This is because parents are still required to buy school uniforms, stationery, pay examination, school development fees and cater for the general welfare of their children at school (UNESCO, 2005).

Low participation in education by girls in marginal districts to some extent has been attributed to cultural practices. Practices that discriminated against girls include gender socialization, negative attitudes regarding the cost and benefits of girls' education, early marriage, initiation ceremonies among others (Abagi and Odipo, 1997). Girls' initiation ceremonies are very important in certain communities as it marks the passage from childhood to adulthood. After initiation, many girls find it hard to return to school life because their next expectation is marriage (Wamahiu, 1994). The school environment also plays a role in girls' participation in primary education. Lack of basic facilities in schools such as furniture, latrines and water discourage children from going to school. Schooling is also affected by distance from homesteads to school and insecurity which is prevalent in remote district.

Even so, access rates are fairly low in regions inhabited by pastoral communities. The problem of children from nomadic and pastoral communities under participation in education has a historical dimension. According to Ngome (1999), from the inception of missionary and colonial formal education, schooling in ASAL areas was treated secondary to that in high potential districts. He further adds that as in colonial era, neglect, coupled with poverty, insecurity and the nomadic nature of communities has affected the provision of education to pastoral children with extreme marginalization of girls due to social cultural constraints

Mogotio is one of the five districts in Baringo County. The district falls under the ASAL and most of the inhabitants of the district are agro-pastoralists (ROK, 2001). Like other ASAL regions, children participation in education at primary level is characterised with school enrolment rates that are low as compared to other regions.

There was a steady increment in enrolment in Mogotio district in the years 2000 to 2002. The year 2003 when FPE was re-introduced registered the highest enrolment after which there was a slight drop in enrolment. The figures also show gender gaps in enrolment, which narrowed after the introduction of FPE. According to the Assistant Education Office (AEO, 2007), pupils' participation in school in the District fell far below the projected target of 10,000 pupils by the year 2006. It was therefore important to establish the reasons responsible for the low participation of girls in education in the district.

Statement of the Problem

In spite of the government's efforts to increase the education opportunities to all, enrolment rates of primary school education in ASAL is generally still low. The situation in areas like Mogotio is complicated further by gender disparities characterised by girls' enrolment rates that are lower than that of boys. The low enrolment rates for girls' have been of concern not only to parents and teachers but also to the government. The causes of this situation in Mogotio are not clear and have not been explained. A study to establish the factors that contribute to low enrolment rates of girls in primary schools was therefore necessary.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine the factors that contribute to low enrolment rates of girls in primary schools in Mogotio District.

Research Objective

The general objective of the study was to establish factors that contribute to low enrolment rates of girls in primary schools in Mogotio District. Specifically the study sought to determine the factors that contribute to low enrolment of girls in primary schools in Mogotio District.

Theoretical framework

This study was guided by the general systems theory that originated from Ludwing Von Bertalanffy a theorist biologist. The theory is an interdisciplinary field that is used to study complex systems in nature, society and science. The general systems theory is based on several fundamental ideas. First, all phenomena can be viewed as a web of relationship between elements or systems. Second, all systems whether electrical, biological or social has common patterns, behaviour and properties that can be understood and used to develop a greater insight of the phenomena. Pupils' enrolment rates can be viewed as elements of a process or a system. The other elements or conditions of the system are economic, social-cultural conditions in the homes the pupils come from and the environment in the schools they are in. At any given time, enrolment rates can be promoted or hindered by one or all of the other elements. The elements are closely interdependent and action or condition that affects one element will affect all the others in the system (Powers, Cheney and Crow, 1990).

Research Methodology

Detailed explanations of the relevant research design and instruments that were used to collect data were discussed. Similarly, sample size and sampling procedures as well as data analysis were also addressed.

Research Design

The study adopted the descriptive survey research design. The design was appropriate for the study because it facilitates collection of information from a sample of a population in order to describe their characteristics as they relate to the "fact". According to Kathuri and Pal (1993), it is an efficient method of collecting descriptive data regarding characteristics of a sample of a population, current practices, conditions or needs and preliminary information for generating research questions. Non-response of subjects has been found to be a major weakness of the survey design (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2002). However appropriate steps such as calling back on

absent subjects and random replacement where necessary were taken during the study as a remedy to this weakness.

Study Population

Mogotio District has a total of 25 public primary schools. The total number of the pupils was population of 7589 and out of this number 4090 are boys and 3499 are girls. There were 25 head teachers and 243 teachers in the District. The accessible populations however comprised all the 25 head teachers and all the 213 class teachers in the District

Sampling Procedures and Sample Size

Stratified sampling techniques were used to identify six sample schools from 25 primary schools. This sampling technique was appropriate because the researcher has a purpose, to focus on schools with low enrolment.

Research Instruments

The researcher used two questionnaire (which was divided into two sections) and two interview guides to solicit data from the subjects. The questionnaires were chosen because of the ease of administration, scoring of items and analysis (Ary, Jacobs and Razerieh, 1979). The first questionnaire sought information from the head teachers' and the second one specifically sought information from the class teachers'. The items in the questionnaires were developed on the basis of the objectives of the study. The items in the questionnaire were to capture the factors that contributed to low enrollment rates of girl in primary schools. The two questionnaires had both closed and open ended items. Some of the close-ended items used a 5 point rating scale with 1 representing the least score and 5 the highest score. The interview guides for the pupils and the head of families were used to elicit information that supplemented those provided by the head teachers and class teachers. A pilot test was carried out using a sample of 6 headteachers and 10 class teachers drawn from schools that did not participate in the study.

Data Analysis

The data collected was organized and cleaned of errors made during data collection. The data was then coded, keyed in the computer and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Qualitative statistical techniques were used during the analysis to describe and summarize data. The results of the analysis were in the form of frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviation, graphs and charts.

Results and discussion

Characteristics of the Respondents

Six schools were involved in this study and all of them had classes one to eight. Four groups of respondents namely; head teachers, class teachers, girl pupils and heads of households participated in the study. All the 6 head teachers who participated in the study were male. The results revealed that most of the respondents (50%) have been school heads for a period of 4 years and below. The second group of respondents that participated in the research comprised

class teachers of the eight classes in a primary school. Out of the 47 class teachers who participated in the study, 17 (36.20%) were male and 30 (63.80%) were female. This shows a gender imbalance in favour of women in the distribution of the class teachers.

The results further revealed that most of the subjects (65.9%) have been class teachers in the District for periods ranging from 7 – 18 years. This means that they are in a better position to give informed views on issues pertaining to enrollment and school dropout rates in the District. A sample group of 45 girls who were pupils also participated in the study.

The results indicate that majority of the respondents 82.2% were in the 11 – 16 years age bracket. This is the age when young girls are initiated in womanhood among communities in Mogotio. Out of these 45 pupils, 10 were from class four, 8 were from class five, 8 were from class six, 9 were from class seven and 10 were from class eight. All of these pupils had both parents except one who had only a father. The house hold heads is the last sample group that participated in the study. All of the 12 house hold heads who were involved in the study majority (7 out of the 12) of them were male and all were married. Most (54.5%) of those interviewed had secondary school education while the remaining number 45.5% had primary level of school education. From the results it was noted that the majority (66.7%) of those who participated in the study were farmers. This is an indicator that farming is the main economic activity in Mogotio District. Mogotio is within the ASAL and is not well endowed with adequate rainfall consequently those who depended on agriculture always experience crop failure and loss of livestock due to lack of pasture and water (DAO Koibatek, 2004). As a result, poverty has been rampant and this affected school enrollment rates in general.

Factors Contributing to Girls' Enrollment in Primary Schools

The objective sought to establish factors that contribute to low enrollment of girls in primary school in Mogotio District. From the findings of this study, the factors identified include, inter-alia, economic, social-cultural and school environment. Addition information was gathered using the parents' interview guide. The items were based on the 5 point Likert scale of SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, U-Undecided, D-Disagree and Strongly Disagree. SD was awarded the lowest point 1 and SA was awarded the highest points 5. The means and standard deviation for each item was computed, thereafter the mean of the means for each sub section was computed and used as a measure of the contribute of the factor to school enrollment. A factor with a mean of 2.5 and above was considered to contribution to school enrollment while one with a mean below 2.5 was not considered as a contributor.

a) Economic Factors that Contribute to Girls' Primary School Enrollment

Data on the contribute of economic factor to enrollment was captured using items 1 to 3 in section C of the head teachers' and class teachers' questionnaires. The means and standard deviations of the responses to the items by both the head teachers and the class teachers were tabulated. The means as presented on table 1 was computed and used as a measure of the contribution of the factor to school enrollment.

Table 1: The mean scores and standard deviation for economic factors that contribute to enrolment

Economic factors contributing to enrolment	Head teacher			Class teacher		
	Frequency	Mean	Standard. Deviation	Frequency	Mean	Standard. Deviation
Poverty	6	2.8976	1.4796	48	3.3958	1.49808
High cost of education	6	2.8333	0.98319	48	2.5833	1.28549
Households' income level	6	3.5667	0.74223	50	3.9554	0.93280
Overall mean		3.0778	.42343		3.3115	0.68992

Hence, the results in table 1 showed that the level of a household's income had the highest mean score and was followed by poverty with a mean of 2.8976. High cost of education had the lowest mean 2.8333. According to the head teachers, the income of a household is the main determinant when it comes to enrolling a child in school. It is followed by poverty and the high cost of education. The results from the head teachers shown a high overall mean of 3.077 and because of this, the economy was considered as a factor that contribute to enrollment.

The views of class teachers on factors that contribute to enrollment of girls in primary school in Mogotio District were also addressed. Their views were sought because enrollment at school level depends on the number of pupils in all classes in the school and class registers were kept by class teachers. The class teachers were therefore a good source of information on enrollment. The responses of the class teachers in table 1 above show that household income had the highest mean 3.9554 and was followed by poverty 3.3958 then high cost of education 2.5833, respectively. The results show that the class teacher like the head teachers were of the opinion that a household's income has the greatest influence on enrollment and is followed by poverty, and high cost of education. The overall mean of the class teachers' like that of the head teachers was also high which means that they were also of the view that economic status of a household was factor that contribute to school enrollment

Taking a child to school in Kenya require resources particularly at primary school. Before and after enrollment the parent of the child has to provide uniforms, books, stationery, pay school development fund and fees for co-curriculum activities. Enrolment and retention of a child in school therefore depends on the family's economic status.

When the economic status of a family cannot cater for the educational needs of both boys and girls the latter are sacrificed and the boys are given priority (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). The findings of Chege and Sifuna is supported by that of Wamahiu (1992) who found out in a study done in Kwale and Nairobi that greater value is given to the boy's education as future bread winner for his natal family. Investment in girl's education is viewed as a potential waste given that the girl would possibly provide labour and income to her husband's household. The implication is that when money is scarce parents prefer to invest in their son's education.

b) Social-cultural factors that contribute to girls' enrollment in primary schools

Data on social-cultural factors that contribute to enrollment was elicited using questionnaires that were giving to the head teachers' and class teachers. The means and standard deviations of the

responses to item by the subjects were computed, after which the mean of the means for the sub section was computed and used as a measure of the contribution of the factor to school enrollment. The tabulated means and standard deviations for the head teachers and class teachers as presented thereafter in table 2.

Table2: The mean scores and standard deviation for social cultural factors that contribute to enrolment

Social-cultural factors contributing to enrolment	Head teacher			Class teacher		
	Frequency	Mean	Standard. Deviation	Frequency	Mean	Standard. Deviation
Support from the government	6	2.6667	1.21106	49	2.7347	1.23787
Low priority given to girls education	6	4.1667	0.40825	49	3.3061	1.44632
Gender bias against the girl	5	3.2000	1.64317	49	3.2245	1.46152
Parent/guardians level of education	6	4.0000	0.63246	50	4.1200	0.74615
Domestic responsibilities given to the girl	6	4.0120	1.54919	49	4.1224	0.94940
Health of the girl	6	2.6667	1.50555	50	2.5417	1.42856
Attitude towards girls' education	6	4.1660	0.40825	50	3.5500	1.29198
National policies on education	6	2.58461	1.01241	48	2.5510	1.25932
Distance of the school	6	2.5000	1.22474	49	2.8800	1.13641
Free primary education	6	3.6667	1.03280	50	3.4000	1.48461
Overall mean	10	3.36301	.711646	10	3.2431	0.57995

The results from the head teachers shown that low priority given to girls' education had the highest mean at 4.1667. It was followed by attitudes towards girls education at 4.1660 and domestic responsibilities which had a mean of 4.0120. The items with the least means were distance from the school at 2.500 and national policies on education. The standard deviations observed varied from 0.40825 to 1.64317. This shows that there were wide variations in the views of the subjects on the level of contribution of each item on enrollment. The items' means and the overall mean of the sub section (which stood at 3.3630) were considered high. It can therefore be said that social-cultural factor contribute to girls' primary school embroilment since its overall means was above the critical value.

The results of the class teachers' on the other hand show that domestic responsibilities undertaken by the girls has the highest mean of 4.1224. It is followed by pupils' parent level of education at 4.1200 and subsequently free primary education which had a mean of 3.4000. The items with the least means were attitudes towards girls' education and national policies on

education which had means of 2.5500 and 2.5510, respectively. The overall mean was fairly high and therefore, class teachers were also of the view that social-cultural factor contribute to girls' primary school enrollment.

The views of the household heads on girls pupils enrollment were also sought, since the responsibility of enrolling a child solely depends on the parents or guardians or the household head. The household heads presented their opinion of what contribute to enrollment, a summarized in table 3.

Table 3: Opinion of the Household Heads on what contribute to Enrollment

Factors that contribute to enrollment	Frequency	Percent
Importance of education	2	22.2
Free primary education and school feeding programme	3	33.3
Free primary education and importance of education	1	11.1
Poverty and domestic responsibilities	2	22.2
Free primary education and ability to afford education	1	11.1
Total	9	100.0

The results shown in table 3 that majority 3 of the household heads were of the view that free primary education FPE and school feeding programme were the main contributors to girls' enrollment. Out of the remaining 7 respondents, 2 were of the opinion that the importance of education girls' enrollment and another 2 were of the view that poverty and domestic responsibilities were the main factors. Out of the remaining 2 household heads, 1 was of the view that FPE and the importance of education were the main contributors to enrollment while the other was of the view that FPE and ability to afford education is what makes him enroll the girls in school.

The study found out that social-cultural set up of a child's community affects one's school enrollment. Thus these findings is in concurrence to a study conducted in Asut sub-county in Uganda by Opit (1999) who arguably pointed out that need for child labour, gender socialization, and illiteracy of parents were some of the reasons given by different groups as to why their children were not in school. Furthermore, Kipngeno (2001) in a study carried out in Kajiado noted that attitudes and gender bias rooted in some cultures were some impediments to access to education. He vividly observed that in pastoral communities such as the Maasai, cultural believes and practices such as early marriage and parental preference to boys contribute to none enrollment of girls.

Conclusion

Basing on the findings of this study it is evident that there is still gender disparity in enrollment in primary schools in Mogotio District with boys registering high enrollments than girls. The factors that contribute to low enrollment of girls in primary schools in Mogotio district had an overall means score above the critical value of 2.5. They include the economy and social cultural factors. In making inference from the finding of this study, it is quite crystal concludes that

economic and social cultural factors significantly contribute to low enrollment girls in primary schools in Mogotio District.

The issues raised by the study calls for efforts of the household heads, the community and the government to gap the glaring disparities on enrollment based on gender differences. In fact social-cultural practices that hinder enrollment to give access education needs to be urgently addressed negative attitudes and lack of awareness on the importance of educating girls must be dealt with at household and community level. In order to open up space for their socio-economic and political development as human being and so as to fully take their rightful share in society as envisaged in Education for All (EFA), Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Kenya's Vision 2030, the Kenya's Constitution (2010) as well as other regional and international affirmative action conventions in which Kenya is a signatory. The required changes can be achieved through sensitization programmes, guidance and counselling. However, economic issues like poverty and national policies in education require the combined efforts of household heads, the community and the government if they are to be addressed.

In view of this, the study suggests that the household heads and the community at large should be sensitized on the importance of educating the girl child. They should also be persuaded to abandon negative attitudes against girls' education and retrogressive cultural practices like early marriage and use of child labour. The government should assist in poverty reduction in the district by coming up with poverty eradication programmes that are tailor made to fit its needs. For example the government through the Ministry of Agriculture can initiate irrigation projects along River Molo, thus creating job opportunities for local communities and hence significantly reducing poverty in the area.

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Education and Sustainable Development in Africa: An Appraisal

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Abstract

Generally, when one talks about African development, it ends up being talk about African underdevelopment. This points to the undeniable fact that Africa is in dire need of development. In this regard, there cannot be any sustainable development in Africa without education. The education that is key to the continent's development is that which leads the individual to a holistic self-discovery and in turn empowers the individual to add value to the society. It is the education that prepares one to appreciate and cherish African values and potentials. Unfortunately, the reality on ground in Africa is the fact that unsuitable educational and economic approaches are the principal causes of the continent wasting chances of development. Most African countries, particularly Nigeria pattern their educational institutions in line with colonial masters' style instead of developing indigenous system. This attitude works against African rich pre-colonial educational system. The pre-colonial African educational system allows one to develop him/her and in turn contribute to the development of the society. Functionalism in the light of the common good of the greatest number was the guiding principle of education in traditional African society. In the light of the above, the objective of the paper is to make a critical appraisal of education in the context of sustainable development in Africa. Applying historical and analytical methods, the paper proceeds in the following sub-themes: Africa and Development, Indigenous Education in Africa, Nature of Education that Guarantees African Development, and in conclusion, the paper submits that the type of education that contributes to the development of a people must take account of the specifics and essential values of the people. Therefore, an educated African capable of enhancing development in Africa cannot be a visitor to his/her own people.

Keywords; education, sustainable development, colonial masters, pre-colonial,

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Patrick U. Nwosu (2012). Education and Sustainable Development in Africa: An Appraisal

Kenya Studies Review, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Africa is a continent riddled with legions of developmental problems. Many of the problems have their origins in what is popularly described as “the scramble for Africa”. The scramble for Africa commonly means “the carving up of the African continent into some thirty colonies and protectorates, that was a byproduct of the aggressive competition between the European powers in the 19th century” (Shorter 2006:23). One could describe Africa as a compact of land mass with an area of about 29,952,000 square kilometers. This is approximately 22.4% of the whole land on earth. The vegetation of Africa ranges from tropical rain forest and mangroves swamps to mountain tundra, and the soil from tropical red earths to podols (Nwosu 2011:5). But very sadly, the scramble gave European nations alone ten million square miles of the new territory. The French occupied Algiers in 1830. Ten years on, an unnecessary border dispute was used as a pretext for annexing Tunisia. At the Berlin conference, Germany, with British and American backing, gave approval to the creation of the Congo Free State. With great feelings, Achebe (2012) writes of this scramble for Africa:

The rain that beat Africa began four or five hundred years ago, from the “discovery” of Africa by Europe, through the transatlantic slave trade, to the Berlin conference of 1885. That controversial gathering of the world’s leading European powers precipitated what we now call the scramble for Africa, which created new boundaries that did violence to Africa’s ancient societies and resulted in tension prone modern states. It took place without Africa consultation or representation, to say the least (2012:1).

Consequently, France, Britain, Germany and Belgium consolidated their position in the areas allocated to them: the Sahara, the lake regions of East and Central Africa, and the Niger Basin of West Africa.

The scramble for Africa has militated against socio-economic, spiritual political and educational development of the continent. Shorter (2006) expresses the situation thus:

These areas of Africa were already a prey to violence and inter ethnic conflict precipitated by the slave trade; ...the colonial incursion roused strong resistance on the part of African rulers and aggravated their domestic wars. In 1982 an already violent situation was being rendered more violent. Every step of colonial annexation provoked resistance and the consequences of resistance were devastating (2006:24).

Achebe’s recent work, corroborating Shorter’s sentiments, reveals a distinctive portrait of post colonial Africa. He notes in the work that “Africa’s post colonial disposition is the result of a people who have lost the habit of ruling themselves” (Achebe 2012:2). Added to the foregoing, is also the difficulty of managing the various systems foisted upon African nations upon the dawn of independence by the colonial masters, educational institutions that are key to sustainable development inclusive.

Hence, the reality on ground in Africa is the fact that unsuitable educational and economic approaches are the major causes of the continent’s illusive attempts to sustainable development. There cannot be any sustainable development in Africa without suitable home grown education. The pre-colonial African educational system comes to mind here. It is a system that allows one to develop himself/ herself and in turn contribute to the development of society. Functionalism in the context of the common good of the greatest number was the guiding principle of education or training in the ancient African society.

In the light of all this, the paper applying historical and analytical methods makes a critical appraisal of education in Africa pointing to sustainable development. Then it offers a brief sketch of African potentials in the journey of sustainable development. Afterwards, it deals with pre colonial education, paying attention to the nature of education that secures suitable human and infrastructural advancements for the continent. In conclusion, the paper submits that an educated African capable of enhancing development in Africa cannot be a stranger to his/her own people.

Theoretical Framework

Etymologically, the word “education” comes from the Latin root “educ-ere” meaning “to lead out” to bring out” (Wormald 1962:331). Education leads one to a comprehensive self-discovery and actualization. It is about the actualization of the innate potentialities in the individual. The individual, through educational process, gradually manifests his/her potentialities and capabilities. In their study of Philosophical Foundations of Education, Ozmon and Craver (1976) observe that: “Education is involved with both the world of ideas and the world of practical activity; good ideas can lead to good practices and good practice lead good ideas” (1976: x1). In other words, the educational process of self-discovery is not only to benefit the individual, but also benefits the larger society. In fact, education contributes to the growth of society. The essential fact of education is recounted by Onwuka (2002) when he cited Japan as instance. He notes that education “is the instrument to be used in transforming any society. Through education, developments of various kinds occur. Developments in terms of health, environments, transport, and so many other good qualities of life occur” (2002:16). He went further to say that “in Japan, during the Meiji the Restoration in 1868, education was employed as an instrument par excellence for national policy and was used to cultivate the cardinal virtues of the Shinto philosophy of filial piety, benevolence, justice, propriety, intelligence, and fidelity” (2002:17). Till date, the handing one of these cardinal virtues is the function of the school.

In the light of the above, education is interrelated with the development and direction a society takes; education policy makers and educators must become aware of this if they don’t yet know. Furthermore, education involves the passing on of the cultural heritage of a people from one generation to the next. This is the case to assure that essential social and cultural continuity exists. Education also provides skills, abilities, and understanding to develop new ways of doing things in light of changing conditions. But the question is: did the western-oriented education brought to Africa aim at sustainable development?

Responding to this fundamental concern, Fafunwa (2004) notes that the missionaries and colonizers undertook the business of education not because they regarded education as good for Africans, but because they found that they could not do their work properly without giving the people the tool of reading and writing (2004:70). Shorter (2006) admits the limitations of Western and missionary education projects in Africa and gave a fair summary of their objective thus: “we do not want to create scholars but educated people, formed for Christianity, for a serious life and for reflection. Education was a necessary component of evangelization” (2006:198)

Sadly, in pursuing their educational objective, the missionaries sowed seeds of discrimination and even violence in African soil. Thus, between 1892 to 1914, mutual intolerance of one kind or

another was characteristic of all Christian denominations in Africa and this has lingered till date. In terms of educational curricular in most African universities, especially in Nigeria, the drivers ignore biographical situations and pattern activities after the colonial system. Olupona (1992) attests to this when he writes: The University of Nigeria, Nsukka, presents a somewhat different programme. As a university that was modeled after the American university system before the civil war, it had some of the best expatriate scholars...in Nigeria who had all along encouraged the scientific study of religions (1992:189).

Africa and Development

Reflecting on Africa from an integral human context, one sees a continent that is rich in biodiversity, rich in aquatic and wild lives. In addition to this wealth, the continent is also endowed with oil, gas and many other mineral resources, combined with in-depth search for God expressed in African religion (Afrel). However, modern foundational structures and the coming of new religions in Africa set in motion the present day development challenges in the land. At the foundational base of contemporary African economic, political, educational and social blocks is a strong systemic structure of poverty that has economic interest protection as an objective (Nwosu 2010:66). In this regard, Dorr (1984) notes that the development situation in Africa is that in which “the economy... is reorganized to serve the interest of the imperial powers” (1984:53). Not only were the outside boundaries of the continent decided by the West at the Berlin conference, but the continuous internal exploitation of the economy has been arranged by the West ever since (Mayson 2010:104). At the heart of the developmental crisis in Africa is the continued ownership and control of the resources by the imperial powers and unaccountable African governments and elite. The consequence of this, as being witnessed today, is the loss of human society and the community. Mayson’s study shows that disharmony now characterizes the developmental lives and relationships in Africa. She writes:

The economic worldview of the west, trying so desperately to take over Africa, is based on making profits. A repeated failure demonstrates that this approach does not work. Africa knows that the only profitable path is an economy based on shared, compassionate, cooperative, collective democracy. The alternative is extinction (Mayson 2010:109).

On his own part, Nnoruka (1998) describes the African developmental efforts as a near scramble for existence. He argues that:

Much of the continent has turned into a battle ground of contending dooms: over population, poverty, starvation, illiteracy, corruption, social breakdown, over crowded cities, war and of war refugees. African has thus become... a vast continent in a free for all, a sort of new-post colonial breakdown (Nnoruka 1998:242).

Certain factors like political instability and corrupt practices legitimize African woes.

Above all, wrong economic policies and misplaced educational approaches are the principal causes of the continent’s wasting chances of development. Most African countries, instead of developing and diversifying agriculture, try in vain to industrialize at a time when it is clear that much of the rest of the world is already well on its way into the industrial age (Nnoruka 1998:242). Worst still, African countries, in their haste to catch up with western industrialization, actively and consciously discourage agriculture, which constitutes basic strength for most countries. This is not good for African sustainable development. Mayson (2010) imagines what ought to have happened in Africa. She writes: “Africa had plenty of land and resources and

people to develop from prehistory to a modern educated and productive state in a century, as the United States and Australian had done. The original root of Africa's wealth was its agricultural potential, which could be developed to provide support for the vast move to the urban centers, where an industrialized population could turn Africa's mineral and manufacturing potential into the full experience of a people enjoying economic and cultural liberation" (Mayson 2010:103). But where is the African developmental and educational capacity to achieve this?

Development concerns basically the individual, and sustainable development is the extent to which one realizes his/her potentials and attains social integration. Developments starts with the individual person anchored on education. Opoku (1985) puts it succinctly: "Development as the realization of the potentialities of a human society or nation involves the attainment of certain desirable ends, and the surest means of attaining those ends is through education" (Opoku 1985:69 - 70). Sustainable development in Africa must take into consideration the person as a whole. African continent would be developed when all parts of societal aspirations are held in balance. What consciousness does Africa hold towards suitable education that can result to sustainable development? The form of consciousness expressed in the *Africannes* of education is the concern of the next subheadings.

Pre-colonial Education in Africa

No appraisal of education and sustainable development in Africa is complete without adequate attention to the indigenous educational system prevalent in the continent before the advent of colonialism. Indigenous education in Africa is as old as African continent. Nnoruka (1998) offers some valuable insight into indigenous education in Africa. He writes: Africa before its contact with western civilization had a rich educational system. The young man who followed this educational system developed himself and eventually contributed to the development of society (Nnoruka 1998:243 - 244). Pragmatism or functionalism that aims at the common good of the greatest number was the guiding principle of education in ancient African society. In other words, education was conceived as a means to an end and not an end in itself. Social responsibility, job orientation, political participation, spiritual and ethical values were important components of African education. Children learnt by imitation. Fafunwa (2004) emphasized that, they (children) together with the adults "engaged in participatory education through ceremonies, rituals, imitation, recitation and demonstration" (2004:2).

In African setting, farming, fishing, weaving, cooking, carving, and knitting and so on form practical courses learnt by doing. There were recreational courses which included wrestling, dancing, drumming, racing and other displays. According to Nnoruka (1998) "the periods were normally moonlight and the venue the public square. There was also a system of intellectual training. The courses were local history, legends, the environment, poetry, reasoning, riddles, proverbs, storytelling and so on" (1998:244). In this regard, Fafunwa (2004) explains:

Education in old Africa was an integrated experience. It combined physical training with character building and mutual activity with intellectual training. At the end of each stage, demarcated either by age level or years of exposure, the child was given a practical test relevant to his experience and level of development and in terms of the job to be done. This was a continuous assessment which eventually culminated in a passing out ceremony, or initiation into adulthood (2004:2)

Education during this period has a focus and objective. It was functional because the curriculum was relevant to the needs of the society. Hardly did men and women roam the villages and towns because of unemployment. The number of unemployed young men and women was very minimal Fafunwa (2004) further summarizes the cardinal contents and totality of indigenous education in Africa as the:

Aggregate of all the processes by which a young adult develops the abilities, attitudes and other forms of behaviour which are of positive value to the society in which he lives; it is a process for transmitting culture in terms of continuity and growth for disseminating knowledge either to ensure social control or to guarantee rational direction of the society (2004:3).

Education in ancient Africa enabled people to develop a sense of belonging in order to participate actively in family and community affairs. It also empowered people to understand appreciate and promote the cultural heritage the entire community. The next subheading will attempt to do analysis of the nature of education that can secure sustainable development for Africa.

Nature of Education that Guarantees African Sustainable Development

At this point of the discourse, the fundamental question that comes to mind is: What manner of education can contribute to African development? Put another way, what kind of education can enable Africans to develop Africa today? It is education that gives one sufficient opportunity to develop a mental capacity and exposure beyond the African prism while at the same time allows him/her to appreciate age-long African values. The educated person becomes in truth African while at the same vein open up to other cultures. The recipient of this education appreciates African values and imperative categories such as solidarity or *umunacracy* in Igbo, hospitality and respect for elders. To achieve this Nnoruka (1998) pointedly argues that “the study of African values is important... because we find ourselves in a historical setting where vice is extolled at the expense of value...” (1998:245).

The study of African values here implies a critical approach to the world view of African forefathers, a revival of their values a renaissance approach to the study of values; knowledge of what values are. A highlight of the possible course content on the Igbo practices of solidarity as a value may be helpful here. The Igbo of Southeastern Nigeria promote the quality of life of the individual and the community through solidarity. It is through solidarity that the actualization of the possibilities of the individual person receives the opportunity to express his/her individuality, develops hi/her personality and fully becomes the kind of person he/she want to be. In this way, the community life progresses as well. Taylor (1999) affirms this fact when he writes that human persons can “only develop their characteristically human capacities in society. The claim is that living in society is a necessary condition of the development of rationality, in some sense of becoming a fully responsible being” (1999:190). Although Taylor (1999) used the word “society” which does not have the same meaning with African sense of community, his submission adds more force to the fact solidarity is an inseparable aspect of Igbo social life and by extension African social life. It enriches the quality of African life and hence promotes happiness among members of the community.

The willingness and disposition to live together for purposes of sustainable development is a basic aspect of African social life. Armed with fact, Ezekwonna (2005) gives a hermeneutic nexus between the in contexts of education. He writes: “the individual remains part of the whole in his own complexity expressing the ultimate reality. He is placed in a given context which is the community where his reality is actualized. Whatever individuals do is done in the context of the community” (Ezekwonna 2005:38). Given the nexus between the individual and the community in Africa, the active participation of all improves the quality of life of the African. In this way, Africans are “viable, resilient, industrious, tenacious, achieving people, and experienced in ways of group life, including groups other than those of a kinship nature” (Carlston 1968:210). In Africa, the individual cannot alienate himself/herself from community life.

With an adequate grounding in the meaning of development education Equiano (1967) gives a rich appreciation of African social education. He writes: “agriculture is our chief employment, and everyone, even the children and women, are engaged in it. Thus we are all habituated to labour from our earliest years. Everyone contributes something to the common stock, and as we are unacquainted with idleness we have no beggars” (Equiano 1967:8). Equiano (1967) here strongly submits that solidarity is achieved in Africa as a result of hard work and cooperation on the part of every member of the community. In order that solidarity could promote the quality of life; every member of the community must be active. The course content on solidarity should conclude by strongly emphasizing the important point that solidarity is an inseparable aspect of African social life. It is the ingredient which gives flavor to African life. Again, the content of the educational system under discourse should be general and at the same time particular. The general includes the various expression of African culture: myths, folklore, songs, proverbs, plays, symbols, artifacts and so on. The knowledge of them encourages and critical thinking among people and elicits strong responses that may form basis for shared discussion. The particular enables the individual to undertake specific studies that appeal to him/her as a person. The history Africans study should not just end with general information. It should pay attention to particular history of one’s locality and kindred. This is very relevant based on the observation of Nnoruka (1998) that “there are some who pass out from universities as graduates without being able to explain the meaning of their family names; beyond their nuclear family, they know almost nothing about their kindred” (1998: 247). Against this perspective, Stewart (1862) argues for the value of the study of history. He writes: “history is replete with instruction, and suggestive of duty. It takes the experience of others and offers it to ourselves, admonishing us to shun their virtues. No person can read a faithful history without advantage...” (Stewart 1862:1) For Stewart (1862) the merit of historical study is more than moral instruction.

So far, it has been emphasized that the education that can guarantee African development is one that prepares the recipient to steadily assimilate cherished African value. Such as system of education cannot be lacking in focus. A product of such a system will be one properly formed as an authentic African person. However, the basic challenge here bothers on personal identity. The nature and nature that play vital roles in the formation of personal identity are not the same in every environment. Be that as it may, for any person to be authentic there must be reflection of the past circumstances of birth, early childhood influences and other realities that shaped one’s view of the world.

The issue of personal identity is quite difficult for the African considering the impasse that many African societies find themselves. It is on the one hand the failure to recognize the identity and importance of every individual in society. There is often the problem of the gap between the rich and the poor, the education and non-education. The educated often and arrogantly think that it is their exclusive right to determine the destiny of others. On the other hand, there are times in African society when you find “irrational adherence to some traditional ways of life. The principle is: “it has been so, so it is and so will it continue to be” (Nnoruka 1998:248). The rationale behind such ways of life, at times, is never critically evaluated and put in perspective. Through the indigenous education system, with focus on African development, as being advocated, some of these challenges would be improved through critical analyses.

The African social impasse requires a radical system of education, radical enough to give to African society the type of character that pragmatism gave to American society in the face of the unduly intellectual idealism that marked the 19th century (Ozmon and Craver 1981:96). To achieve this, the course contents of African education should be a gradual and tested pedagogical process which, if well carried out, makes the learner at each stage of learning more mature. The maturity will manifest in critical analysis and applications to the benefits of the greatest number. The end product is positive progress and recognition of the diversity among individuals and their circumstances of up-bringing.

The thesis of the paper is that for education to contribute to African development, it must first appreciate indigenous values and contribution to the development of the African. The African developed through this process becomes a well-informed citizen of African continent. The well-informed African represents a level of knowledge. His/her principal guide is the development of the continent. He/she is prudent, especially in respect of the choices being made, knowing that what is irrelevant today could be relevant tomorrow (Nnoruka 199:249). Schutz (1962) explains that the opinions of well-informed are reasonably founded and verifiable in particular fields. The well-informed is perfectly qualified to make proper assessment of issues and situations. An African well-informed citizen is, therefore able to form a judgment concerning contradictory experts and make more or less well-founded decisions for one's own actions” (Schutz 1962:351). Put another way, the educated African does not accept unreflectively any assertion. He or she appreciates the values inherent in African culture, accepts the inputs of others to the development of the continent. At the same time, he/her rejects as abnormal and false the assertion of outsiders telling the African stories

Conclusion

From the various submissions above, it is clear that only genuine education can bring about African development. Such as education prepares the recipient for active citizenship and broadens his/her perspective. The study notes that it is indigenous education system that is best suited in this context. The indigenous education stresses the importance of seeing one in relation to all the experiences he/she encounters in the environment, not just class-room experiences. Through the indigenous process of education, people are looked at in terms of cognitive, physical and emotional development. Other factors that serve to influence and shape lives are also considered as general and particular histories. Also, the paper submits that it is time African concepts and categories are used as media of instruction. At the start, there may be deficiencies, but Africans must be bold to make a start.

The paper concludes that effects of development cannot be the same in all parts of Africa. For education of a people, it must take account of the specific values of the people. Therefore, for education to be a tool of sustainable development in Africa, sufficient chance must be given to the individual to assimilate the fundamental African values. To this end, a well-informed African will be at home with his/her environment and with his/her own people. He/she through critical study of the values of the people rejects excesses and advocates the mean. It is, in the totality of these, that indigenous education can enhance sustainable development in Africa.

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Challenges Facing the Implimentation of HIV and AIDS Policy in Primary Schools In Mbale District in Uganda

By

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Abstract

The research was to establish the challenges facing the implementation of HIV/AIDS policy in primary schools in Mbale district. The researcher used both simple random sampling and purposive sampling of the respondents. The study was carried out in five primary schools of which two were privately owned and three government aided schools. From each of these schools, a head teacher and ten teachers were selected to participate in the study. Data was also obtained from three district officials, namely; the Education Officer, the Inspector of schools and the HIV/AIDS focal person. Qualitative, quantitative and triangulation designs were used to collect, and analyze the data. The study was guided by the general question: What are challenges in HIV and AIDS policy implementation in Mbale district?, and the following specific research questions: Firstly, Which management responses are in place to address the challenges of implementing the HIV/AIDS policy in primary schools in Mbale district?, Secondly, What are the factors hindering the implementation of education sector policy on HIV/AIDS in primary schools in Mbale district? Data was analysed using Qualitative Solutions and Research (QSR) for qualitative data and statistical packages (SPSS) for quantitative data. The findings revealed that there were a number of factors which hamper the implementation of HIV/AIDS policy. These factors included insufficient resources, little political support, poor coordination, corrupt tendencies, culture, and negative attitude by the policy implementers. In response to the findings, the researcher has proposed recommendations to rectify the situation. The researcher anticipated that the study would guide education policy makers to properly plan for the staff who are infected with HIV and AIDS. It could also provide information on how the policy implementers would improve on the conditions of the staff and pupils who are infected and affected with HIV and AIDS.

Key words: Policy Teachers, Factors, Stigma, Discrimination, Mitigation, Prevalence, abstinence, cultural, political, social factors.

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Gidudu Hannah Lunyolo (2012). Challenges Facing the Implementation of HIV and AIDS Policy in Primary Schools In Mbale District in Uganda. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency syndrome) is a severe immunological disorder caused by Human Immuno-Deficiency virus. Uganda is one of the first countries in the world to experience a generalized HIV and AIDS pandemic. Her overall prevalence is 7.2% (Science in Africa, 2013) in Mbale district, the prevalence rate is at 6% according to Uganda AIDS Commission's National Strategic Frame work (2006/2007-2011/2012. Three thousand, four hundred ninety three (3,493) children in primary schools in Uganda are orphaned due to the HIV and AIDS scourge (TASO Report April 2007). As such, the Government of Uganda mounted determined efforts to reduce the spread of the HIV and AIDS infection. Uganda's efforts were to protect human and social rights of those affected and infected and mitigate the impacts of the pandemic on Ugandans.

The Government initiated a policy and guidelines document which stated that each sector should develop a sector specific policy that is consistent with and responds to the National overarching policy on HIV/AIDS and the National strategic plan (Ministry of Education and Sports 2006). Accordingly, the Ministry of Education developed the policy providing a frame work for responding to HIV and AIDS in the Education and Sports Sector with specific policy objectives which were not implemented. Some of these are: To raise the knowledge base of learners, education managers and other sector employees on HIV and AIDS; To eliminate all forms of stigma and discrimination in the education and sports sector, and To contribute to the knowledge base on HIV and AIDS through research. The sector was experiencing an increase in staff attrition partly due to HIV/AIDS related factors like low morale, stigma and discrimination in schools (MOEs 2006). Although the HIV and AIDS policy implementers have tried to play their roles, there are underlying problems which hinder the proper management of the HIV and AIDS scourge in Mbale district. In this study, I identified the challenges encountered by the school management in implementing the sector policy as set by the Ministry of Education and Sports.

The Education and Sports Sector was charged with the responsibility of promoting an equitable approach to prevention of HIV transmission among education managers, heads of education institutions, teachers, support staff and learners. The district Education officials, head teachers, and teachers have failed to implement the HIV and AIDS policy as a measure of fighting the spread of HIV/AIDS and stigmatization of those affected or infected by the scourge. In spite of such a pronouncement, during my field work as Education officer, I noted that there were persistent teacher absenteeism and lateness occasioned by ill health or caring for the sick. This in turn resulted in increased work load for the available teachers and support staff. This disturbing trend prompted me to question whether the HIV/AIDS policy was well managed and implemented in the schools I supervised. What challenges did the school management experience in implementing such a well-planned HIV/AIDS policy? How were the different schools responding to these challenges, if any? It was therefore imperative to design a study that would establish the challenges facing the implementation of this policy in primary schools in Mbale district.

Literature Review

This chapter dealt with theoretical reviews of the literature related to the challenges facing the implementation of HIV and AIDS policy in primary schools. It focused on some of the challenges facing the implementation of HIV and AIDS policy in work places generally and in particular the education sector. I used the following theme in my discussion: **‘factors hindering the implementation of HIV and AIDS policy in primary schools in Mbale District’**.

Although the government of Uganda made efforts to put in place the policies on HIV/AIDS as a measure to combat HIV/AIDS, there were still having many factors interfering with the implementation of such program. Among other factors, the following paused to be the major ones: According to Chillag et al (2002), limited resources made it difficult for various stake holders to implement the HIV and AIDS policy. The Uganda AIDS Commission also share the view that there are limited resources However, according to them, services were delivered despite these obstacles. Community based Organizations were generally well positioned to deliver services to specific high risk populations because they understand their local communities and were connected to the community they serve. According to the Uganda AIDS Commission report (2005), a lot of funding was extended to Uganda by external development partners under PEPFAR and GFATM, but there are still gaps in resources.

Besides the above factors, poverty among teachers has proved to be a threat to HIV/AIDS policy implementation (Chillig et al 2002), as it is also reflected the ‘Uganda National Report (2010) on the progress of Implementation of the African Union Plan of Action’. When teachers live in abject poverty, they are most likely to face difficulties in concentrating on their duties like counseling the pupils. This may be so because their minds are pre occupied with what they can do to come out of their personal problems at the expense of planning ahead on how best they can improve on mitigation of HIV/AIDS basic information. Gould and Huber (2002), also contend that poverty is a threat to HIV/AIDS policy implementation.

Accordingly, there was a tendency of staff turnover (Bartholow, 2002). At most times many teachers and support staff tended to look for green pasture whenever it was possible. This was also in line with Chillag’s view (2002) which stated that staff attrition affects the HIV/AIDS policy implementations.

According to Woog (2003), many youths did not want to test for HIV/AIDS instead they preferred doing it at some other point in future due to fear, lack of confidentiality and stigma in case one had the AIDS virus. He further states that 77% of the youths in Kenya and 90% in Uganda are not willing to test for HIV/AIDS as the policy requires. Another reason was that parents and communities were generally not supportive to testing for HIV among young people. They had a belief that young people were free from the virus. There was also negative attitude by the HIV/AIDS Policy implementers towards the scourge of HIV/AIDS (Panchaud et al, 2006). Some people felt it was a waste of time to bother about those who are already infected with the disease. Teachers’ attitudes, beliefs as well as appropriate levels of comfort and confidence were supposed to have been supported and monitored by the policy implementers.

According to Uganda AIDS Commission Forum Report (2005), there was general lack of clarity on what was entailed in the ABC Model even among the implementers. The lack of appropriate information therefore called for immediate action by the various policy implementers. Every stake holder should have been brought on board on issues of reducing and preventing the HIV

and AIDS spread. According to AIDS commission report (2002), there was lack of political support and commitment from the highest level of leadership to provide strong and sustainable action. Their findings also indicated that there was lack of understanding of local and religious values of various communities which to them had blocked successful strategy for implementing Education sector policy on HIV/AIDS.

According to the Ministry of Education Sports HIV/AIDS strategic plan (2001), the Government was to promote and build partnership with NGOs/CBO and other stake holders for effective implementation of AIDS education, counseling and testing in education institutions. These seemed not to have been working because there was minimal involvement of civil society and faith Based organization as development partners. As an example, Uganda Women Concern Ministry, and AIDS Information Center among others seemed not to have had direct contact with school communities in the HIV/AIDS policy implementation. They seemed not to have played their part as a requirement according to the objective already mentioned. However, some of them like Compassion International seemed to have been addressing the issue of HIV/AIDS through promoting voluntary HIV testing and mitigation of the scourge of HIV/AIDS in primary schools.

There was also lack of concerted efforts among key sector actors in the district. This consequently suffocated the program of HIV/AIDS policy implementation. As reported by Madraa (WHO, 2008), the management of the whole supply chain was very weak and problematic. This explains why there have been inadequate advocacy of HIV and AIDS activities by leaders in the education sector. Special focus on leadership at various levels was to ensure that AIDS was the Agenda of all social and development plans. Furthermore, there seemed to be limited scope and geographical coverage of key interventions in HIV/AIDS prevention, care and impact mitigation.

According to the report (UNGASS, 2003), an implementation challenge included reluctance of some government stake holders to give priority to the issue of HIV/AIDS. There seemed to be corruption and misappropriation of Government Funds. In 2001 the United States gave \$8 million to Uganda Government. (Human Rights Watch 2005). All districts benefited from this money. Ten primary schools in Mbale district under the Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for communication to Youth received part of this money. The purpose of the money was to expand HIV prevention in education institutions. The money seemed not to have been spent according to the guidelines. Uganda Progress Report (2007) findings indicated that a lot of HIV funds were spent on administration costs rather than on implementation of the policy.

According to Vanes (2003), many people did not want to use condoms on the ground that they reduce pleasure. Accordingly, many people especially the youth did not use them, therefore putting them at a high risk of getting the HIV virus. Therefore due to the above, the HIV/AIDS prevalence among the youth is not dropping as expected. This indicated that there was a great need for sensitization and close monitoring of the youth. As also suggested by Janet Museveni, the first lady that, emphasis should be on abstinence from sex before marriage during these sensitizations (Human Rights Watch, 2005).

According to Uganda AIDS Commission report (2002), co-ordination, planning and implementation of HIV/AIDS policy had inadequacies that needed to be attended to. There exists conflicting roles. There was also decline in the trends of implementation of the HIV and AIDS Policies in the district. Consequently, quality and coverage of care and support services in the

district was poor, hence rendering the implementation process wanting. HIV and AIDS in the district mainstreamed but not being implemented as required. The district ought to plan and budget processes to mobilize local resources so as have the implementation done.

There were no proper mechanisms in place for monitoring the epidemic and the progress of the response to collect the much-needed information to inform the planning processes at the district particularly in primary schools. Though there were efforts made to fight the epidemic, it could only be regarded as a modest progress and not a success since there were existing gaps, some of which have been discussed above. AIDS must be a priority in all social and economic development efforts. Substantial progress can only be achieved through expanding interventions and service coverage to all corners of the district by bringing all potential actors on board to fight the epidemic.

Scope of the study

The study was conducted in 3 selected Government aided and 2 privately owned primary schools in Busiu, Bungokho Mutoto, Bukonde and Bufumbo sub-counties. The study specifically looked at some of the challenges facing the implementation of the Education sector policy on HIV and AIDS in Mbale district.

Methodology

Research Design

The study was both qualitative and quantitative in nature. The researcher used a descriptive survey research design. The study was basically descriptive. It was concerned with explanations, descriptions and explorations of opinions and attitude of education officers, head teachers, and teachers about the challenges in the implementation of the Education Sector policy on HIV and AIDS in primary schools in Mbale district. The survey design enabled the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data (Amin 2003), which the researcher used to ascertain the challenges facing the implementation of HIV and AIDS policy in primary schools in Mbale district.

Population and Sampling

There are 104 Government Aided Primary Schools in Mbale district with 104 primary school head teachers and 41 private primary schools. The total number of teachers and pupils was 1500 and 76,000 respectively. In addition, there is one (1) District HIV and AIDS Focal Point Person and five District Education Officers at Department of Education at the district. (Source: District Education Office Mbale.)

Target population

The target population was confined to: Teachers of the three selected Government Aided primary schools and two private schools in Mbale district, Head teachers of the three selected Government Aided Primary schools and two private schools in Mbale district, The district HIV and AIDS Focal Point Person, and two officials from the district department of education i.e. an Education Officer and Inspector of schools.

Sample Size

Five schools were selected for the study, from which 1 head teacher, 10 teachers from each selected school, 2 District Education Officials and the district HIV and AIDS Focal Point Person. The study thus had a total of fifty eight respondents.

Sampling Strategies

Purposive sampling was used to select the education officers. Purposive sampling was used because the researcher targeted those officers with experience. These officers were the most senior in their fields of operation having served for more than seven years. It was therefore assumed, and rightly so, that owing to their long experience in the education sector, they were deemed to have viable information required for the study. The researcher therefore selected the Education Officer Administration, and the Inspector of schools who had served for ten years and eight years respectively. In every district in Uganda, there is one HIV/AIDS focal person. It was therefore necessary to include this person in a study that sought to establish the challenges to implementing the policy in the district.

Data collection Methods and Instruments/Procedures

Three instruments were used for the collection of data. These were: questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis.

Questionnaires

This was chosen because it was appropriate in the collection of data on challenges facing the implementation of HIV/AIDS Policy in primary schools in Mbale district within the time which I had to carry out the study. In addition, it was convenient in that some respondents who might not have been comfortable with other methods could prefer an independent and free response. Questionnaires allow for free response, while collecting a wide range of opinion and information. Furthermore, it is relatively easy to administer and analyze data (Robson 1996:243). The questionnaires were given to the head teachers of the selected primary schools, teachers, and the selected district Education officials.

Interviews

This instrument was chosen because it enabled the researcher gather first hand and in depth information of a descriptive kind. It also helped the researcher develop an insight into how the respondents interpret information. Another reason for choosing this instrument was to allow the researcher to probe for further clarification on information which might have been omitted on the questionnaire. However, it also enabled the researcher to verify the information on the questionnaires. There are many types of interviews as stated by Burgess (1982). I used the open-ended interviews. They were chosen because they helped the researcher to elicit for in-depth.

Document analysis

Document analysis is the systematic examination of relevant documents in order to determine factors that explain a specific phenomenon.(Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

Data analysis

The qualitative and quantitative methods were used to analyze the data collected during the study. Data analysis was a continuous process right from the field during the collection of data in a systematic way. This involved checking through the questionnaires for any emerging themes which were later included in the interview guides. In addition, the coding, correcting errors, preparing tables and making sense of

collected data was on going. The coding covered three categories of respondents, ie Head teachers, teachers and district officials. It involved working through questionnaires, listing each new answer type as it occurred. Data was presented in a qualitative and quantitative form, i.e. in tables and in descriptive manner.

Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of the study was to establish and analyse the HIV and AIDS policy implementation in primary schools in Mbale district. In light of the concerns of the study, the following were the findings on the research question which the study addressed. 'Factors hindering the implementation of the education sector policy on HIV/AIDS in Primary Schools.

The findings revealed that, there exists many factors that affect the implementation of HIV and AIDS policy in primary schools in Mbale district despite the measures put in place by the government of Uganda. The factors range from school based to external factors. They are of six different categories of these factors, namely; financial, management, attitudinal, social, political and cultural factors.

Financial factors

Findings are supported by the studies of Chillag's (2002), Gould and Hurber (2002). They agree that the financial factor makes HIV/AIDS implementation very difficult. In his work, Chillag (2002) shows that poverty among teachers is a major threat to HIV/AIDS policy implementation. In addition to Chilling's view, Bartholow (2002) attributes staff turnover to poverty. He states that most times, many teachers and support staff have tended to look for green pasture whenever it is possible. Furthermore, findings concur with Chillag (2002) on the point that poverty is a threat HIV and AIDS policy implementation. He adds that staff attrition affects the HIV/AIDS policy implementation because the teachers who would have been trained to handle counselling look for alternative means of income to supplement the little they get from teaching. In addition, findings reveal that there was limited scope and geographical coverage of key interventions in HIV/AIDS prevention, care and mitigation due to financial constraints.

According to UNGASS Report (2003), implementation challenge includes reluctance of some government stake holders to prioritize the issue of HIV/AIDS due to limited resources as also stated in the Uganda progress record (2007). Due to this, HIV/AIDS money was spent on administration costs at the expense of HIV/AIDS policy implementation. The researcher's finding in this respect is in agreement with the Human Rights' view (Human Rights Watch, 2005), that there is corruption and misappropriation of Government funds. As reported in the Uganda Progress Report, (2007), the United States gave \$ 8 million to Uganda Government. All districts benefited from this money. Ten primary schools in Mbale district under the Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to Youth, received part of this money. The purpose of this money was to expand HIV prevention in educational institutions. However, according to this same report, the money was misappropriated. This was also raised in my study, in that there were corrupt tendencies in the district which affect the proper utilization of funds.

Management factors

Management was another factor which affects the implementation of HIV/AIDS policy in primary schools. There was lack of proper monitoring mechanisms, poor planning and coordination, poor management and administration skills and minimal involvement by civil society. This view is agreement with the Uganda AIDS Commission Forum Report, (2005), which stated, “There is lack of clarity in what is entailed in the ABC Model among the implementers.” The findings further indicate that there was lack of appropriate information on HIV/AIDS reduction and prevention by various stake holders. In addition, there was general lack of concerted efforts among key sector actors in the district. Madraa (2008) also alludes to this view (WHO 2008) which indicated that management of the whole supply chain was very weak and problematic. According to him, the above statement explains why there are inadequate advocacy of HIV and AIDS activities by leaders in the education sector. It was also cited in the Uganda AIDS Commission Report (2002), which states that coordination, planning and implementation of HIV/AIDS policy has inadequacies that need to be attended to. In addition, there are no proper mechanisms in place for monitoring the epidemic and the progress of the response to collect the much-needed information to inform the planning processes at the district, particularly in primary schools.

Attitudinal factors

Other factors which affect the implementation of HIV/AIDS policy according to the research findings is that of attitude. The implementers of HIV/AIDS policy have a negative attitude towards HIV/AIDS. Besides that, the results also showed that the youths have a negative attitude towards abstinence, fear for testing and use of condoms. Woog (2003). Is in agreement that many of the youths prefer to test for HIV/AIDS at some other point in future. His reasons are that the youth fear testing for HIV and AIDS, lack of confidentiality and stigma in case one has the AIDS virus. Many youths do not use condoms as one of the preventive measures which were put in place by the Government of Uganda. The findings are in line with what Vanes (2003) stated. He says that “many people especially the youth do not want to use condoms on the ground that they reduce pleasure.” This problem is not only in Uganda but also in Kenya according to him. He further states that 77% of the youths in Kenya and 90% in Uganda are not willing to test for HIV/AIDS as the policy requires. Some people believe that young people are free from the virus. In addition, Panchaud et al (2006), supports the same view that the HIV/AIDS policy implementers have a negative attitude towards the HIV/AIDS scourge. Some people feel it is a waste of time to bother about those who are already infected with the disease. There was also poor HIV and AIDS main streaming especially in district departments.

Furthermore, the research findings showed that there was poor attitude by school community. They do not support the anti-AIDS campaigns. Besides that, the NGOs which offer some material and financial support to schools do not deal directly with those concerned schools instead they through somebody else to pass the required assistance to the schools. Consequently, this practice de-motivates the school administrators because they are looked at as incompetent officers. Negligence by parents, lack of proper counsel and guidance by parents was another factor revealed by the findings of the study.

Political factors

Political factors as indicated in the research findings, greatly affect the implementation process of HIV/AIDS policy in Mbale district. This factor coincides with what was reflected in the Ministry of Education and Sports HIV/AIDS Strategic plan (2001). The AIDS commission report (2002) also confirms that there was lack of political support and commitment from highest level of leadership to provide strong and sustainable action. There was also lack of understanding of local and religious values of various communities which blocked successful strategies for implementing HIV/AIDS policy.

Another factor affecting the HIV/AIDS policy implementation was lack of knowledge about the effects of HIV/AIDS by some pupils. This factor was supported by the Uganda AIDS Commission Forum Report (2005) which states that there was general lack of clarity on what is entailed in the ABC Model even among the implementers. The lack of appropriate information therefore calls for immediate action by the various policy implementers.

There was also lack of sensitization of teachers as revealed by the findings. Interview results reveal that some teachers were not aware of the HIV/AIDS work place policy.

Social factors

Another challenge as revealed by the research findings was that there was a problem of staff attrition. The findings showed that many of the teachers are infected and affected by HIV/AIDS scourge and therefore do not teach daily. Studies also showed that, the HIV/AIDS policy at work place had not yet taken root. Consequently, this had made some teachers who had been trained on HIV/AIDS counselling leave teaching and does some other lighter work like starting a small scale self-managed business. Staff turn-over was as a result of various forms of torture, which I think couldn't have happened if the policy objective on HIV/AIDS to eliminate all forms of discrimination in the Education and Sports sector was observed. Stigma and discrimination in schools are responsible for staff turnover. Both of them affect the HIV/AIDS policy implementation. Part of the staff turnover was due to discrimination and various forms of torture which I thought couldn't have happened if the policy objective on HIV/AIDS to eliminate all forms of torture and discrimination in the Education and Sports sector was observed. Social factors affect the implementation of HIV and AIDS, as already indicated. The findings further revealed that there is minimal involvement of civil society and faith based organizations (Ministry of Education HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan (2001).

Cultural

Findings also revealed that there were cultural factors hampering the implementation of HIV/AIDS policy in primary schools in Mbale district. For example, when pupils return home to their parents, they do not apply all the knowledge acquired from school as required of them. Take the case of sharing sharp instruments like razor blades and circumcision knives. When it comes to the time of circumcision most knives are shared during the circumcision. Some parents have a belief that if a separate knife was used on their son, he would fear the exercise. When it comes to the issue of using condoms, some teachers especially those with high religious beliefs don't encourage use of condoms as one of the set HIV/AIDS preventive measure because of the renowned risks. They would rather promote abstinence which is risk free. According to the findings in Ghana it shows that condom use among the youth is also not encouraged. For instance, a girl carrying a condom in her bag or purse is regarded as a bad girl. (Annual Activity

Report 2008) The management response to this scenario was believed to be regular counseling by teachers and to encourage the pupils to abstain rather than use condoms. For the case of Uganda, in Mbale, findings revealed that condom use has not taken root because the primary school children are encouraged to abstain from sex because they are still young and are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS infection. According to Human Rights Watch (2005), the ministry has put up an ABC (Abstain, Be faithful, Condom use) model for HIV prevention in schools. The Mbale district strategic plan (2007/2008 -2011/2012), also advocates for prevention of HIV/AIDS through-ABC Approach. The new trend according to Janet Museveni, Uganda's first Lady, is to put emphasis on abstinence. (Human Rights Watch, 2005)

Summary

In summary, there was a cross-section of challenges that affected the implementation of HIV/AIDS policy in Mbale district. However, as already discussed, the district has tried to address some of the issues that hamper the HIV/AIDS policy implementation. Notwithstanding these measures already taken, there are still gaps that need to be addressed. There is need for the district to make a specific budget to run HIV/AIDS activities in primary schools in the district. Many people still have a negative attitude towards HIV/AIDS scourge. The sensitization of teachers on HIV/AIDS work place policy is not sufficient. The teachers who have HIV/AIDS are not fully aware of their obligation of taking less work load as compared to their counter parts. The established HIV/AIDS structures are non-functional, the Human rights Approach is also not in place. Lastly, there is little HIV/AIDS advocacy.

I anticipated that the study will guide the district education policy implementers to plan for the staff affected or infected with HIV/AIDS and at the same time provide information on how the Ministry of Education and Sports policy makers would improve on implementation measures and the conditions of the staff and pupils who are affected and infected with HIV and AIDS. It was anticipated that this study would guide the nation at large on how to care for people who have HIV and AIDS.

Recommendations

Having analyzed the findings of the study, I have come up with the following recommendations which I believe, when well implemented, could make a difference in implementing HIV/AIDS policy in Mbale District:

1. The district must find a way of soliciting for funds to run the HIV/AIDS activities in the district. Private schools also could be considered for facilitation for HIV/AIDS activities since the children in these schools are not private. The private schools to play a role in the development of education in the district. And those Government aided primary schools who did not receive such money be included on the program.
2. The district to institute a human rights desk at the district head quarters and at the schools to manage human rights issues.
3. There is also urgency to mitigate HIV/AIDS and to broaden the HIV/AIDS advocacy perspective to target a wider range of children and women because they are the most vulnerable people.
4. There is an urgent need for constructing counseling rooms especially for schools that do not have any.
5. Close monitoring and supervision of schools' performance as far as policy implementation in schools is concerned i.e. the work place policies on HIV/AIDS.

5. Strengthen the established HIV/AIDS structures both at the district and at school level.
6. The district could also take initiative to strengthen the relationship with the existing service providers and even establish partnership with new ones so as to expand the HIV/AIDS service perspective.
7. There is need to sensitize the HIV/AIDS policy actors and remind them about their roles so as to step up the implementation program.
8. The government should put in place a mechanism for monitoring HIV and AIDS Policy, and put up the punitive measures to be taken against the culprits of embezzlement of Government funds i.e. the global funds. This could help reduce or minimize the corrupt tendencies among policy implementers.
10. A similar study to be carried out in other districts for comparison and improvement of service delivery.

Suggested areas for further research

Owing to the on-going findings about HIV/AIDS policy implementation, there is need to conduct surveys on the following: HIV/AIDS funding, investigate why teachers who are HIV positive are not given less work load as stipulated in the policy review books, find out how far the PIASCY program has reached, establish its challenges and achievements and forge a way forward.

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Education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity as predictors of women employment status in south-west Nigeria

By

Hassan Eunice Modupe *

Abstract

This study examined the combined and relative effects of education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity on women employment status in South West Nigeria. The status of women in workplace has been debated everywhere from the boardroom to the court room. Gender discrimination no doubt is recognized as a problem by organizations, all of which are obligated by law to reduce it, and many of which believe that doing so will have a positive impact on the bottom line of their organizations, businesses and companies. Nevertheless, there is still significant work that needs to be done to achieve the goal of a discrimination-free workplace. This study therefore aims at investigating education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity as determinants of women employment status. An Ex-post facto design was adopted for the study. The stage-wise stratified sampling technique was used in selecting subject for the study. A total of 826 subjects taken from the manufacturing, distributive, and service industries participated in the study. Data were collected using two validated instruments which are Demographic Information Form (DIF) and Questionnaire titled 'Factors in Women Employment Scale' (FWES) was used for data collection. Data were subjected to multiple regression analysis at the first instance to enter all the variables into the model at once. Correlation Matrix of the variables, multiple regression coefficients and the analysis of variance and also the coefficient of B and beta along with the t-values were analyzed. Results revealed for Correlation Matrix of education, immigrant status, parental status, ethnicity and women employment that there is a negative correlation between women employment status and parental status (-015); women employment status and ethnicity (-126); Positive correlation was observed for the relationship between women employment status and education (.076). Multiple regression coefficient and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for education, immigrant status, parental status, Ethnicity and women employment status indicated that there is a statistically significant relationship between all the predictor variables taken together on the employment status of women ($F_{4,719} = 4.608$, $P < .05$). Stepwise, Multiple regression analysis coefficients and analysis of variance for education, immigrant status, parental status, ethnicity and women employment status revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between education and women employment status when it was first entered into the regression model based on strength of the bivariate relationship with women employment status. ($F_{1,722} = 9.294$; $P < .05$). Parental status alone however predicted only 1.3% of the variations in women employment status.

Keywords: Education, Immigrant status, Parental status, Ethnicity, Employment status

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Hassan Eunice Modupe (2013). Education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity as predictors of women employment status in south-west Nigeria. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

Traditionally, the Nigerian society has carved out the women's place to be in the home regarding women as objects to be seen and admired and used but not heard. Consequently, a woman's job is generally described as childbearing and rearing and performing all the household chores, (Udosen, 2000). Since these functions are usually "full time", there is little or no time for most women caught up in this role to acquire skills that will enable them to participate effectively in the labour force. The women who have "outside" jobs find themselves in a persistent struggle to find a working arrangement for the efficient performance of their household chores and their office jobs. Women's participation in paid employment in Nigeria for a long time was characterized by female dominance in lower cadre jobs and minimal participation in executive, administrative, scientific and technological professions. A major constraint was due to initial disparity in access to education on gender line, which dated from the colonial period. That disparity has been attributed to early missionary colonial educational policies, which favoured homebound education for women (Fafunwa 1974, Mann 1984) and attitudes of local people to female education.

Robertson (1986) reported that in Africa, colonialists as well as local people used gender as criterion for decisions on access to education. She further explained that the trend was influenced by people's perception of women's roles as secondary and domestic. Hence, during the colonial period, while men were being trained as policemen, clerks, teachers and catechists, women received education which was biased in favour of nutrition, childcare and home management. The idea was to prepare women as wives for the male elite (Mba 1982). Females participated only in positions that the colonial government regarded suitable for them. These were in prisons, medical, education and later in printing and telegraphs departments (Denzer 1987). Cultural values of the society also influenced the sex disparity in educational enrolment. Due to patriarchal attitudes, there has been a general preference for male education in Nigeria. Investment in boys' education was preferred because they remain in the families, while girls are expected to marry out.

The male preference in education also tended to result in higher dropout rates for girls either for early marriage or for participation in trading or other activities in the informal sector. Even where girls continued in education, there had been the tendency for them to be oriented by their parents or relations to pursue careers that are perceived to be compatible with domestic responsibility. Hence, girls were often discouraged from going into scientific and technological fields. This is because such fields are perceived to be male professions that are time demanding and stressful. Consequently, girls are encouraged to pursue perceived soft courses in humanities and social sciences. Often girls are cautioned about their career choices for fear of not getting married because "men are scared of smart women" (Aidoo 1998; 99). One of the consequences of pursuing the so-called courses is that many girls end up getting employed in female dominated profession such as nursing, teaching and secretarial jobs which attract lesser wages in comparison with employment in scientific and technological areas.

Ethnicity is not strongly related to participation in the labour force. For example, data show current employment for 63% of black women (Costello & Stone, 2001). One group of women who face different barriers to employment are immigrant women. Many of these women are not

fluent in the language of their new country. Their educational degree, professional licenses, and work experience in another country may not be given full credit when they apply for a job in another country (Chow, 1994, Neidoo 2000).

Many works have been carried out on why women and many frequently have different work experience. However, not much had been done on education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity as predictors of women employment which this study seeks to examine. On this premise, two hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis 1:

It states that education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity shall not be significant predictors of women employment

Hypothesis 2

It states that the relative contribution of each variable (education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity) shall not be predictors of women employment.

Method

Design

The study was an ex-post facto design. It is an after fact study which does not involve the manipulation of many variables. The research was interested in ascertaining the influence of the independent variables (education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity) on the dependent variable (women employment) without manipulating either of them.

Subjects

The participants in the study were 826 subjects taken from their parent body of the manufacturing, distributive and service industries in South-West Nigeria.

Instrumentation

Questionnaire developed by the researcher was used for the study. The questionnaire is divided into sections: Section A measured demographic information of the participants (Demographic Information Form (D.I.F)) such as age, sex, religion and level of education. Section B measured socio-cultural factors (education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity) as predictors of women employment status in South-West Nigeria. It was developed and structured to elicit responses and feelings of the participants on the socio cultural factors that influence women employment. It is a 15- item scale in form of likert format whereby, Strongly Agree=4points, Agree = 3 points, Disagree = 2 points and Strongly Disagree = 1 point. The instrument yielded 0.82 internal consistencies on Cronbach alpha and 0.79 co-efficient of reliability from a test re-test of two weeks interval.

Data Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used at the first instance to enter all the variables into the model. Correlation matrix of the variables, multiple regression coefficients of B and beta along with the t-values were analyzed.

Results

Hypothesis 1 states that education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity shall not be significant predictors of women employment.

TABLE 1 Correlation Matrix of education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity and women employment.

	Women Employment	Education	Immigrant Status	Parental Status	Ethnicity
Women Employment		-.015	-.126	.076	-.081
Education	-.015		-.116	.045	.114*
Immigrant status	-.126	-.116		-.352	.120*
Parental Status	.076	.045	-.032		.018
Ethnicity	-.081	.114*	.120*	.018	

Results revealed that there is a negative correlation between women employment and education (-.015), women employment and immigrant status (-.126); and women employment and parental status (-.081), positive correlation was observed for the relationship between women employment and ethnicity (.076) although; these are not significant at .05 level. Significant positive correlation were revealed for the relationship between education and ethnicity (.114) and also between immigrant status and ethnicity (.120)

TABLE 2 Multiple Regression coefficient and analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for education, immigrant status, parental Status, ethnicity and women employment.

REGRESSION	ANOVA					
	Source	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	P
R=158 R-squared=.025	Regression	2833.675	4	708.419	4.608	<.05
	Residual	110525.8	719	153.722		
	Total	113359.5	361			

- a. Predictors: Ethnicity, Parental Status, Immigrant, Education.
- b. Dependent Variable: Women Employment

Results of analysis of data in Table 2 indicated that there is statistically significant relationship between all the predictor variables taken together on the women employment ($F_{(4,719)} = 4.608$ $p < .05$).

A multiple coefficient $R=.158$ and R-Square of 0.25 were predicted for women employment when education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity taken together predicted only 2.5% of the variation in the women employment.

Table 3

Regression coefficients of Education, Immigrant Status, Parental Status and Ethnicity on Women Employment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
	β	Std Error	Beta		
1 Constant	161.494	2.326		69.444	<.001
Education	-1.091	.577	-.071	-1.892	ns
Immigrant Status	-1.970	.637	-.115	-3.093	<.05
Parental Status	1.418	.636	.082	2.229	<.05
Ethnicity	-.454	.624	-.027	-.728	ns

Results revealed the different contribution of the independent variables to the prediction of women employment. Education ($\beta = -.071$; $t=-1.892$, $P>.05$), Immigrant Status ($\beta=-.115$; $t=-3.093$; $P<.05$), Parental Status ($\beta=.082$; $t= 2.229$; $P>.05$). In effect, immigrant status is the best predictor of women employment but in a negative direction.

Further analysis using the stepwise multiple regression analysis was sought to determine the relative contribution of each variable to the predictions of women employment. Results are presented in table 4 after they have been tested for significance at the .05 level of confidence.

Hypothesis II

Table 4: Stepwise multiple regression analysis coefficients and analysis of variance for education, immigrant status, parental status, ethnicity and women employment.

Variables in the model		Source of Variation	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	f	P
Education	R=.113	Regression	1440.739	1	1440.739	9.294	<.05
	R ² =.013	Residual	111918.7	722	155.012		
		Total	113359.5	723			
Education Immigrant Status	R=1.37 R ² =.019	Regression	2114.287	2	1057.43	6.852	<.05
		Residual	111245.2	721	154.293		
		Total	113359.5	723			
Education, immigrant Status, parental Status	R=156 R ² =.024	Regression	2752.141	3	917.380	5.972	<.05
		Residual	110607.3	720	153.621		
		Total	113359.5	723			

Results indicated that there is statistically significant relationship between women employment and education when it was first entered into the regression model based on strength of the bivariate relationship with women employment ($F_{1,722}=9.94$, $P<.05$). Education alone however predicted only 1.3% of the variations in women employment. This was revealed from the coefficient of .113 and the R-square coefficient of .013 which was found to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. When immigrant status was introduced into the model, a significant relationship was predicted ($F_{2,722}= 6.852$; $P<.05$). Again, when parental status was brought into the model, a significant relationship was also predicted. ($F_{3,722}=5.972$; $P<.05$). Ethnicity was excluded from the stepwise multiple regression models since it could not meet the criteria required for entry at the various points. Findings therefore show that education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity taken together are good predictors of women employment. Singled out, education predicted only 1.3% of the variation of women employment, while immigrant status and parental status each added 0.06% to the variance in women employment.

The null hypothesis that education, immigrant status, parental status and ethnicity shall not be good predictors of women employment was therefore rejected by the findings of this study.

Summary of Findings

Significant relationship exists between all the predictor variables taken together and women employment. Though, education is the best predictor of women employment, but it only predicted 1.3% of the total variance in the women employment.

Discussion

From the analysis and interpretation of that data, it was found that no statistically significant relationship exists between all the predictor variables taken together and the women employment.

Since education, which appears to be the best predictor of women employment, has a negative relationship with it. And it amounted for only 1.3% of the total variance in women employment.

Since this contribution of variables has not been significant predictors of the women employment, then their future joint contribution may not be pursued.

This finding is not unexpected, in that, majority of these variables were even found to have negative relationship with women employment. Only immigrant status, which was not significantly related to education, showed a positive relationship. The variable that jointly predicted only 2.5% of the variance in women employment may not be good source of direction for future research in determining women employment.

When all the variables were entered into the regression model in a stepwise manner, only education was found to be a mild predictor of women employment predicting as little as 1.4% of the variance of women.

Conclusion

The level of women employment is further enhanced when education is matched against immigrant status. In summary, education and immigrant status are related to women's employment situation.

Recommendation

Social forces should not reduce women's life goals, so that they do not settle for an occupation that does not utilize their full potential.

Immigrant women should be attended to by employers. Because, many of these women are not fluent in the language of their new country, their educational degrees, professional licenses and work experience in another country may not be given full credit when they apply for job. (Chow, 1994, Neidoo, 2002)

This situation should be discouraged because it may affect women concerned in this matter. Non-governmental agencies and the government should find solutions to this. Such women can be trained to suit their need instead of rejection, especially in language areas.

Counselling Implications

There is need to orientate the society at large that women's place is not majorly in the home and they should not be regarded as objects to be seen and admired and used, but not heard. Education of the girl-child should be given consideration seriously. In fact, there is need for empowerment of women through education.

Education itself cannot be divorced from the political and economy of any society. No doubt, education is an important tool for improved quality of life and national development.

Counsellors can organize seminars, workshops, conferences, e.t.c. to educate the society that immigrant women and women of different ethnicity should be given opportunity in the labour market with indigenous persons, as they too may be productive and contributes to economic growth of the nation. Also, the parental background should not hinder a woman's being employed.

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Factors Hindering Life-Long Learning in Africa

By

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Abstract

Learning is a lifelong process by which we profit from experiences, which engender or bring about a relatively permanent change. This emphasizes the fact that learning is a life-long process and most of the time it brings about positive change in the various spheres of our lives. Although important, it is affected by many factors. Thus, this paper is principally concerned with discussing the factors hindering lifelong learning in Africa. The study is important because it shows the factors hindering lifelong learning in Africa and give possible solutions to the problems, hence, contributing towards addressing obstacles hindering development in Africa. The factors included; socialization, lack of commitment from African governments, lack of adequate ICT infrastructure, computer illiteracy, poverty and gender bias. It was proposed that there is need for people should be sensitized on the need for change in their attitude towards learning, African leaders should strive to give priority to both formal and non-formal learning, and African governments should strive to improve on ICT infrastructure by ensuring that each learning institution has a certain number of computers. Also, they should be availed in the communities, for example in the community resource centres. In conclusion, this paper has been able to identify the factors hindering lifelong learning in Africa and attempted to give solutions to these problems. It has also highlighted the importance and contexts of lifelong learning.

Keywords; African governments, ICT infrastructure, computer illiteracy, non-formal learning

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Evelyne Kemunto Oteki (2012). Factors Hindering Life-Long Learning in Africa

Kenya Studies Review, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Akinboye(1996) observes, “Learning is a lifelong process by which we profit from experiences, which in gender or bring about a relatively a permanent change”. This emphasizes the fact that learning is a lifelong process which brings about positive change in various spheres of our lives. Although important, it is affected by many factors. Thus, this paper is principally concerned with discussing the factors hindering lifelong learning in Africa and give possible solutions to the problems. Thus contributing towards addressing the obstacles hindering development in Africa. The findings of this study will be important to the African governments, education policy makers and the African people in general.

The objective of the study included:

- (i) To give various contexts of lifelong learning.
- (ii) To highlight the importance of lifelong learning.
- (iii) To find out the problems facing lifelong on Africa.
- (iv) To attempt to offer solutions to the problems Identified.

The study was carried out using content analysis method. This technique involves making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics. The findings of the study included: socialization, poverty, gender inequality, computer illiteracy, inadequate ICT infrastructure, lack of commitment from African governments, over- emphasis on schooling and most printed material are in foreign languages.

Some of the proposed solutions to the problems are:

- (i) Sensitizing people on the need to change their attitudes towards learning.
- (ii) African leaders should strive to improve the ICT infrastructure in their countries.
- (iii) Ministries of education in Africa should make computer studies compulsory- from primary school to tertiary level.
- (iv) Society should be sensitized on the need to educate women and for men to help in household chores.
- (v) African leaders should strive to give priority to formal and non –formal education.
- (vi) There is need for people to be informed that the acquisition of a certificate is not the end of learning.
- (vii) Ministries of education should encourage the writing and publication of various reading materials in the local languages.
- (viii) African governments should aim at eradicating poverty by empowering individuals economically who will in turn contribute to the economic development of the country.

This paper is mainly aimed at discussing the various factors hindering life-long learning in Africa. The topic is important because, owing to the fact that we are living in a world that is constantly changing, we always need to learn in order to adjust to the new changes. This indicates that long- life learning is part of our everyday lives.

Edward Paxton (1852) emphasizes this fact when he says “Our whole life is an education – we are ever learning...” Thus there is need to explore some of the factors that are hindering this very important process and attempt to offer solutions to the problems.

Other areas to be tackled in the paper include the contexts and the importance of life-long learning.

First, it is essential to define life-long learning. According to Wikipedia, life-long learning refers to, “ongoing, voluntary and self – motivated pursuit of knowledge for either personal or professional reasons.”

From the above definition, it is evident that life-long learning is a continuous process and one pursues it on their own volition in order to enrich themselves as individual (for example, one can read about various issues affecting their lives such as lifestyle diseases and how they can be controlled or learn a new skill that is necessary for survival for example computer) or for professional advancement (for example pursuing a diploma after a certificate course, or a masters degree after an undergraduate degree in order to move up the employment ladder)

The contexts of life-long learning

These refer to the various situations in which life- long learning occurs. They include:

1. Autodidactic (personal learning) - this is self-directed learning using a range of tools and sources for example journals, textbooks and online applications such as e- learning. If one is interested in writing for example, they can take an initiative to learn on their own about writing by reading textbooks, journals, online sources or even consulting established writers. By doing so, they will enhance their writing skills without necessarily going to a classroom to be taught about writing. For example Len sac, an African cartoonist, learnt his skill by reading comic books on his own.

2. Continuing education – these are programmes that are aimed at advancing one’s expertise in a given field for example, pursuing a bachelors degree in mass communication after completing diploma or pursuing a masters degree in literature after completing a bachelor’s degree in English/ literature thus, increasing one’s knowledge and skills in that particular field. In addition, continuing education entails programmes that are aimed at sensitizing people on new advancements. For example, with the recent developments in technology, most employers are striving to sensitize their employees on the application of technology in their line of work by sending them to seminars, workshops or short courses.

3. Home – schooling –this entails either of the following two things.

- (i) Giving lessons that are given in the formal school setting to the learner at home. In this case, a parent or a hired tutor teaches the learner subjects at are taught at school in the home setting. The parents who practice this believe that it is the best way to offer an education to their children because the child is given adequate attention from the teacher unlike the school setting where the teacher has to attend to the other children.

This form of schooling is mainly practiced in America – although there are isolated cases at the same in some African countries such as Kenya.

- (ii) Home-schooling can also be seen as a form of apprenticeship. If a person is interested in learning a given skill, he or she will have to stay with the person who has that skill in order to learn from them by helping out at work. For example in the African setting, if one wanted to become a medicine man, they had to stay and work with an established medicine man in order to learn the skill. Thus, eventually becoming a medicine man.

4. Adult education- this is non – formal education that is given to people of any age group who are not within the formal education system. It is aimed at enabling them to acquire literacy and surviving skills. For example, in Tanzania, Nyerere aggressively promoted adult education because he believed that it liberates individuals from things that hinder their development and consequently the development of the country.

“Julius Nyerere made a ringing call for adult education to be directed at helping people to help themselves and for it to be approached as part of life. “(Samoff,1990)

The importance of life- long learning

Life-long learning has numerous benefits both to an individual and the society. Some of the benefits are:

- (i) It keeps one’s brain healthy – research has shown that the more education on elderly person has – whether obtained formally or informally, the better they performed in cognitive tests than those who had less education. Margie Lachman, a psychologist at Brandies university emphasizes this point when she says, “{education seems to be an elixir that can bring us a healthy body and mind through adulthood and even a longer life”

Henry Ford, an American industrialist who was the founder of Ford Motor Company also appreciated the contribution of life – long learning in keeping the brain young and healthy, “Anyone who stops learning is old whether twenty or eighty. Anyone who keeps learning stays young. The greatest thing in life is to keep your mind young”

- (ii) It makes one more interesting – life –long learning enables one to be well informed on various issues – ranging from politics to economic to social. This is made possible if one has an interest in learning these things on their own from various sources for example, newspapers, magazines, textbooks and the internet.

Thus, it becomes easy for such a person to comfortably hold conversation with anyone and fit in any environment.

For example Theodore Roosevelt (the 26th president of the United States) impressed many people with his ability to hold a conversation with anyone on any subject. This was possible because he was an avid reader of various types of books. It is said that when he was in the white – house, he would read a book every day before breakfast.

- (iii)It gives one the ability to overcome challenges – life-long learning increases a person’s pile of knowledge and this makes it easier to tackle problems which they may encounter. For example, in the recent years, cancer has been on the increase throughout the world. Thus if someone takes their time to read and find out more about it, they will be at a better position to strive to prevent it before it occurs or before it becomes fatal.

- (iv)It can be a gateway to self–employment- “autodidactic can be the gateway to self employment and stating your own business” (Brett and McKay, 2013).

By reading widely, a person can come across a business idea. Researching deeply on the idea by reading about it, can enhance the creation of a successful business. Thus employing themselves instead of depending on somebody else to employ them.

It places one at a better position in getting employment and earning more money. “If you want to stay competitive in today’s job market and potentially earn more money, you need to become an autodidact.”(Brett and Mckay, 2013)

Getting a job has become highly competitive everywhere in the world. This is because there are many people who have gone to school but the employment opportunities are limited. Thus continuing to study beyond the undergraduate or masters’ level will place one a better position in getting employment. In addition, the more one advances their skills the more they earn from their employment.

Factors hindering life-long learning in Africa

Despite the fact that lifelong learning is a very important process in our lives, it is hindered by many factors:

- a. Over-emphasis on schooling – according to Bennaars (1993), schooling refers to, “An education taking place in schools.” From this definition, it is evident that schooling is limited to an education which is offered in the learning institutions notably, the formal learning institutions. In most African countries, there is a lot of emphasis on performing well in school in order to get a good certificate. With the certificate, one hopes to get a good job. Thus, many parents, teachers and other stakeholders in the education sector in Africa place more emphasis on schooling than life-long learning.

Consequently, once the learners get the much needed certificate, they do not bother to learn anything more, they do not even attempt to read a novel.

This hinders life-long learning in Africa because the learners are made to believe that learning is merely means of getting a certificate and once it is obtained, they do not see the need to continue learning.

“Many millions of African children, day in day out attend nursery, primary or secondary school. They hope to receive the much desired diplomas or certificates that may open the doors to a bright future” (Bennaars, 1993)

Nyerere also notes,

We have not until now questioned the basic system of education which we took over at the time of independence. We have never done that because we have never thought about education except in terms of obtaining teachers, engineers, administrators etc. Individually and connectively we have in practice thought of education as training for skills required earning salaries in the modern sector of our economy.

(Nyerere, 1968)

Thus it is clear that education in most African countries is seen merely as a means of getting certificates which can enable one to get employment. This hinders life-long learning because people do not see the need of learning anything if it does not guarantee employment.

- b. Lack of commitment from the African government in funding and implementing various education programs. Most African government are not committed to funding and implementing various education programmes – which hinders life – long learning. For example, adult education which is one of the contexts at life-long learning is given meagre or no funding at all in most African countries. For example in Uganda adults education is given very little funding and this makes it hard to implement adult education programmes effectively.

In a country like Kenya, there are no structures in place for adult education-although it is purported that there is adult education in Kenya. For example there is no curriculum for adult education and there are no specific places where adults are offered. Worse still, the government does not provide funding for adult education.

When it comes to the general funding of education, most African governments allocate very little money to the education sector, “In most African countries, only about 3.4% of the average meager resources is spent on education”(WCEFA,1990)

This lack of commitment from most African governments in the funding and implementing various education programmes hinders life-long learning because it limits the learning resources and opportunities

- c. socialization- according to Microsoft (2000) socialization refers to, “The process by which children learn acceptable and unacceptable behavior”

More often than not, children learn from their parents or guardians. Thus, if the parents or guardians do not value learning then the children will not see the value of learning. “The attitudes and values of parents and close relatives can influence the behavior of the children “(Microsoft, 200)

When parents are permissive and are not keen on encouraging their children to take education seriously, then such children will not attach any importance to learning – more especially when it is learning beyond the institutional setting thus this hinders life-long learning because the learners who not perceive learning as important will not bother to be involved in any learning activity on their own free will.

- d. Lack of adequate ICT infrastructure in most African countries-in most African countries, the ICT infrastructure-especially in the rural areas is inadequate. This is because Africa governments are slow in formulating and implementing the ICT infrastructure policy. For example in Kenya, “the earliest attempt at ICT policy formulation dates back to the 1980’s but the process remained incomplete until 2000 “(Nduati and Bowman, 2000).

This has hindered life – long learning because the limited number of computers and other online appliances-especially in the rural areas makes it hard for people to access education opportunities such as distance learning, adult education or even autodidacticism

For example in Tanzania, a research carried out by PHEA (2007) indicated that “The use of ICT to facilitate learning is restricted by various problems including weak ICT infrastructure particularly in rural areas”

- e. Computer illiteracy – most people in Africa – especially those in the rural areas are computer illiterate. This is because computer studies are mainly offered in towns and so people in the rural areas do not get a chance to acquire the skills.

In addition to that, in situations where the opportunities for learning the skill are presented – for example by schools in the rural areas allowing community members to use the school computers to train, people do not bother. This is because they are not sensitized on the usefulness of being computer literate. They assume that studying computer is for those who want to become secretaries, typists or any other occupation related with the skill

This hinders life-long learning because a person who is computer illiterate will not be able to take online courses or even research on the internet.

For example, research carried out in Tanzania by PHEA in 2007 showed that many people in the rural areas are computer illiterate and this hinders distance learning

- f. Most printed materials are in foreign languages – most printed materials in most African countries are in foreign languages. For example English, French or Portuguese. This

makes it hard for the people who simply have basic education to find anything to read because the foreign languages may be a bit complex for them. Thus, some people who would love to read, lack reading materials because there are few printed materials in the local languages. For example in Kenya, most books are in English-although there are a few books in Kiswahili (especially novels, story books and Kiswahili course books). So this closes the door on the common man who would like to read about a particular subject but s/he does not know English. Thus hindering life-long learning.

- g. Gender inequality- “Gender refers to the roles that one has to perform depending on him or her being a man or woman.” “(Bennars, 1993)

Although efforts are being made promote gender equality, there are still high levels of gender inequality in Africa. For example in Congo, only about 56% of women are literate while the literate level of men is at about 77%. This may be as a result of the societal expectations on women. For example, in most African societies, a woman is expected to do all household chores-including taking care of the children. While the man is just expected to provide for the family and offer protection. As a result, the woman is over burdened and she does not find time to participate in learning activities of any kind for example adult education. So this hinders life-long learning because the women, who form the bulk of the population in most African countries do not have chance to learn because of the household burdens

In addition most parents in the African setting do not see the need of educating women because they believe that education breeds immorality in women. This hinders life-long learning.

- h. Poverty – most African countries have meager monetary resources. As a result, they have to prioritize on how to allocate the available resources and education is not a priority – considering that the governments have to think about feeding the population first. Also they have to think about security in the country.

Consequently, education receives meager funding. This makes it hard to efficiently implement education programmes, thus hindering life-long learning.

Bennaars emphasizes this, “The majority governments have completely different priorities. These nations and their population need first of all to survive.”

(Bennaars, 1993)

According to WCEFA (1990), “In most African countries only about 3.4% of the average meager resources is spent on education”

Suggested solutions to the identified problems

Having looked at the factors hindering life-long learning, it is important to attempt to suggest solutions to the problems. The suggested solutions include:

- a) The ministries of education in African countries and all the education stakeholders should strive to change their perceptions of education. They should change from seeing education merely as a means of getting certificates which can open doors to job opportunities and start seeing it as a continuous process which also helps us to adjust to our social, economic, and political environment.
- b) African governments should strive to prioritize education and increase budgetary allocation to the sector. By doing so, they will promote the implementation of various education programmes in their countries.
- c) Parents and guardians should be sensitized on the need to be good role models to their children by encouraging them to participate in various learning activities. For example,

parents should encourage their children to read other books in addition to the course books. For example, biographies, autobiographies, motivational books, novels, newspapers, magazines or even science fiction. Also, if the parents or guardians are literate, they should set examples by reading such books.

- d) African governments should strive, not only to formulate the ICT policy but to also effectively implement it. This will help to improve the ICT infrastructure in the counties.
- e) The ministries of education in Africa should make computer studies compulsory-right from primary school levels to tertiary levels. In addition, they should set up areas in the communities where computer skills are taught to those who are not in the formal education system; for example by setting up community learning centers. In addition, it should inform the people on the need to be computer literate through churches and mosques.
- f) Ministries of education in Africa, through publishers should encourage people to write in local languages in addition to the foreign languages. In addition, it should encourage translation of reading materials that are in foreign languages to local languages.
- g) African societies should be sensitized on the need to educate women as their male counterparts. Also men should be encouraged to help out with household chores so that the women are not overburdened. This will give women a chance to participate in learning activities.
- h) African government should strive to eradicate poverty; both at the national and individual level by effectively using the numerous natural resources in their countries. Also by strongly fighting against corruption.

In conclusion, this paper has been able to give the contexts of life-long learning, the importance of lifelong learning, the factors hindering life-long learning and suggested solutions to the identified problem.

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Conflict resolution among Nigerian children using peer mediation

By

Temitayo Ogunsanwo*

Abstract

Literature suggests that violence is a learnt behaviour and that children need to learn self-control and how to handle conflicts from a very young age as a lack of these skills may have severe consequences in adult life. Even though, most classroom and out-of-classroom conflicts are settled by teachers, research suggests that children need conflict resolution strategies for power assertion and negotiation. This study investigated the value of the fuss buster peer mediation programme in children's conflict resolution in one nursery and primary school in Ibadan, Nigeria. A pre-intervention record of frequency of conflicts in each class was taken for one week while the following week was spent on training children in peer mediation using the fuss buster programme. The programme was started after the one-week training and it lasted for six weeks after which the effect of the intervention programme was analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts, means and percentages as well as qualitative analysis that expressed the reactions of the children, the fuss busters, conflict initiators and teachers to the programme. A comparative effect of the fuss buster programme on each class was also found. The findings revealed a high reduction in conflict in all classes while the grade one class had the highest reduction in conflict resolution. Teachers and children also expressed their interest in the programme. Teachers want the programme to continue as it allowed children to develop self control and leadership skills.

Keywords: conflict, peer mediation, fuss buster, descriptive statistics, adult life, qualitative analysis

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Temitayo Ogunsanwo (2012). Conflict resolution among Nigerian children using peer mediation

Kenya Studies Review, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Nigeria is plagued with many types of conflict which in most cases have resulted in loss of lives and properties. Cases of ethnic rivalry, religious terrorism, conflicts among business associates, land and inheritance disputes, conflicts over resource control, trade related disputes and family related conflicts are so prevalent that it is hardly possible to read newspapers or watch the television without reading cases of murder or injury on persons as a result of conflict. According to Renner (2005), resource-driven conflicts alone killed more than 5 million people, forced 5 to 6 million people to flee to neighbouring countries and displaced about 15 million people inside the borders of their home countries during the 1990s alone.

In many cases, children are victims of these conflicts. Children, especially those who are victims of armed conflict, experience the horrific impact of these conflicts (Machel 2009), while those whose live styles have been altered as a result of the conflict continue to live with the consequences of these conflicts throughout their lives. Some children lose one or both parents as a result of conflicts while some are displaced and have to live in completely strange environments as refugees. A lot of damage is done to a child's life and his or her future aspirations as a result of conflict which in almost all the cases, is not caused by them. Many researchers have, from their examination of the features that are common in majority of conflicts, explained what conflict is, using different terms.

Chaplin (1979 :109) defined conflict as "The simultaneous occurrence of two or more mutually antagonistic impulses or motives, while Willson and Hanna (1990:225) describe it as "A struggle involving ideas, values and or limited resources". Nwolise (2003) opined that conflict is " A clash, confrontation, battle or struggle" while Dokun-Oyeshola (2005:106) described conflict as "Essentially concerning disagreement, disputes or controversy in ideas or viewpoints held by two or more individuals or groups". In spite of the negative nature of conflict and the consequences it produces, Otite and Albert (1999) see conflict as a dynamic phenomenon which is part of life They describe conflict as an engine of progress which transcends so many areas of life, ranging from international affairs to work and family life while Killen and Turiel (1991) also describe conflict as an expected part of preschoolers' social development.

In spite of its positive impact on social interaction and growth of a society, conflict is said to be a learned behaviour (Chamberlain 2000) which evolves from anger that is not managed, frustration and disappointment. Conflict, even though a part of normal child development, should be resolved peacefully, children therefore need to learn constructive ways of dealing with anger and civil ways of making requests and resolving disagreements in order prevent violence. Children need to learn some very important skills at the very early years, some of these skills are very essential for them to be able to develop into adults who are able to settle disagreements without resorting to violence. Some of these skills are self- control and learning to handle conflicts. Since conflict is a learned behaviour, conflict resolution through mediation ought to also be learnt as early in life as possible.

If children are trained to resolve conflicts amicably and they practice this skill in their daily lives, when they become adults, their generation may likely experience some peace. It is on this note that this study sets out to find out the effect of a technique of conflict mediation known

as peer mediation (The fussybuster programme) on the rate of conflict among children aged 5 to 12 years in a primary school Nigeria. Children are said to engage in conflict when they attempt to meet their needs and wishes (Rourke, Wozniak & Cassidy 1999 cited in Gillespie and Chick 2001). Children's conflicts are common in schools, at home, on the playground, at the church or other religious houses, in fact virtually everywhere you find children, there is conflict among them. In most cases parents and teachers play the role of mediators. In Yoruba culture for example, adults are expected to serve as mediators in children's conflicts but in most cases they serve as judges as they apportion blame and one party still ends up being unhappy at the end of the "conflict mediation". However, when children are taught constructive ways of dealing with anger, frustration, disappointment and hurt, they learn to prevent violence (Chamberlain 2000). Conflict resolution according to Miller (2003 cited in Ogege 2009) is a variety of approaches used to terminate conflicts through the constructive solving of problems, distinct from management or transformation of conflicts. In any conflict resolution, (Miall et al 2001, Ogege 2009) insist that deep rooted sources of the conflict are addressed and resolved, behaviours are no longer violent neither are attitudes hostile. The different approaches to conflict mediation include arbitration whereby the dispute between two parties are settled by a tribunal chosen by them and the decisions of the arbitrator is binding on both parties (Orojo and Ajomo 1999:37 cited in Batubo & Digitemie-Batubo 2010).

Mediation on the other hand is the most common form of a body of dispute resolution techniques referred to as Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR). The term is internationally accepted in the business and legal worlds. The outcome of any mediation is determined by the will of the parties. It is a process whereby the parties agree on the resolution or settlement of their dispute or conflict by an independent, neutral and impartial third party assisting the parties to their solution unlike arbitration which is applied mainly in commercial transactions, mediation has established four main streams in the United Kingdom such as commercial, family, community and environmental which are also applicable in Nigeria. Mediation is usually voluntary based on consensus of the parties who decide on the mediator. It is informal and parties are free to bare their minds on any aspect of the conflict. They are free to choose how and when to present evidence. Arguments and interests are often focused on the future in a constant bid to heal relationship rather than adversary. The outcome is often a mutually acceptable agreement held in private where parties present are free to be fully engaged in the process. It is a win-win affair. (Orojo and Ajomo p37 cited in Batubo Et al 2010).

Conceptual framework of Conflict resolution

The dual model of conflict resolution

One perspective of conflict resolution asserts that there are two underlying areas, namely:

Assertiveness (concern for self)

Empathy (concern for others)

This model assumes that in resolving conflict, members of the group strike a balance between satisfying their personal needs and interests with their willingness to satisfy the needs and interests of others. Where these two interests meet now determines the style of conflict resolution exhibited by the group (Goldfien & Robbennolt, 2007 cited in Wikipedia 2013). This dual model of conflict resolution identifies five conflict resolution styles or strategies that individuals employ based on their attitude either towards themselves or others. These are:

(1) Avoidance conflict style: The individual is neither concerned for his own self or the interest of others. He is indifferent and does nothing about the conflict. He allows conflict to phase out on its own. (Bayazit & Mannix, 2003). This style of conflict resolution may be dangerous as it allows some conflict to continue to increase until it gets out of control.

(2).Yielding conflict style: This individual is more concerned with the interest of others than satisfying his own interes. He is willing to yield to whatever will promote positive social relationships. This type of individuals suppresses his own interest and promotes the interest of others.

(3).Competitive conflict style: This individual is only interested in his own self –interest and does not care for the interest of others. He engages in fight in order to dominate others and force them to submit to his will. He uses power tactics such as insult, accusation, violence to intimidate others.

(4).Cooperation conflict style: This individual cares for the satisfaction of his own interests as well as the interests of others. He works to ensure that all parties are satisfied using mediation strategies that ensure a win-win solution. This style of conflict resolution is recommended above others in all literature of conflict resolution (Wikipedia 2013).

(5). Conciliation conflict style: This is an extension of both the yielding and cooperative styles in that the individual has an intermediate level of concern for himself as well as others interest.

For conflict resolution to be effective, it should be culturally appropriate. However, a lot of adjustment needs to be made when mediating in children’s conflict in Africa particularly in Nigeria in order to have a win-win solution because many adult mediation strategies in our indigenous cultures usually apportion blame to one party leaving him feeling aggrieved even after the “mediation” and in most cases seeking future ways of taking revenge. A cue should be taken from successful conflict resolution practices in both western and non-western cultures such as Canada, The United States, Vietnam, China where communication among disputants, problem solving, looking for mutually satisfying scenarios,(involving third parties that would communicate truths indirectly and use proverbs, stories, or other indirect strategies to make suggestions for resolution) are employed to promote peaceful resolution.

Fortunately, Africa is very rich in stories and proverbs that illustrate different scenarios, these may be used by peer mediators to allow the disputing parties see their source of conflict as well as the importance of mutual resolution in peaceful coexistence now and also for generations unborn.

Religious stories, proverbs, parables also illustrate different situations that reveal the truth about the intention of parties in disputes. For example, the biblical story of a man who asked Jesus Christ for to tell his brother to divide their parents’ inheritance between them and Jesus’ answer revealed the covetous heart of the conflict initiator, which is the “root” of the dispute. The use of this scenario could help disputing parties brainstorm the story and discuss extensively on the issue of covetousness as it affects the sharing of inheritance. This could lead to a mutual agreement and civil way of sharing properties

Unfortunately, while a lot of techniques of resolving conflicts are being examined to resolve adult conflicts in Nigeria, studies on conflict resolution among children are very scanty, whereas, if peaceful conflict resolution is taught early in life and practiced in all areas of life many of the violence and terrorism being experienced now may end or be drastically reduced. Most conflict mediation techniques are used for conflict resolution among adults whereas only teachers and other adults (who may not necessarily be the children’s choice) are expected to assist children to resolve their own conflict. While teachers’ role in children’s conflict mediation can never be completely removed, it is very important that children learn how to

resolve their conflicts by themselves without engaging the teacher all the time so that they can grow up tackling their own challenges by themselves in a very civil manner.

Moreover, teachers should spend more time and attention on more positive situations and reinforce good behaviour (Gillespie and Chick 2001) and not on conflict resolution alone whenever they are with children. Besides, studies on conflict resolution among children suggest that children seldom ask teachers to intervene in their conflicts but rather use power assertion and negotiation to resolve their conflicts most of the time (Killen & Turiel 1991, Rourke, Wozniak, and Cassidy 1999).

Children's conflicts usually result in different outcomes and according to Wheeler's (1994), four outcome categories cited in Gillespie and Chick (2001) are:

Unresolved: children simply drop the issue or leave the area, finding different activities or playmates.

Adult intervention: an adult suggests or imposes a solution.

Submission: one child unwillingly yields to another child's dominance.

Mutually agreeable solution: achieved through bargaining, compromising, finding an alternative activity, or turning the conflict into a game.

The only mode of conflict resolution that was administered for this study in Wheeler's outcome is the mutually agreeable solution which makes the parties involved happy at the end of the situation. This is also in agreement with the earlier definition of mediation as a conflict resolution technique that is used in a community setting such as a school or family. There is usually no victor and no vanquished unlike the other outcomes where the aggrieved party may still be unhappy at the end.

Research Questions

The following questions were raised for the study:

Does the fuss buster peer mediation programme reduce the number of conflicts in the different classes?

In which class does the fuss buster programme have the greatest positive effect?

What effect does the peer mediation technique have on conflict initiators?

What effect does the programme have on the fuss busters?

Do teachers see this programme as an effective strategy for conflict resolution?

In the school used for this study, conflict usually arises from issues such as jumping the queue when coming from morning assembly or when going out to play, fighting over play equipment, pinching others, using abusive language, accusing others wrongly, calling others names, bullying, fighting over writing materials, lying and stealing other pupils' materials and other issues that has to do with children's interaction with one another.

Methodology

The fuss buster programme originally used by Gillespie and Chick in a Head Start kindergarten class in the United States was used for the peer mediation. This programme was used because it worked with the kindergarteners and also because unlike many peer mediation programmes used with older children, every child had the chance of being a peer mediator (fuss buster).

Participants

The study took place in a suburban school in Ibadan, Nigeria. The children in the school were children of parents who were teachers and middle level civil servants. 60% of the children live

in owner-occupier bungalows belonging to their parents while 30% live in 3 bedroom rented flats and the remaining 10% live in tenement houses. The community in which most of them live is a small but developing community which is of low density but is likely to become a high density area in the near future.

The children are bilingual, speaking both English and Yoruba languages. There are no children from other Nigerian tribes all of them are Yorubas a tribe in the south west of Nigeria.

All the 77 children in the school (kindergarten to Grade 5) took part in the programme. Teachers who were already trained as peer mediators took all the children through a training programme in peer mediation. All the classes in the school took part in the training programme; the fuss buster programme was adapted to suit the environment and culture in which the children are growing. The teachers used stories and illustrations of situations around them to teach the children the need for them to learn self-control and the ability to resolve conflicts using peaceful ways.

The programme took place over a period of 8 weeks in the first instance (the analysis is to assess the effect for the first six weeks but the programme continues for the whole year). All class teachers in the classes involved took part in the programme. The first week was spent on recording the number and type of conflict that took place in each class each day. The conflict that took place on the playground was also recorded. The conflict initiators in each class and methods used for resolving the conflicts were recorded everyday for the whole week.

The week that followed was spent on teaching conflict resolution and reasons for resolving conflicts without the use of violence or force. Teachers told the children stories on the assembly ground, playlets were used by teachers and children to demonstrate the evil effects of conflicts and the need to resolve conflicts peacefully. Teachers also spent the first 10 minutes every day in each of their classes to teach children rules for conflict mediation. The rules were adapted from the Richmond Teachers for Social Justice Rules for teaching mediation to kids. It involved the stages for peer mediation and what was expected of the parties in conflict as well as the mediator (fuss buster).

Teachers continue to take the record of conflicts in each class as well as the playground during the second week in spite of the training on conflict resolution; however, children were free to choose any mediation method they desired. A peace table (a table covered with white cloth or white paper) was put in every class in a conspicuous place for children to use for peer mediation the list of rules to be followed when resolving conflicts was pasted on the top of each peace table for all disputants and fuss busters to read before any mediation started. This was placed in each class at the beginning of the training week so that children could get used to it by creating mediation scenarios and practising being fuss busters even before the programme started. As soon as a conflict happens the disputants took their chairs picked a fuss buster that is acceptable to the two of them and move to the peace table to resolve the conflict using the steps taught by their teachers. Each class has the mediation steps written on the bulletin board and had it read to the children by the teacher each morning. Each class rule was simplified to make them easily understood by learners. Some classes even had children sing songs and poems (in Yoruba language) composed from the rules and had children in other classes learn and sing them on the assembly ground and playground.

The record of conflict type, rate and resolution techniques were taken during the two weeks training. Children were free to use the fuss buster if they wanted to or use any other mediation techniques. After the two weeks of training and preparation, children started the programme; they were instructed to use the fuss buster to resolve conflict. Teachers took records of the type, number of conflict in each class as well as the children who served as peer mediators (fuss buster) and the ways the fuss busters went about doing the mediation. Furthermore, children were told to write down their experiences during the programme as conflict initiators, people involved in conflict and peer mediators. Teachers were also told to do a short write up on the programme and its values on the teaching and learning as well as the children. Questions were given to each child who could write to answer on the fuss buster programme and the lesson they are learning from it (see appendix)

Analysis

This research work was analysed using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The pre-intervention conflicts as well as the conflict experienced during intervention were analysed using simple mean and frequency counts. A comparative effect of the fuss buster programme on each class was also analysed using simple frequency counts and means. The research question will now be answered using the data analysed below.

Question 1: Does the fuss buster mediation programme reduce the number of conflicts in the different classes?

Table 1: frequency of conflicts recorded before fuss buster programme.

class	Week 1	Week 2	Total	Mediation technique
Kindergarten	5	4	9	Teacher intervention
Grade 1	20	22	42	Teacher intervention
Grade 2	-	-	-	Teacher claims not to have any conflict in class
Grade 3	4	6	10	Teacher's warnings and reprimand
Grade 4	5	5	10	Teacher's warning
Grade 5	7	5	12	Teacher's warning
Total	41	42	83	

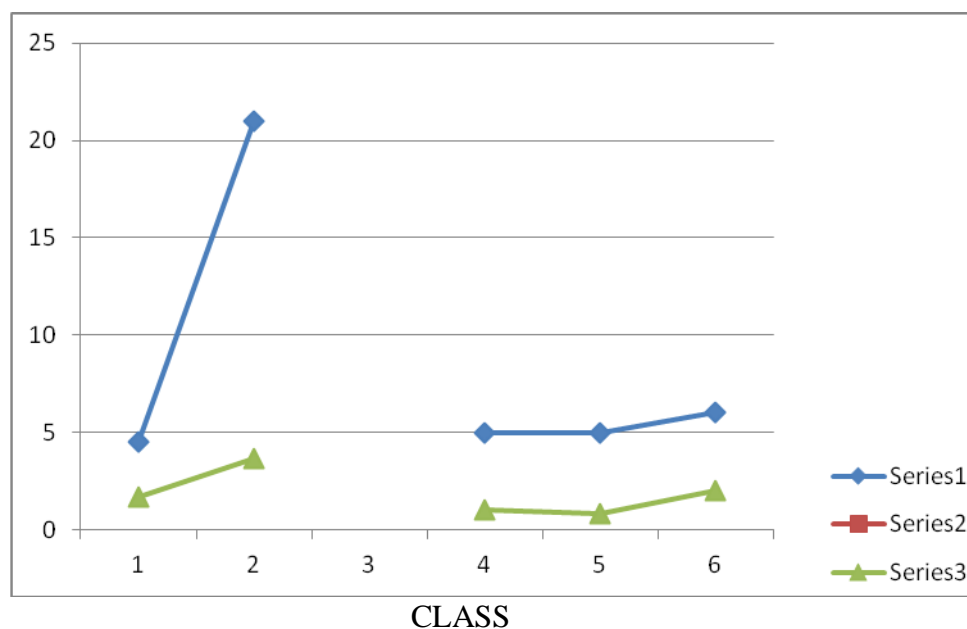
This table reveals a total of 83 conflicts in the school for two weeks, an average of 41.5 conflicts per week. Conflicts are higher in the primary grades than the kindergarten grade while the grade two teacher insists that there was no conflict in her class. This class was excluded from the study even though the children were still given the peace table to resolve any conflicts. A case of no conflict is not a normal classroom situation. On a closer look at the situation in the class, the teacher was found to be very strict and rigid in her classroom management and this could have been responsible for the "no conflict" situation, a situation

where children obey out of fear. This may not be the best environment for children to learn because conflict has been described as a dynamic phenomenon which is part of life and an engine of progress (albert and Otite 1999) conflict is said to exist in stages and at the end brings a peaceful relationship. A situation where conflict is not allowed but suppressed results in uneasy peace which may not be good for peaceful social and emotional growth in any human relationship.

Table 2: frequency of Conflict during intervention

class	Wk 1 conflicts	Wk 2 conflicts	Wk 3 conflicts	Wk4 conflicts	Wk 5 conflicts	Wk 6 conflicts	Total no of conflicts	mean /wk	Mediation technique
KG	2	0	5	1	1	1	10	1.66	Fuss buster
GRD 1	6	5	3	3	2	3	22	3.66	Fuss buster
GRD2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GRD3	0	1	1	2	1	1	6	1.0	Fuss buster
GRD4	2	1	0	1	1	0	5	0.83	Fuss buster
GRD5	1	4	3	1	2	1	12	2.0	Fuss buster
TOTAL	11	11	12	8	7	6	57	9.5	

Figure 1: comparison of frequency of conflict before and during intervention



Upper lines= pre intervention Lower lines= intervention

Table 2 as well as figure 1 shows a general reduction of conflict in all classes during the intervention.

Question 2: In which class does the fuss buster programme have the greatest positive effect?

Figure 2: comparative analysis of the effect of the fuss buster programme among the classes.

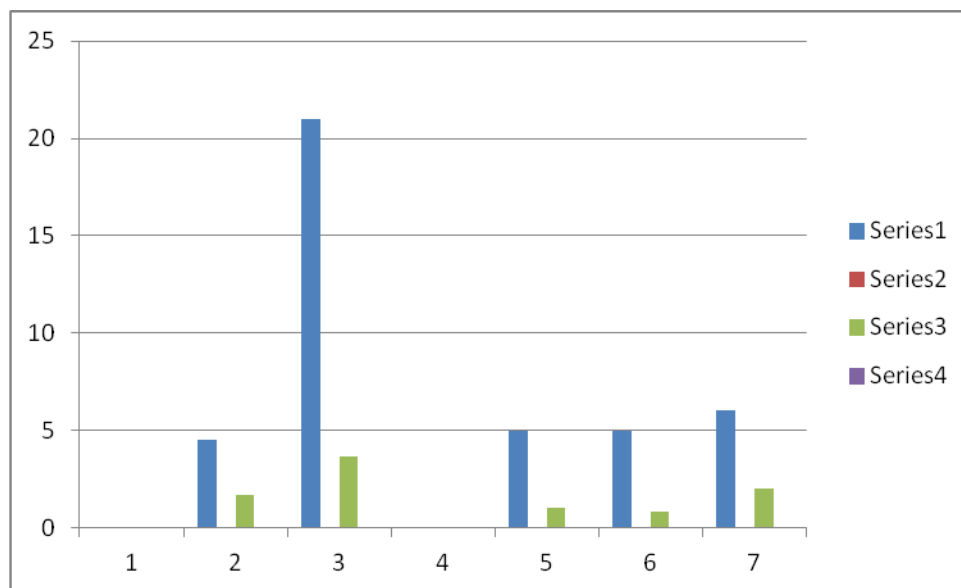


Table 2 and figure 2 show that the most “conflict- ridden” class (Grade 1) that had a mean conflict record of 22 per week before intervention had a mean of 3.66 during the programme, while the Grade 5 too had its conflict reduced from 6 per week to 2 per week.

The comparative effective of the fussbuster programme in figure 3 further reveals the percentage of each class conflict to the total conflict in the school as well as the percentage of reduction of conflict during intervention in relation to the school conflict. The inner doughnut shows the conflict before intervention (fussbuster programme) while the outer doughnut reveals the conflict during intervention.

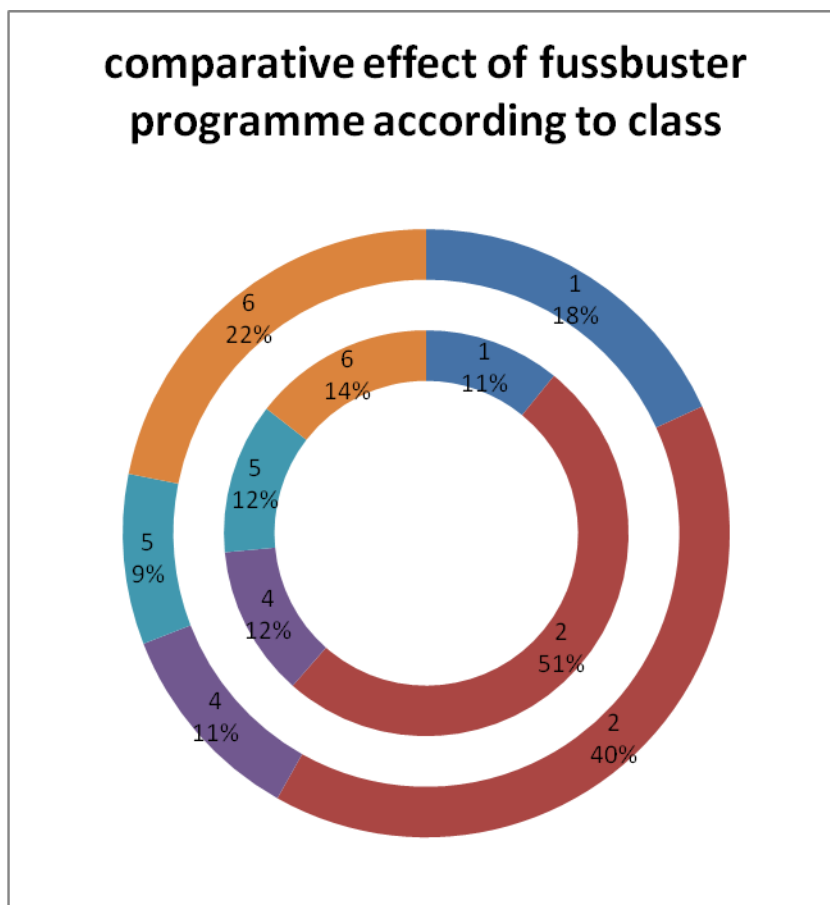
Table 3: Contribution of each class towards school conflict before and during intervention

Class	% Before Intervention	%After Intervention	%Difference
kindergarten	11	18	-7
Grade 1	51	40	11
Grade 2	-	-	-
Grade3	12	09	3
Grade 4	12	11	1
Grade 5	14	22	-8
	100	100	

Even though there was a general reduction in the number of conflict in all the classes as a result of the fuss buster programme, the contribution of each class to the overall conflict of the school during the intervention shows a different trend from what it was before the intervention. Two classes (kindergarten, 18%, grade 5, 22%) contributed more to the general school conflict after the intervention than they did before the intervention (kindergarten, 11%, grade 5, 14%). This is due to the high effectiveness of the programme in reducing the conflict level of grade 1 from 51% to 40%.

The fussbuster programme has been very effective in reducing the number of conflicts in the school and also in all the different classes in the school.

Figure 3



Question 3: What effect does the peer mediation programme have on conflict initiators?

The fact that the frequency of conflicts have reduced in all the classes indicates that the conflict initiators have also reduced their activities. The conflict initiators that were identified in each class before and during the programme were made to write on the intervention programme

during the sixth week of the programme .they all wrote on their activities at the peace table and explained that they no longer initiate conflicts anymore because the fussbuster programme has taught them to seek peace when they are offended.

One of them, Semilogo grade five wrote this:

“Most times, I initiate conflicts, but it is never intentional. It happens because my friends make me angry easily but this fuss buster issue has really helped me.”

While a grade one child Olorunfunmi wrote this:

“I don’t like pepl distopin me so is slap them. Now i don’t do it again .we go to peace table.”

Question 4: What effect does the programme have on fuss busters?

The fussbusters also seem to like the programme and enjoy being called upon to mediate in their peer’s conflicts, the data collected revealed that while some of those who were chosen as fuss busters were also conflict initiators and some were involved in conflict during before the intervention, none of them initiated any conflict and non was also involved in any conflict during the intervention. This implies that the children recognise the responsibility attached to the position of fussbuster.

A grade one fuss buster Pelumi wrote this:

“They picked me as fuss buster becus i always make peace with all pupils in the class.”

Question 5: Do teachers see this programme as an effective strategy for conflict resolution?

All the teachers who took part in this programme wrote what they felt about the programme. One teacher in grade three Mr Ayo wrote:

“ The fuss buster programme has helped in resolving various forms of conflict both inside and outside the classroom and that teachers now have more time for other responsibilities and students are now learning to take up leadership roles, therefore, fuss buster has been of great benefit to both teacher and pupils in the school environment. “

Another teacher in grade five Mr Fadoo wrote:

“When I first heard of the fuss buster programme I liked it but now I love it! These are the advantages:

- I. The rate of conflict in my class has reduced
- II. My pupils can now easily settle a dispute wherever it occurs since they settle it in school, they will be able to settle it in the house, in church and will help them later in life
- III. They’ve become more law abiding since they have to obey rules at the peace table.”

Children who could write were also asked to answer questions on their experience with the fuss buster programme and they identified some gains of the programme which included not causing problem and settling disputes without fighting controlling themselves and resisting the urge to slap or hit those who provoke them. Some however said that some of their peers took delight in initiating conflicts so that they could visit the peace table. They seem to believe in the programme and insist that it has been effective in reducing conflict among them and they don’t have to keep reporting to the teacher all the time since they have the fuss buster and the peace table.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The fusbuster programme is an ongoing programme that is expected to last at least one session and get children to live peaceably among themselves by resolving their own conflicts without reporting to the teacher all the time. The programme has now been done for 6 weeks and the rate of conflict in all the classes has reduced while the children and teachers involved seem to enjoy the benefits of the programme.

The programme has been replicated among different age groups and a larger number of children in a Nigerian environment (as recommended by Gillespie and Chick 2001). The result has been positive and has revealed the fact that conflict resolution among children can be achieved as early as possible and that children achieve success in conflict resolution (as with other learning activities) when they are actively involved in it. Children who learn to resolve conflicts in a civil manner learn to put others' interest into consideration even when provoked. As Nigeria has included citizenship/civic education in her primary school syllabus, efforts should be made to organize workshops and seminars for teachers who are implementing this curriculum to put in place hands-on activities such as this peer mediation programme to help children practice the skills they need in order to be able to develop into citizens who will be law abiding and civil in conflict resolution. When children are trained in peer mediation and conflict resolution, they continue to practice the skill in every place they go.

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Higher Education for All (EFA) in Nigeria: The Promise of Open and Distance Learning (ODL)

By

Clifford Moses Amini* & Juliana N. Ndunagu **

Abstracts

The social implication for development of educating all citizens of a country cannot be easily quantified, as Education is seen as an instrument per excellence by many Governments the world over, for social and technological development. This paper discusses the Nigeria Government promise of Education for All (EFA), by the year 2015, following the Dakar Declaration of Education for all in the World Education Summit in Dakar, Senegal in the year 2000. It noted the yawning gap between demand for higher education in Nigeria and the average intake per year using the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board statistics for 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2009 – a five-year period, and surmised that the conventional universities, with restriction on age of entrants, and the limitations of time, infrastructure and space will not enable Nigeria to meet the target of education for all in 2015. And looking at the advantages and successes of Mega Universities in other and similar regions of the world, the paper draws the attention of the Nigerian Government to the problem above and suggests the use of Open and Distance Learning as an educational delivery system to reach this lofty goal of Education for All in 2015 and beyond. It concludes that in doing so, Nigeria will meet that aspect of the Millennial Development Goal (MDG).

Key words: Education for All, Higher Education, Open and Distance learning, Universities.

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Clifford Moses Amini & Juliana N. Ndunagu (2013). Higher Education for All (EFA) in Nigeria: The Promise of Open and Distance Learning (ODL). *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

The hype or slogan “Education for All has taken the world stage and not limited to any country or region. This is especially, so after the World Conference on Education held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. In Jomtien, representatives of the international community’s (155 countries, and representatives from 150 organizations), agreed to according to Wikipedia, “universalize primary education, and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the decade.” That means that by the year 2000, all children of school age would have access to to Primary Schooling. The Jomtien Conference also led to the adoption of the World Declaration on Education for All by the international community. Here education was stressed as a fundamental human right of all citizens of the world, and world governments who adopt the declaration were to adopt strategies that will make them provide primary or basic education and adult literacy to their citizens. One can therefore suggest that Education For All (EFA) means the International initiative (first launched in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990) to bring the benefits of education to every citizen in every society. In other to realize this aim, a broad coalition of national governments, civil society groups, and development agencies such as UNESCO and the World Bank are committed to achieving the EFA goals.

These goals include:

- i. Expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
- ii. Ensure that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, those in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free, and compulsory primary education of good quality.
- iii. Ensure that learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes.
- iv. Achieve a 50% improvement in adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.
- v. 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 and achievement in basic education of good quality.
- vi. Improve all aspects of the quality pf education and ensure the excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved and all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

The decade (1990 - 2000) following the Jomtien World Education summit, witnessed very slow progress (UNESCO, 2011) this necessitated a review pf the strategies adopted for implementation, at the Dakar Summit of April and September 2000. The Dakar (Senegal) Summit led to what is generally now known as the Dakar Declaration or the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000). The Framework for Action re-affirmed the commitment of the participating nations to achieving Education for all by the year 2015. The Framework for Action

also identifies six key measurable education goals which aim to meet the learning needs of children, youths and adults by 2015. Also, the Framework for Action re-affirmed UNESCO's role as the leading organization with the overall responsibility of co-ordinating other agencies and organizations in the attempt to achieve these six goals. The Dakar Framework for Action established the following six goals:

- i. Expand early childhood care and education.
- ii. Provide free and compulsory primary education for all.
- iii. Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults.
- iv. Increase in adult literacy by 50 percent.
- v. Achieve gender parity by 2005, and gender equality by 2015.
- vi. Improve quality of education.

Apart from the UNESCO, there are four cooperating partners at the Dakar forum. These are UNFPA, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank. The World Bank in particular recognizes that the achievement of these goals requires supporting of the full EFA commitment. Accordingly, the World Bank supports the education for all Fast Track Initiative (FTI) as the primary vehicle for accelerating progress toward quality, universal primary education, and other EFA goals (UNESCO, 2006). In particular, the Bank supports EFA through specific operations in almost 90 countries worldwide through multidimensional efforts to:

- i. Improve primary school access and quality as well as educational quality and learning outcomes.
- ii. Improve the dropout and retention rates of girls, as well as their learning outcomes.
- iii. Help education systems cope with HIV/AIDS.

(UNESCO, 2006)

- iv. Promote early childhood development.
- v. Protect EFA prospects in fragile states.

The bank has also established a children and youth unit to strengthen support for nonformal education, which helps young people develop the necessary skills to improve their opportunities and transition to the labour market.

It must be noted that the decade of 2000 had witnessed significant progress toward the achievement of many EFA goals. However, challenges are still there from one region of the

world to the other and especially in sub-Sahara Africa and South Asia. This paper is focused on Nigeria, but with emphasis on higher education. It is necessary to reiterate that there has been tremendous progress in the provision of basic education (the first 9 years of schooling), and early childhood care and education has received a boost in Nigeria in recent time. For example all universities and colleges of education are mandated to establish and equip the department of early childhood care and education (ECCE). Basic education in Nigeria is free, but the compulsory element need to be enforced Nigeria is also innovating in nomadic education, and almajiri school to enable migrating nomadic children of school age to be in school anywhere they are in the country. If the progress made in the almajiri schools are sustained, then the over 9,500,000 almajiri children in the north of the country will be provided basic education. It must be noted that the Nigerian basic education programme is financed by the state, and covers the 6 years of primary schooling and the first three years of secondary education. In most states of the Federation, secondary education is free up to senior secondary including external examination fees. As mentioned earlier, the focus of this paper however is on higher education provision and access in Nigeria. This is important because if education for all is successful in Nigeria, and with its large population, the success will have grave implications on higher education in Nigeria.

Rationale for Education for All

The Education for All movement has its impetus on the universal declaration of Human rights of December 10, 1948, which also included the right for education as one of its components (ICDE, 2009, Moti, 2010). Tomasevski (2003), had argued that the right to education implies that everyone has the right to education. For this to be implemented, it means that education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available, and higher (university) education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. The implication of this to governments is that they are obliged to make education available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable. The General Assembly of the United Nation also called on member countries to make public the text of the declaration, and “to cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions, without distinction based on the political status of countries or territories.” The ICDE, 2009, noted that the right to primary and secondary education has long been accepted, but the belief that higher education is also a human right has also become widely accepted around the globe; including Nigeria. This is expected because there is a cross-cultural and increasingly universal belief that education offers hope for employment a better way of life for one’s self and one’s children, and the fulfilment of one’s personal aspirations.

Implicit in the rationale for High educational as a right is the belief that access to knowledge and learning is a universal right, one of the key rights to global community. Knowledge is also increasingly regarded as the solution to individual and collective social and economic problems; it has become a new global religion. To be fitted into the new world community or global “village”, one need to be equipped with the right education, which cuts across culture and border this will enhance one’s ability to complete favourably in the global perspective of knowledge economy. Thus, the strength of nations may be gauged by the participation of its citizens in the new economy driven by knowledge and learning. Higher education plays a key role in global competitions. In relation to higher education therefore, ICDE (2009) defined globalization in terms of the economic, technological, political and societal forms opening access to twenty-first century higher education which has, for most of the past century been owned by the upper, and

to a lesser degree, the middle classes of the developed world. The rationale for making higher education accessible to all on the basis of merit is gained further impetus in the words of Thabo Mbeki, former South African President who said

“if the next century is going to be characterised as an African century, for social and economic progress of African people, the century of durable peace and sustained development of Africa, then the success of this project is dependent on the success of our educational systems. For nowhere in the world has sustained development been attained without a well-functioning system of education, without effective higher primary education and research sector, without equality of educational opportunity.

Conference on education for African Renaissance in the twenty-first century, Johannesburg, S.A. 6, Dec. 1999.

The right to education (primary, secondary, or tertiary) involves four key factors according to Moti (2010). These factors include;

- a. The government as the provider of public schooling.
- b. The child as the bearer of the right to education.
- c. The parents (the first educators).
- d. The professional educators namely the teachers.

In agreement with the UN declaration of Human Rights, the Nigerian National policy on education (NPE, 2004), in accordance with the national goals and philosophy of education states that every Nigerian child shall have the right to equal educational opportunities irrespective of any real or unimagined disabilities, each according to his or her ability.

Higher Education in Nigeria and the Challenges of Access

Higher education is obviously the basic instrument for economic growth and technological advancement in one society. To this end, government, all over the world commits huge resources to ensure the provision of higher education for their citizens, and also tailor their policies towards ensuring that it is made accessible to the generality of their citizenry. Additionally, the world's workplace is becoming increasingly fluid across national, regional and international borders, due to economic globalization, and the development of advanced and Information Communications Technologies (ICT). Globalization and internalization of higher education have actually placed pressure on existing national systems to ensure they are placed competitively in the international market place.

The Nigerian higher education system is made up of universities, polytechnics and colleges of education, offering programmes in almost all spheres of learning – arts, social sciences, the sciences, engineering, medicine etc. according to Moti (2006), NUC (2008), it is the largest and most complex higher education system on the African continent. It is estimated that there are well over 140 national, state and private (including those owned by religious organization) universities in Nigeria. The other higher education institutions (polytechnics, monotronics, and colleges of education) are estimated to be over 139 in number (Obasi, 2008). The Federal Ministry of Education has responsibility for the running an organizations of these institutions. In addition, there are specific commissions under the ministry of education that is saddled with the oversight functions of these institutions. For example, the National Universities Commission

(NUC), oversees the universities in terms of standards, accreditation of courses, general supervisions etc. the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), and the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) perform similar functions for the colleges of education and the polytechnics in the country. The Federal Government is responsible for funding federal universities, polytechnics and colleges of education. The state universities, polytechnics and colleges of education are funded by the states agencies like Education Task Fund (ETF), and Tertiary Education Fund (TEF) provide funding assistance and interventions in federal, state and private higher educational institutions in Nigeria. This paper had restricted itself to issues of access as they affect the universities. It is assumed that the trends observed in the universities (state and federal) are similar to those found in other higher institutions.

The issue of access to higher education in Nigeria is very old. It is as old as the university system itself. The issue of access to university education (higher education) was first raised by the Ashby commission in 1959. The commission report indicated that there was an imbalance in educational opportunities between the Southern and Northern parts of Nigeria, and that there were limited admission opportunities for primary school leavers (Fagbumi, 2005). Access to higher education and the lack of capacity of the system to absorb the number of students seeking admission to higher education institutions continues to pose problem even until today. The problems of access seem to be exacerbated by increase in population and expansion in the primary and secondary school systems.

The Nigerian National Policy on Education (2004) sees access as making it possible for everyone who is entitled to education to receive it. And to this end, every Nigerian child, and adult citizens are entitled to education, Nigeria being a signatory to the universal declaration of Human Right (UN, 1948), education being one of such rights. Tonwe (2005), Dada (2004) defined access as the right to received formal education as distinct from informal education. UNESCO (2003) puts 'access' in tertiary education as meaning "ensuring equitable access" tertiary education institutions based on merit, capacity, efforts and perseverance. Closely related to access is the issue of equity in education, which Ene (2005) opined that it implies ensuring that all the segments of society (minority or otherwise) get their fair share of access to whatever educational opportunities are provided. Access is seen here as the right or opportunity of the citizens to use the higher educational institutions to advance themselves on merit without being hindered by any kind of state law or discriminated against on the bases natural disability. The National Policy on Education provided for equal opportunities for all Nigerian citizens at all levels of education without discrimination.

In Nigeria, problem of access to higher education is well documented. Statistics from the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB), and the National Universities Commission (NUC) show that on the average Nigerian universities admit only 13% of 'qualified' students who seek admission into the universities. Table 1 below shows the number of students who apply for admission, and the number admitted for 1978 – 2008, a twenty-eight (28) years period.

Table 1: Total applications and admission into universities in Nigeria 1978-2008

Academic Year	Total Applications	Total Admission	% Admitted	% Not Admitted
1978/79	114,801	14,417	12.6	87.4
1979/80	144,939	28,213	19.3	80.7
1980/81	180,673	26,808	14.8	85.2
1981/82	205,112	29,800	14.5	85.5
1982/83	191,583	27,373	14.3	85.7
1983/84				
1984/85	201,140	27,482	13.7	86.3
1985/86	212,114	30,996	14.6	85.4
1986/87	193,774	39,915	20.6	79.4
1987/88	210,525	36,456	17.3	82.7
1988/89	190,353	41,700	21.9	78.1
1989/90	255,638	38,431	15.0	85.0
1990/91	287,572	48,504	16.9	83.1
1991/92	398,270	61,479	15.4	84.6
1992/93	357,950	57,685	16.1	83.9
1993/94	420,681	65,783	16.0	84.0
1994/95				
1995/96	512,797	37,498	7.3	92.7
1996/97	475,923	79,904	16.8	83.2
1997/98	419,807	72,791	17.3	82.7
1998/99	340,117	78,550	23.1	76.9
1999/00	417,773	78,550	18.8	81.2
2000/01	416,381	45,766	11.0	89.0
2001/02	749,417	90,769	12.1	87.9
2002/03	994,381	51,845	5.2	94.8
2003/04	146,103	104,991	10.0	90.0
2004/05	841,878	122,492	14.6	85.4
2005/06	916,371	76,984	8.4	91.6
2006/07	803,472	88,524	11.0	89.0
2007/08	911,653	107,320	11.8	88.2
Totals	12,411,200	1,610,026	12.97%	87%
			13%	
			=	10,801,174

Source: JAMB Applications and Admission Statistics, 2005.

The table 1 above shows that contrary to the NPE (2009) postulation that there will be unfettered access to education at all level by Nigerian citizens, the problem and challenges of access to higher education has continued to beset the Nigerian Higher Education System. The National Policy on Education (2004) clearly enunciated government's plans to ensure that everyone was afforded an opportunity within and outside the formal school system to acquire as much education as he/she can at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. This will enable each person to be able to contribute meaningfully to national development. Section 5 of the NPE (2004) clearly articulated how it intends to widen access to higher education especially in the

universities, such that everyone that demands university education would have a fair chance of being selected.

Factors Restricting Access to Higher Education

Many factors, most of which are government policies are thought to be responsible for the problem of access to higher education in Nigeria. One of such factors is the upwardly mobile population and the needs of a globalized economy. According to Okebukola (2006), the major contributory factors in the expansion of demand for university education, which has impeded access, is the expansion in basic and secondary education and the number and rate of growth of students that want university education. The entire university system from 1978-2008 could only accommodate about 13% of those seeking admission. This situation is predicted by Okebukola (2006) to worsen when graduates of the Universal Basic Education Scheme (UBES) come knocking on the doors of the universities.

Ilosanya (2008) views the issues of access to higher education as politics. He observed that variations in educational development between the southern and northern parts of Nigeria had necessitated the introduction of certain policies that had worked against access to university education. This had occasioned the creation of the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) in order to centralize admission into Nigerian Universities. Akpotie (2005), agreeing with Ilosanya, averred that the major obstacles to increased access to higher education in Nigeria are the reform policies of quota system, catchments area admission policy, which are JAMB admission indices, and poor and inadequate facilities, including limited absorptive capacity of Nigerian universities. The declared objectives of JAMB at inception were to develop a system for streamlining university admissions on a uniform and fair basis. JAMB was also aimed at evolving a uniform standard for university admissions and to ensure that merit serves as the basis of selection. Unfortunately JAMB had been amortised by policies which sacrifices merit on the altar of quota system, catchments area, educationally disadvantaged states, discretion etc which are non-academic considerations, and which predominated. JAMB, instead of standardizing admissions on merit has of recent turned to a political tool to effect equalization of educational advancement between the north and the south of Nigeria. JAMB pattern of admission requires merit 45%, catchments area 35%, disadvantage area 20% and discretion 10% (Obilade, 1992).

The incidence of (factor) of carrying capacity, as pursued by the National universities commission is another very serious restrictive index of access to university education in Nigeria. The UNC has in recent time allowed universities to admit students based on their carrying capacity, in other words, admission into universities are based on available space, (in the hostels and classrooms), available laboratory and equipment for practical etc. This becomes necessary because of infrastructural decays witness in all universities as a result of low budgetary allocation to the education sector in Nigeria. NUC statistics shows differences between total admissions and NUC carrying capacity of some selected years.

Table 2: Total Admissions and NUC carrying capacity 2000-2008

Academic Year	Total Admissions	UNC Carrying Capacity	Difference
2000/2001	45,766	74,929	- 29,163
2001/2002	90,769	82,295	+ 8,474
2002/2003	51,845	70,625	- 18,780
2003/2004	104,991	82,655	+ 22,336
2004/2005	122,492	82,655	+ 39,837
2005/2006	76,984	86,755	- 10,229
2006/2007	88,524	86,755	+ 1,769
2007/2008	107,320	90,656	+ 16,764

Source: NUC Admission bulletin, 2000 – 2008.

Government had in recent time initiated some programmes and actions that have changed the landscape of widening access to university education. For example, Nigeria has urged the universities to ensure that everyone who is afforded the opportunity of university education equitably develops his or her potentials to be able to understand and appreciate their environments whether it is internal or external. Government has also established the national Open University of Nigeria since 1983 and in 2011 and 2012 had established twelve more conventional universities, including the licensing of a number of private universities to help increase access to higher education. So far, these initiatives are like a drop of water in the ocean.

Higher Education Access: The Promise of ODL.

The Open and Distance Learning mode of education delivery skills to be catching up with the world, and Nigeria must of necessity look in this direction to increase access to higher education in Nigeria. Having established a number of higher education institutions in recent time (from 3 universities in 1960, the Nigerian University System has expanded to over 114 universities in 2013), and still facing acute shortage of space to accommodate the teeming population of youths from the secondary education system seeking university education, it is high time Nigeria started looking in the direction of open and distance learning. It is important to reiterate that in 2012, about 1.5 million candidates sat for the University Matriculation Examination (UME), and only about 500,000 were admitted.

According to the Commonwealth of Learning (COL), open and distance learning is a way of providing learning opportunities that is characterised by the separation of teacher and learner in time and place or both time and place, learning that is certified in some way by an institution or agency, the use of a variety of media, including print and electronic, two-way communication that allows learners and tutors to interact, possibility of occasional face-to-face meetings, and a specialized division of labour in the production and delivery of courses. It is not intended here to give a detailed historical development of open and distance learning universities in the world. However, it is worthy to note that the success of the University of South Africa (UNISA); the world oldest distance university, had stimulated the growth of open universities in the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, Asia and lately, Nigeria.

The International Council for Open and Distance Education (ICDE) had listed the following features of the open universities around the world:

Providing educational opportunity to a broader segment of the population, thereby encouraging the movement from elitist to mass higher education

Formalizing independent and lifelong opportunities for adults

Promoting the use of multimedia and new information and technology in distance and conventional higher education

Achieving cost effectiveness through large scale operations as seen in mega universities.

Providing internationalization in higher education through cross-border delivery of courses and programmes

More importantly Peters (2008), had observed that open universities endeavour to

Produce more graduates at a lower per student cost

Provide for greater equality of educational opportunities

Provide access to adult students

Provide professional qualifications

Assist in the development and democratization of their respective countries.

Statistics have shown that the Open and Distance Learning System has played significant roles in Asia, especially in providing access to higher education. Table 3 below shows some selected 30 mega universities and their enrolment.

Table 3 Total students Enrolment in Selected Mega Universities

Rank	Institution	Location	Founded	Enrolment
1	Indira Ghandi National Open University	New Delhi, India	1985	3,500.00
2.	Islamic Azad University	Tehran, Iran	1982	1,900,000
3.	Allama Iqbal Open University	Islamabad, Pakistan	1974	1,121,038
4.	Anadolu University	Eskisehir Turkey	1958	1,141,180
5.	Bangladesh National University	Gazipur, Bangladesh	1972	850,000
6.	Payame Noor University	Tehran, Iran	1987	818,150
7.	Bangladesh Open Universities	Bangladesh	1992	650,000
8.	Universitas Terbuka	Jukartun Indonesia	1984	646,467
9.	Ramkhamhueng University	Bangkook, Thailand	1971	525,000
10.	Tribhuran University	Kirtipur, Nepal	1959	500,000
11.	University of Pune	Pune, India	1948	496,531
12.	University System of Ohia	Ohia, USA	2007	478,000
13.	State University of New York	NY, USA	1948	467,845
14.	Andhra Pradesh Open University	Andhra Pradesh, India	1982	450,00
15.	University of Punjab	Lahore, Pakistan	1882	450,000
16.	California State University	California, USA	1857	417,000
17.	University of Delhi	New Delhi, India	1922	400,000
18.	Sikkim Manipal University	Sikkim, India	1995	390,000
19.	University of Buenos Aires	Buenos Aires Argentina	1821	316,000
20.	National Autonomous University of Mexico	Mexico City, Mexico	1910	324,413
21.	Spiru Haret University	Bucharest, Romania	1991	311,928
22.	University System of Georgia	Georgia, USA	1930	311,442
23.	University System of Florida	Florida, USA	1954	302,513
24.	Osmania University	Hyderabad, India	1918	300,000
25.	National University of Distance Education	Spain	1972	260,000
26.	Rajiv Gandhi Technical University	Bhopal, India	1998	260,000
27.	Open University	Milton Keynes, England, UK	1969	253,075
28.	University of South Africa	Pretoria, Gauteng, SA	1873	250,000
29.	National Polytechnic	Mexico City, Mexico	1936	229,070
30.	Estácio de Sá University	Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	1970	215,000

Source: Ofolue C. I. (2013) An Overview of Open and Distance learning. Workshop Material

For purposes of comparison and analysis, the admissions for 2011/2012 and 2013 for the University of Lagos is presented in table 4, and in table 5, total admissions for 7 years, 2003/2004, 2005/2006, 2007/2008, 2008/2009, 2009/2010, 2010/2011 and 2011/2012 for the National Open University of Nigeria are presented.

Table 4 University of Lagos, Total Students Admissions (Merit List) 2011/2012, 2012/2013

Faculties	Art s	Bus. Admi n	Educatio n	Engineerin g	Env . Sc.	La w	Soc . Sci	Pharmac y	Me d	Tota l
2011/2012	423	498	480	483	319	156	480	171	299	3,309
2012/2013	315	450	467	403	295	158	449	97	318	3,659

Source: University of Lagos Website.

Table 5. Total Admissions by Year for National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN)

S/No	Year	No. of Students Admitted
1.	2003/2004	7,345
2.	2005/2006	17,141
3.	2007/2008	19,160
4.	2008/2009	13,505
5.	2009/2010	8,114
6.	2010/2011	29,682
7.	2011/2012	24,934
Totals	7 years	119,881

Discussions

Table 1, 3, 4 and 5 throw up very important observations which are relevant to the present discussion:

1. A total of 12,411,200 students applied for admission for the period, 1978/79 though 2007/2008.
2. Out of the over 12m applicants above, only 1, 610,026 representing 13% were admitted within the period.
3. About 10,801,174 representing 87% were denied access within the period under review.
4. In 2012/2013, 83,865 applicants chose the University of Lagos. Only 3, 659 students were admitted. Over 80, 000 were denied access. Similar situations may play out in other universities across the country.

5. The total students admission in the University of Lagos in previous years may not differ markedly from that of 2011/2012, 2012/2013 shown in table 4. Extrapolating for a ten years period, the University of Lagos may be able to admit 37,000 students. To date, the University of Lagos has the highest number of UTME applicants on yearly bases in Nigeria.
6. The National Open University of Nigeria the only single mode Distance Learning University in Nigeria, had a total students admission of 119,881 in seven years period as shown on table 5.
7. Compared with the University of Lagos in 2011/2012, NOUN had a total students' enrolment of 24,934, as against Unilag 3,309.
8. Table 3 shows that a single mega university, most of which are Open and Distance Learning Universities can accommodate the access demands of all Nigerian applicants in a year. For example, the total students' enrolment at India Ghandi National Open University (IGNOU) – India is put at 3,500,000.
9. The obvious inference from the statistics shown on the tables is that the Open and Distance Learning System (ODLS) holds the promise for access to higher education in the world, and in particular Nigeria. Table 3 shows that the Asian region is reaping an access bumper harvest in this regard, Nigeria can copy from their success.

Recommendation

The failure of the conventional universities to meet the challenges of access to higher education, which the National Policy on Education (2004) had enunciated, and which many Nigerian youths and adult are yearning for is well documented. The success of the Open University System in meeting demand for access in Asia, UK, and the US are also shown in the statistics. On the strength of the above assertions, the following recommendations are made:

Nigeria should encourage the use of the Open and Distance Learning System of education delivery.

Nigeria should embark on strengthening the National Open University of Nigeria by providing funds for the establishment of Study Centres not only in the state capitals but extend same to the Local Government headquarters to bring the benefit of Higher Education close to the grassroots.

Deliberate effort should be made by the National Open University to make its programmes and operation known to the citizen, by mounting aggressive advocacy in National Radio, Television, and Web Pops.

The National Open University of Nigeria should encourage course writers to deliver on course writing, to enhance and facilitate students learning and early completion of courses as in the conventional system.

Nigeria should establish a National Commission on Distance Education to oversee the supervision of the programmes of the Distance Learning Institutions.

Higher Education for All who need it may continue to be a mirage if the present challenges of access are not tackled using the Open and Distance Learning approach. The ODL indeed holds the key to the promise of access to higher education.

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Measuring teachers' understanding of social studies in selected Zimbabwean primary schools

By
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Abstract

The research study sought to find out if Social Studies teachers in Zimbabwe Primary Schools are familiar with the subject matter content and the pedagogy to employ in Social Studies. The focus was on the relevance and adequacy of the content and the methodological approaches to meet National Curriculum Standards. Available literature points to the fact that some teachers' competency levels in teaching Social Studies effectively is suspect and this is impacting negatively on the product. It was therefore pertinent to draw data from teachers and also carry out a rigorous analysis of the data to determine the extent to which the teachers are competent in delivering social studies lessons. The study adopted a mixed approach whereby both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. Teachers from one Education District in Zimbabwe were involved in the study. Data was collected through questionnaires interviews and document analysis. Data was presented, analysed and discussed in line with the sub-research questions. The findings of the research reveal an inherent deficiency in teacher subject matter content and pedagogical content knowledge. The findings show that there are glaring deficiencies in the teachers' year plans in Social Studies and that most year plans are a product of the prescribed textbooks and not the National syllabus. It also emerged that aspects like objectivity in content presentation, multidisciplinary approaches, multiculturalism and the constructivist approach have not been addressed adequately by the teachers in Social Studies instruction. Teachers' subject content knowledge has often been neglected in research hence the amount of content they pass on to learners has been undermined (Schulman 1986). The study also found out that there are flaws in the provision, evaluation and adoption of pedagogical tools in Zimbabwean Primary Schools. The need to engage all teachers in workshops on Social Studies content and constructivist pedagogy in teaching becomes imperative in these circumstances. Research has shown that most teachers particularly in Social Studies lack enough subject matter (SCK) and hence they are unfit to practice in schools (Poulson 2001). In this regard some numerous recommendations have been proffered to ensure that teacher development benefits the teaching learning process. It is interesting to study this area because Social Studies is a relatively new subject in the Zimbabwean Primary School curriculum and it appears there are still some grey areas that need interrogation.

Keywords: Constructivist, Pedagogy, National syllabus, Social Studies, School curriculum

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Kapfidze Gabriel & Maile Simeon (2013). Measuring teachers' understanding of social studies in selected Zimbabwean primary schools. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

Since its introduction, the Social Studies subject has remained a grey area. Teachers seem not to understand the discipline and its basic tenets; hence the implementation of the Social Studies programme has been fraught with irregularities and problems. Kochhar (1984:2) asserts that, "The Social Studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society and to man as a member of social groups." Kochhar is writing on the Education System in India which is characteristic of the School System in Zimbabwe which is both Third World countries. Koehler (1984) goes on to argue that we use every possible 'subject' to help us understand the problems of man. This interdisciplinary approach presents problems as teachers do not understand what Social Studies are. Questions arise as to whether Social Studies is History and Geography or whether it is Civics. The situation Kochhar (1984) presents above is synonymous with the prevailing situation in the Social Studies arena in Zimbabwe. Social Studies are drawn from several social sciences but it is not only one of these disciplines. Social Studies are neither History nor Geography only but it is a consortium of all the subjects that make up Social Studies. Its purpose is not to transmit facts but to develop characteristics that are desirable in people.

Social Studies are thus a compound of all the subjects and hence the subjects are not taught as entities. In other words Social Studies is like a whole ice cream in taste unlike the separate ingredients. (Kochhar- 1984). Social Studies is one of the youngest subjects on the Zimbabwean primary school curriculum. It is a relatively new subject having been introduced in 1980 after independence. Implementation of the programme was as a result of the recommendations of the Lewis-Taylor Committee Report on Education of 1974. However, the implementation was rather haphazard. There was no thorough consultation with all the stakeholders such that the introduction of Social Studies had its own shortcomings. The shortcomings in the implementation have ripple effects on current practice in the teaching of Social Studies.

The problems in the teaching of Social Studies have been prevailing since independence, but it appears very little has been done to arrest the situation. Curriculum innovation demands proper planning and consultation with all stakeholders, particularly the implementing agents who are teachers. Failure to do so could result in problems which are difficult to mitigate in the long run. Besides consultation, there is also need for resource allocation to facilitate effective implementation of the programme, and this has not been the case with Social Studies. The Social Studies syllabus for primary schools remains a draft since 1982 and this raises problems for teachers. ZINTEC module 707 alludes to the above statement when it argues that, the Social Studies panel on the syllabus left some ends loose and this makes interpretation of the Social Studies syllabus difficult. The syllabus lacks detail and is a mere skeleton without the relevant teaching content at the various grade levels in the primary school.

Statement of the problem

It would appear that teachers in the primary schools in Zimbabwe have inadequate subject matter content and pedagogical content knowledge. This has serious ramifications on the effective teaching of the subject.

Grand Tour Question

What is the competency level of primary school teachers in teaching social studies in Zimbabwean schools?

Sub - research questions

The following sub-research questions guided this investigation:

Are teachers adequately trained to handle Social Studies?

Do teachers have the ability to draw up lesson topics from the Social Studies syllabus?

Do teachers adopt appropriate methods to teach content, skills and values in Social Studies?

Do teachers have problems with content in Social Studies?

Justification of the study

This research is important, as it is an attempt to get the opinions of practising teachers on difficulties they meet in teaching Social Studies. Social Studies seek to help the child become more competent for living in this modern world. The effective acculturation of the child into our social institutions would develop the appropriate citizenry. Social Studies thus needs to be taken more seriously as a subject since its aim is to initiate youths into real life. The Social Studies arena is a field in which this researcher has been in for close to twenty years. The researcher is generally dissatisfied and perturbed with the way things are happening in his field of work. Hence this research is targeted at some self-satisfaction.

The researcher also seeks to instil some confidence in teachers in the teaching of Social Studies so as to improve practice.

Generally it is hoped that this study leads to an improvement in the teaching of Social Studies as it stems from the views of the implementing agents (teachers).

Methodology

In collecting data for this study, the researcher used the following instruments:

1. Interviews;
2. Questionnaire;
3. Document analysis of pupils' exercise books, textbooks, schemes of work and lesson plans.

The research methodology and design

Introduction

This research design was constructed to measure the teachers' understanding of Social Studies in selected Zimbabwean Schools. The study was restricted to six (6) primary schools in Norton Urban area. In this instalment I will explain the design that has been adopted and also outline the Sampling procedures used.

The research design

The choice of a research design presents some problems as there are varied designs to choose from. The use of one design would be an ideal situation. However, in reality a combination of various designs would be most appropriate to facilitate triangulation. This research was dominated by the qualitative paradigm of research with small doses of the quantitative aspect.

The target population

Primary school teachers were the target population. For the purposes of this research, concentration was on six primary schools in Norton Urban area. Rural schools were left out because of the constraints in travel. Besides, it was easier for the researcher to target this group as he resides in Norton.

The researcher also noted from his experiences in the education field that what happens in Zimbabwean primary schools as regards the teaching of Social Studies is not fundamentally different.

Primary school heads in the six primary schools were also part of the targeted population.

Population sample

It was prudent to choose a portion of the population as it was not feasible to address the whole population because of time and financial constraints.

Sharma (1993) argues that a handful is examined and the idea about the whole is formed. He even goes further to state that a doctor uses only a single drop of blood to gain some inferences on the nature of diseases affecting a person.

Sampling procedure

Norton Urban area has six primary schools of which only one is a former Group 'A' primary school. The researcher selected six primary schools which constitutes 100% of the primary schools in Norton Urban area.

The researcher's considered opinion is that this sample is representative and that the findings of this research can be generalised safely.

Borg and Gall (1989: 215) support the above contention when they state that;

The sample should be selected by some process that permits us to assume that the sample is representative of the population which it has been drawn; based on those variables that are relevant to the research we are planning to conduct.

In this case, the sample is representative enough as there exist no major educational variables among the schools.

Ary, et al (1990) argues that the required minimum for a representative sample would be 10% of the population. However, the general rule is to use the largest sample possible. Practically the sample should be drawn from an experimentally accessible population.

Instruments of data collection

In this study the researcher used mainly interviews, questionnaire and document analysis. These were chosen so as to erase the weakness of the other methods and also to capitalise on the strengths of other data collection instruments. This assisted in triangulation which may be defined as the use of multi-methods to gain some impartiality in data.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was considered quite effective as it ensures the collection of vast responses. Questionnaires ensure responses are truthful as they engender confidentiality.

Interviews

These were conducted to get an in-depth understanding of the problems. Insights were also garnered by probing the interviewees. The face to face interaction facilitated the reading of expressions and comments. Subjects were allowed to talk and confidentiality was emphasised.

These interviews were conducted with primary school heads and teachers in the six Norton urban Schools.

The interviews were unscheduled. Basically it was a conversational approach.

Interviewees were very co-operative. **Borg and Gall (1981:87)** argue that biases and prejudices cannot be erased as interviewees sought to please the interviewer. However, some accurate responses were obtained through this method.

Document analysis

Documentary evidence was used to support the interviews and questionnaires. The researcher studied some documents kept in the schools. Some documents examined included the Social Studies Syllabus, schemes and lessons plans, performance records, test work books, time tables, Social Studies textbooks and pupils' writing exercise books in Social Studies. The documents were examined to determine some problems experienced in the Social Studies program. The information from the documents helped to substantiate responses from interviews and questionnaires.

Data Analysis

Bogdan and Biklen (1982) proffer that data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials gathered to increase one's understanding of them and to enable one to present his discoveries to others. Data analysis entails the management of data through its organisation, patterning it, synthesizing it and finding new knowledge from it.

Data presentation, analysis and interpretation

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to establish the problems encountered by teachers in the teaching of Social Studies as a relatively new subject in the Zimbabwean primary school curriculum. A descriptive analysis of the findings is adopted for clarity. However, data will also be presented in the form of tables.

Data to be analysed was collected from six Norton Urban primary schools through questionnaires, interviews and document analysis. Forty-eight questionnaires were distributed in the six schools covering all Grades from 1 to 7, including the headmasters. Out of the 48, questionnaires distributed, 42 were returned, constituting 87, 5% positive response rate.

Table 1: academic qualifications of respondents (n = 42)

QUALIFICATIONS	STD6	JC	GRADE 11	'O' LEVEL	'A' LEVEL	BA
Respondents	0	0	2	34	5	1
%	0	0	4.76	80.96	11.90	2.38

The table above reveals that the majority of respondents numbering 39 teachers and headmasters constituting 92.85%, had 'O' Level and or 'A' Level academic qualifications. These are quite high qualifications by modern standards considering that the respondents are supposed to teach in the primary schools. Thus, the researcher feels the respondents are adequately qualified academically to teach Social Studies. They hold the requisite academic qualifications to engender the capacity to research for Social Studies content. Needless to mention that 'O' and 'A' Level qualifications are way above the Grades the teachers will be teaching hence their academic competencies cannot be questioned. The BA respondent is highly qualified and has the capability too to teach Social Studies.

Table 2: subjects passed at 'O' level (n = 42)

Subject	English	Shona	Maths	History	Geography	Science	Commerce
Respondents	42	39	31	26	32	38	22
%	100	92.86	73.81	61.90	76.19	90.48	52.38

While 'O' and 'A' Level academic qualifications appear impressive as alluded to in Table 1, the subjects passed at 'O' Level are also critical in the teaching of Social Studies. The subject is a consortium of disciplines and it requires someone who is well read in a variety of disciplines. This would assist in the content aspect in teaching in the absence of reference materials. Social Studies is derived from subjects like History, Geography, some Science and Commerce. Table 2 reveals that most of the respondents, above 22 in each area have such subjects at 'O' Level. Hence their background information on Social Studies is sustainable. The researcher's observation has been that those with a History and Geography background tend to be more efficient in their teaching of Social Studies topics.

From the above table it is evident that all the respondents (100%) have adequate qualifications and should therefore be quite capable of handling Social Studies. Generally the table above reveals good professional qualifications. If professional qualifications above were the only consideration, then the respondents could be said to be overqualified for teaching the Social Studies subject. However, the non-exposure to Social Studies of the respondents and other variables like resources impact on the teachers' capability to deliver Social Studies effectively.

Table 3: (n = 42)**Teaching of social studies: knowledge of the social studies syllabus (sss)**

Knowledge of SSS	Non-Existent	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good
Respondents	0	0	7	23	12
%	0	0	16.66	54.76	28.57

The table shows that the respondents fall mostly in the middle in terms of their knowledge of the Social Studies Syllabus. Of the 42 respondents 16.66% show that they are not confident in their knowledge of the syllabus. It was also alarming to hear from interviews some respondents claiming that they had never seen the Social Studies Syllabus, and that normally they use textbooks for deriving content. If we are to go by this view then concept analysis would be almost impossible in the absence of syllabi. The above responses show that there is something wrong in the implementation of the Social Studies programme. A survey carried out in the schools revealed that most respondents did not have a copy of the Social Studies Syllabus. The syllabus is the official document of intention, and one wonders how the subject can be effectively implemented in the absence of such a document.

The adequacy of content in the schemes has also been a bone of contention, in Stages 3 and 4 where the classes should have 4 x 30 mins lessons per week; the scheme shows one or two topics per week. One wonders what the teacher will teach in the other two or so periods. Ideally the scheme should show the four teaching/lesson topics for the week with the relevant sources, aids and activities. The schemes need rationalization to ensure full coverage of topics. The Social Studies Syllabus is too skeletal and much is left to the discretion of the teacher.

The lukewarm approach to the subject at Stages 3 and 4 can only be averted through dialogue among the teachers. Social Studies emphasize the social aspect of humanity. Some schemes reveal that respondents follow the approach of the Natural scientist or Home Economist. The social aspect of humanity is what is critical. The drawing of life cycles of mosquitoes or the baking of scones would fit in perfectly in Environmental Science and Home Economics respectively. Social Studies are worried about how malaria is spread, how it can be controlled and treated as a way of solving social problems. The actual cooking of food falls in the realm of Home Economics.

Thus the view would be that it is not really Social Studies which is being taught in the schools. Textbooks are made by publishers and they may not be aligned closely to the syllabus. The use of the Social Studies textbooks solely would thus be counterproductive in scheming. It is noted that some textbooks have topics like *Tom Goes to Town* under the theme on Transport and Communication. Such topics are not Social Studies specific and do not exist in the syllabus.

Table 4: problems in scheming social studies (n=42)

PROBLEMS IN SCHEMING	YES	NO
RESPONDENTS	10	32
%	23.81	76.19

Of the 42 respondents, 23.81 % showed they had problems in scheming and planning while 76.19 % showed they had no problems. However, document analysis and interviews revealed that there were major inconsistencies in the scheming and planning of Social Studies. In the scheming aspect, the topics taught at Stages 3 and 4 did not cover the necessary aspects at national, regional and international levels. Topics were still localized at stage 4. Instead of say, talking about food production in Zimbabwe or regional food producing areas, the teachers dwelt on local community engagements. In essence, pupils are not introduced to new knowledge on the topics. Pupils are not exposed to national and international aspects on the ten topics.

The observations of this researcher were that a constricted approach is adopted which kills exposure. Pupils need to be exposed to what is happening elsewhere so as to broaden their knowledge. There was also the problem of the lack of clear specific topics which are well focused. The researcher observed topics like *changing patterns of living together* in the schemes. Such topics are too broad and lack a clear focus. Hence it was the observation of this writer that concept analysis was not being properly done in the schools. On topics like the one cited above such lesson topics like *The Ndebele State, the Khoisan, The Mutapa State*, etc, would be appropriate.

Repetition between the Stages and Grades was also observed as a major hurdle. It appears the Grades do not liaise to determine what was taught in a previous Grade. So one finds situations where Grades 1 and 2 content is the same in some instances.

Teaching Resources in Social Studies

Table 5: Supply of Textbooks in Social Studies (N=42)

Supply of Textbooks	Non-Existent	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good
Responses	1	9	25	3	4
%	2.38	21.43	59.52	7.14	9.52

The table above shows that the majority of respondents felt that there were inadequate textbooks and instructional media in Social Studies in the schools. The school textbooks were old and most did not closely relate to the syllabus. This calls for the need for a constant review of the Social Studies textbooks to be relevant to the syllabus. Social Studies is a vast subject and there is need for reference books if teachers are to diligently deliver lessons in the subject. Knowledge from the teachers' 'O' Level subjects is vital but it needs to be augmented with reference books.

Most lessons in Social Studies lack content as revealed by an analysis of the pupils' exercise books. This is because there are no resources from which to get the necessary information. Other teachers shy away from topics that have no reference materials. Someone who did not do history would shy away from Historical topics like "*Great Journeys in the Past*" in the absence of reference materials.

There is also need to display maps at the Stage 3 and 4 levels. These should be maps to cover Zimbabwe, the Southern African sub-region, Africa and the World. These maps would act as reference points when dealing with issues at the relevant Stages.

The environment, a critical resource, is being under-utilized. The problems cited in this regard were the bureaucracy in organizing field trips and also the funds to sponsor educational tours to various social institutions. It would be beneficial for pupils to visit social institutions and see for themselves. Video clips can take the place of actual field trips to cut on costs. However, the use of the local environment is critical in the teaching of meaningful Social Studies.

Table 6: teaching methods in social studies

	METHOD	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently
1.	Discussion	0	0	0	42
2.	Inquiry	0	27	3	12
3.	Group work	0	0	0	42
4.	Field trips	0	12	24	6
5.	Resource Person	15	21	6	0
6.	Lectures	0	9	6	27
7.	Drama	24	6	6	6
8.	Project	24	6	12	0
9.	Debate	21	6	15	0
10	Simulation	24	12	3	3

The figures above reveal that the methods used are basically the traditional ones, particularly discussion and group work, which have 100% frequency rate use. **Preston (1995)** supports the above scenario when he says that in real life situations people discuss so Social Studies lessons should have discussion as a major component.

Field trips, the core in Social Studies learning, are mostly also conducted by 30 of the respondents. However, from interviews, it emerged that these are normally local field trips and that trips that require transport are avoided because of the costs. Nevertheless, the use of videos of the institutions that are far would fill the gap of actual trips that are expensive. It is saddening to note that the lecture method which belongs to the banking concept of education still prevails in the teaching of Social Studies which is a living subject. Of the 42 respondents 27 use this method very frequently yet it lacks creativity and imagination and does not adequately develop skills and appropriate attitudes. Such developments can only be facilitated by using participatory methodologies (**Preston 1955**).

Table 6 above shows that interactive methods like drama, project, debate and simulation are rarely used. Needless to mention that these methods give pupils the opportunity to explore the world at a micro level and thus facilitate retention. Interactive methods demonstrate real life situations and they are critical in the development of acceptable attitudes and habits (**Mehlinger 2000**) The cornerstone of appropriate methods in Social Studies is participatory/ interactive approaches.

Table 7: responses on level of knowledge of social studies content
(N=42)

TOPIC	KNOWLEDGE OF CONTENT			
	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	VERY GOOD
1. Food	0	0	30	12
2. Clothes	0	12	21	9
3. Shelter	0	6	21	15
4. Transport & Communication	0	6	24	12
5. Wealth & Money	0	21	15	6
6. Rules & Laws	0	21	18	3
7. Health	0	15	15	12
8. Work & Leisure	0	15	21	6
9. Social Services & Voluntary	3	15	15	9
10. Living Together				

Table 7 above shows that the majority of respondents have no problems with Social Studies content. Their responses range from the very good to good level of knowledge of Social Studies content. However, respondents in the fair category raise some eyebrows. More than 50% show that they have a fair grasp of content in topics like *Wealth and Money*, *Rules and Laws*, *Health*, *Work and Leisure* and *Social Services*, and *Voluntary Organizations*.

An examination of pupils' exercise books reveals that the content in the upper stages 3 and 4 is not up to standard. The content is highly diluted and general. The topic Leisure, for example, concentrates on watching television, soccer and other general aspects. There is need to internationalize pupils at Stage 4 level and discuss issues like national, regional and international holiday resorts and entertainment centres. On content, there is a serious need for teachers to come together and determine what can be taught at various Grade levels. In some instances, it was observed that Grade 1 work was taught at Grade 4 level. Such approaches are counter-productive.

The absence of reference materials is also quite damaging in terms of content to teach. While the respondents have the relevant qualifications and capacity to research for information, the reference books are simply not there. Mehlinger (2000) alludes to the effects of textbooks when

he says that they are important sources of information and that they influence the teaching of Social Studies in a big way.

There is therefore need to either order the requisite books or embark on module production to ensure that schools have an assortment of reference materials. This will ensure the effective deliverance of lessons and that teachers will not avoid topics where they find that they are academically arid in terms of content.

The current affairs programme in social studies

Table 8: responses on conducting of current affairs lessons (n=42)

CONDUCT OF PROGRAMME	YES	NO
RESPONSES	30	12
%	71.43	28.57

The majority of respondents 71.43% showed that they conduct current affairs programmes. However, the researcher did not see any evidence of the conduct of such in the classrooms. A random questioning of pupils on general current events revealed that some were quite up to date, but most of these said that they got the information through the media. On the other hand, some were quite ignorant of what was happening around them.

The researcher's view is that our current crop of primary school graduates lack general knowledge on geographical and historical aspects. The current affairs programme would be handy in stemming this deficiency. Through the programme, pupils may be introduced to trouble spots in the world, capital cities, presidents, humanitarian organizations and other topical issues in society. Surely, education will be doing a disservice to society if a Grade 7 graduate does not know the capital cities of the SADC states, worse still, the presidents. Such knowledge should be considered common for Grade 7 graduates.

Evaluation in social studies

Table 9: frequency of use of various types of questioning and assessment (N=42)

Type of Questioning & Assessment	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Frequently
1. How?	0	12	21	9
2. What?	0	3	27	12
3. Why?	6	15	15	6
4. Filling in blanks	0	6	12	24
5. One word answers	0	3	0	39
6. Short essays	12	12	12	6
7. Drawing	12	12	12	6

Table 9 shows that the majority of respondents prefer filling in of blanks and one word answers. More of the respondents also prefer the low order questions of a descriptive nature, i.e., How, What and Why questions.

Assessment in Social Studies should be more rigorous to develop critical and analytical minds in our graduates.

From an analysis of pupils' textbooks the researcher noted that evaluative exercises concentrate on filling in of blanks, one word answers and listing. These approaches lack originality and they are not challenging enough. After all, in real life situations we do not learn through dashes or filling in blanks. Instead of saying, "The president of Zimbabwe is -----," what would be wrong in asking pupils to write a short paragraph on the president of Zimbabwe?

Drawing is also being neglected as more than 50% show that they do not constantly ask pupils to draw. A few maps and diagrams seen in pupils' exercise books reveal that not much effort is placed on the drawing aspect. Yet drawing is a critical skill.

Staff development in social studies

Table 10: the responses on whether staff development sessions are held
(N=42)

STAFF DEVELOPMENT SESSIONS	YES	NO
RESPONSES	30	12
%	71.43	28.57

Table 11: response to the question "are you competent in the teaching of social studies?"
(N=42)

COMPETENT TO TEAVH SOCIAL STUDIES	YES	NO
RESPONSES	33	9
%	78.57	21.43

Table 12: response to the question "do you need in-service training in social studies instruction?"
(N=42)

COMPETENT TO TEAVH SOCIAL STUDIES	YES	NO
RESPONSES	36	6
%	85.71	14.29

Table 10 shows that the majority of respondents hold staff development sessions, and that the majority again feel they are competent in the Social Studies programme. However, some 21.43% in Table 11 and 14.29% in Table 12 respectively noted that they did not conduct staff development sessions and they were not as competent in teaching of Social Studies. However, Table 12 shows there is a contradiction in the responses in that the majority, 85.71% require in-service training in Social Studies instruction.

The bottom line is that Social Studies is a grey area infested with a multiplicity of problems and therefore needs a concerted effort to put it back on track. As professionals, it would probably have been embarrassing for respondents to register ignorance in an area they are supposed to be fundis.

Summary of problems encountered in the teaching of social studies

Social Studies implementation is not without problems in the primary schools. This means that the aims and objectives set out in the Social Studies Syllabus are not being met because of the numerous problems alluded to in this discourse. These problems have been going on since independence and it appears very little has been done to arrest the situation. There is simply inadequate time to teach all aspects in Social Studies at teachers' colleges during the pre-service course, particularly the content aspect as alluded to by teachers who were interviewed by this researcher.

Conclusions

Conclusions that can be drawn:

Sub- Research Question 1:

Teachers have problems in concept analysis in Social Studies, and this area needs to be revisited in staff development sessions in schools. The content component and pedagogical approaches need streamlining.

Sub- Research Question 2:

The findings of this research point to a deficiency among teachers in their ability to engage in critical and effective concept analysis of the social studies syllabus to come up with an effective learning programme.

Sub- Research Question 3:

Teachers do not adopt participatory methods in the teaching of Social Studies. There is a general leaning towards the telling methods at the expense of interactive methodologies.

Sub- Research Question 4:

It was observed that teachers lack content to teach in some topics in Social Studies as the content is vast. However, the absence of reference materials compounds the problem.

Although it should be noted that there is no subject without its own problems, Social Studies appears to be in a class of its own. It has problems that are too numerous. There is need for teachers to take the initiative assisted with other stakeholders like teachers' colleges, to solve these problems that have become perennial.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of this discourse:

The Social Studies Syllabus should be readily available to all teachers in the primary schools.

Pre-service teacher education courses should emphasize concept analysis.

In-service courses and staff development sessions should be conducted for the benefit of teachers.

Some detail should be added to the Social Studies Syllabus and also modules on content in the ten topics should be written.

The current affairs programme should be promoted in schools through provision of radios, televisions and relevant literature.

Preferably, a Social Studies Resource Center should be erected for a given cluster of schools.

An Education Officer with a steering Committee should be appointed to co-ordinate the implementation and promotion of Social Studies.

It is this researcher's hope that the implementation of the above recommendations would lead to an improvement in the effective teaching of Social Studies.

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Birago Diop and educational development of the African child: analysis of “*les Contes d’amadou koumba*”.

By

Adefarasin Victoria A.*

Abstract

Africa is a second largest continent in the world. It is a continent endowed with rich cultural heritage that can never be relegated to the background. Through oral tradition, Africans have contributed greatly to the universal currents of thoughts and arts. Africa has institutionalized devices for preserving and transmitting their norms, beliefs and traditions. One of its devices is oral tradition as a means of preserving and transmitting cherished traditional beliefs and practices. The peculiarities of African cultural diversity, its identity and continuity through time underline the inherent potential of Africa’s cultural resources. Oral tradition is recourse to African history and a legacy to all humanities. The challenge before us is to rededicate ourselves to the appreciation, development and patronage of our cultural resources. Placing premium on our cultural endowment would earn us respect, global recognition, international co-operation, development and aid effective dissemination of our culture by projecting the best of our history. It would naturally encourage the preservation of our heritage for future generation and for the development of knowledge and cultural understanding as being experienced in other climes. On this note this study shall examine critically the concept of oral tradition, education and development. It studies the life of Birago Diop and his creative skills, it shall analyse the elements of oral tradition in his work and his moral instruction to younger generation in Africa. The theoretical framework is based on Narratology i.e. Structuralist Analysis of Narrative.

Keywords: Africa, Oral tradition, Development, Continent, Education, Younger generation.

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Adefarasin Victoria A (2013). Birago Diop and educational development of the African child: analysis of “*les Contes d’amadou koumba*”. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Africa is the second largest and most populous continent in the world. Africa is claimed to be the cradle of mankind. Human history began in Africa and spread round the earth. She is believed to be the birth place of man. The conclusion has also been drawn from discoveries in Africa that the Old Stone Age (Paleolithic) Africa led the rest of the world in man's early development. Africa thus became the birth-place of man because it was there that our near man ancestor emerged into human status about two and half million years ago. And for several centuries after the emergence Africa was believed to be in the forefront of all world progress.

Before even the British came into relations with our people, we were a developed people, having our own institutions, having our own ideas of government. (J.E. Casely Hayford, 1922. African (Gold Coast) Nationalist.

The African people like all other people have their culture, the sum-total of their socially standardized ways of life and culture is based on process of learning. A culture is a total way of life. It embraces what people ate and what they wore, the way they walked and the way they talked the manner in which they treated death and greeted the new-born. Rodney: 1972:41. Africa is a continent endowed with natural and human resources. It is the continent of drums and percussion: Africa peoples reached the pinnacle of achievement in that sphere. Africa has really contributed to man's heritage of beautiful creations. The Art of Egypt, the Sudan & Ethiopia was known to the rest of Africa is still being discovered and rediscovered by Europeans and present day Africans.

African views of the universe arose upon life itself and the world at large. No human society can exist without some forms of views of the world in which it lives. All the senses of perception like hearing, seeing, feeling, tasting and smelling are open gates for human awareness of man's own existence and that of the world. So, as Africans people went through life's experiences, as they reflected upon what they saw and experienced, as they discussed their situation in the world, as they went through changes of individual lives, changes of the season, changes of more and more ideas were generated concerning their understanding of the world (Mbiti:1977:40).

In Africa virtually all groups and societies have their various institutionalized methods of reconstructing the past. Preservation of cultural resources is not a recent phenomenon in various parts of Africa. Africans have used various means to protect their cultural heritage. In Africa families live tight together, they find a lot of strength and confidence in the inherited traditions. Africa's kinship is perhaps the building block of African societies. In all African's groups, nobody, no matter how highly placed, wealthy or otherwise can live independently of his kinship group. A child born to a particular family not only depends on the father and mother for sustenance and support, but also on a large number of relatives for protection. As such a child grows; he contributes to the development of the family by carrying some of its responsibilities (Adekola, 2011: 11). A typical example can be found in *Les Contes d'Ahmadou Koumba* of Birago Diop. His grandmother told him series of tales that remained a regular event between the two; at bedtime, each night, Diop would listen to tales from his grandmother until he slept off. At this stage in his life Diop's interest in and familiarity with folktales had already developed; he was a repertory of contes.

-- Bake, tu dors?

Oui, grand-mère?

Tant que je répondais ainsi, grand-mère savait que je ne dormais pas et que, tremblant de frayeur, j'écoutais de toutes mes oreilles et de tous mes yeux fermes, les contes terrifiants ou intervenaient les Génies et les Lutins" Diop:1946:9.

Diop's interest in folktales was developed in his childhood days, he listened to many of them from his grandmother, mother and his uncle, Ahmadou Koumba. His cultural background was so much reflected in his works that he used his wolof dialect to compose songs and write poems. Other methods of reconstructing the past amongst African groups are praise, songs, poems, legends, proverbs, war songs, names of people and places, age grades, singing and drumming, folklore, folktales, riddles, festivals, ceremonies, dance, religious beliefs, stories as well as their peculiar spatial and political organizations. As adapted by Adekola, 2011:11.

To this end, African culture can never be relegated to the background, from time immemorial, it has gained much recognition, today, and its glory is waxing strong and stronger among Comity of Nations.

Oral literature

Africa possesses both written and unwritten traditions. The former are relatively well known- at any rate the recent writings in European languages (much work remains to be publicized on earlier Arabic and local written literatures in Africa). The unwritten forms however, are far less widely known and appreciated. Such forms do not fit neatly into the familiar categories of literate cultures, they are harder to record and present Finnegan, 1970:1. Oral Literature as described above is unwritten in nature yet man must speak before he learns to write. It is the only literature that a vast percentage of the world has ever known. Millions of analphabetic peoples down the ages have composed, transmitted and performed their verbal arts without recourse to writing. Everywhere, oral literature has been the base from which all other literatures have grown.

This brings us to a direct consideration of the oral literature itself. There is an obvious sense in which it can be considered as the "true" literature of Africa. It is the literature that is still the most widespread and with which the vast majority of Africans, even today, are in constant touch, and it represents that form of expression to which African sensibilities are most readily attuned. The reason for this is not far to seek, for despite the impact of literacy, orality is still the dominant mode of communication on the continent, and it determines a particular disposition of the imagination of a different order from that conditioned by literacy (Irele, 1987:79). Moreso, the absence of writing in the past has made it necessary to employ oral literature as a means of preserving and transmitting cherished traditional beliefs and practices.

The continent of Africa can be viewed as a site of enormous, long and ongoing creativity in relation to orality as a vector for the production of social life, religious beliefs, and the constant constituting and reconstituting of society, ideology and aesthetics. Liz Gunner says further, it is justifiable to call the African continent. "The oral continent per excellence", because orality needs to be seen in the African context as the means by which societies of varying complexity regulated themselves, organized their present and their pasts Gunner. 2004:68

In Africa, some of the major concerns of today is to demonstrate to European colonizers that traditional African culture is not obsolete nor hard to record or present but it is very relevant for the articulation of contemporary needs and goals. There have been an equally large number of

transactions of African oral narratives. The first known translator of African tales was the Frenchman, J.F. (“Le Bon”) Roger’s *Fables Senegalaises recueillies dans l’Ouolof* (1828) which is really a retelling or recapitulation. African writers and scholars have, however, sought to correct the picture and to demonstrate that their narrative traditions can boast as much charm as anything found in modern narrative. One of the most notable nationalist ideologies of this century has been the philosophy of negritude, especially as propagated by the Senegalese Leopold Sedar Senghor in his poetry and essays. The aim of negritude was to project everything African – the color black, the physical features of the African and his environment, the humane quality of African culture etc. as beautiful and salutary. This movement, designed to put Africa in a good light at a time (in the 1940s and 1950s) when African nations were agitating for independent from European powers, was advertised mostly in the verse of the period by Francophone African poets such as Senghor, Birago Diop, David Diop and Bernard Dadie as well as Caribbean poets Leon Damas and Aime Cesaire. There were also works of prose narratives. One of the most outstanding of these prose works is the historian Djibril T. Niane’s edition of the legend of Soundjata, the thirteenth-century Malian king and emperor under the title *Soundjata ou l’epopee madingue* (1960) translated into English by G.D. Pickett as *Sundjata: An Epic of Old Mali* (1965) Okpewho: 1992:86.

Moreso, the emergence of a generation of African scholars from the 1950s and 1960s has added a sizeable crop to the harvest of material recorded in the field and analysed by people equipped both with fluency in the languages of composition and adequate critical apparatus to appreciate the productions thereby strengthening the argument for according appropriate recognition to oral literature (Osinowo, 2008:204).

Birago Diop

Birago Diop is a Senegalese writer. He was born in 1906 and he died in 1989. A Senegalese poet and story-teller, who recorded traditional oral folktales of the Wolof people. Birago Diop’s works helped to reestablish general interest in the African folktales published in European Languages. He was one of the most prominent francophone writers. Diop’s father died prematurely and he grew up with his mother’s side of the family. In his childhood days he heard stories told by his family’s griot which he later used in his own literary work. Diop attended a Quranic school and in 1921 he moved to Saint Louis, then the capital of Senegal where he studied on a scholarship at Lycee Faidherbe and wrote his first poems. After obtaining his baccalaureat and serving a year in the colonial army. Diop went to France to study veterinary medicine at the University of Toulouse in Paris. Diop met many African, Black American and Caribbean students such as Leon Damas and Aime Cesaire.

Among them was his fellow countryman and poet Leopold Sedar Senghor who later became the first president of independent Senegal. Diop participated actively in the Negritude movement created by these young poets’ artists and intellectuals, the concept of negritude was elaborated by Aime cesaire. Senghor and Leon-Gontran Damas and defined as *l’affirmation* “that one is black and proud of it”. Diop contributed to Leopold Sedar Senghor’s newspaper *L’Etudiant noir* and several Diop’s early poems appeared in 1948 in Senghor’s famous *Anthologie de la nouvelle poesie negre et malgache* an important landmark of modern black writing in French.

Diop graduated in 1933 and completed his studies in Paris. In 1936 he married a white French woman; such marriages were rare in those days. Diop returned to Senegal in 1934.

Characteristics of oral literature

Oral Literature is by definition dependent on a performer who formulates it in words on a specific occasion. The key feature of oral literature is its oral realization. It is a performing art, closer in nature to drama and music than to written literature. It has to be held to be appreciated. It is not the composition itself that is important but the performance. Its communication, its rendition is the essence of its existence. In fact, it exists only in and through its transmission. In oral literature the medium of communication is sound; that is words alive with all the properties of stress, tone, pause, rhythm, etc.

The performance of oral literature offers the poet or raconteur the opportunity of incorporating several art forms to enrich his performance. The artist supports the verbal text with non-verbal arts. Costumes and masks, mime and movement, gestures and facial expressions, the emotional situation of the setting, modulation of tone and vocal expressiveness, even music accompaniment, are all freely exploited by the skillful artist to enhance his performance. These critical resources are invariably omitted in a textual transcript. Another significant characteristic of oral literature is that it is usually a communal activity in which the performer is face to face with his audience. The presence of the audience affects the performance. The audience contributes to setting the mood and atmosphere and this in turn affects the tone of the performance.

The most endearing quality of oral literature is its fluid nature, combining the rigidity of form with the freedom of embroidery. The performer is always creating: spontaneity, freshness and variability are the hallmarks of this process with its almost limitless scope to surprise and delight. The material in oral literature grows with each telling, it changes, is protean in nature, metamorphosing into variants and mutants.

The role of the individual artist is an important one. He is no mere carrier of tradition. He recreates and energises it. He contributes to the tradition through innovations, variations, improvisations, revisions and skillful reordering of diction and syntax. The variation takes several forms, the use of humor, the force of the artist's character, his charisma, his linguistic ability, his dramatic skills, inventiveness, rhetorical and oratorical flourishes – all these contribute to the making of new compositions from antique material.

In oral literature, known authorship is a rarity. Individual performers do not usually claim credit of composition when they are transmitting traditional literature. Therefore, oral literature constitutes an important element of Black and African historical and cultural identity. The peculiarities of African cultural diversity, its identity and continuity through time, underline the inherent potential of Africa's cultural resources.

African Folktales

African folktales are popular stories that were originally passed on to people in a spoken form. The existence of stories in Africa is widely known and well accepted by the Africans. Folktale is

an oral prose narrative that is handed down through generations from the past. The folktale is an imaginative narrative (story) in prose form. The story that constitutes a folktale may have a basis in real life but generally the story is an imaginative recreation of a memorable experience that is intended essentially to entertain rather than to record history or social experience. A folktale may be believed. Generally, however, they are considered to be untrue stories and hence not object of serious belief (Akporobaro, 2006:46).

Folktale is a traditional story which is told for entertainment as a literary genre, it embraces a range of narratives that varies from explanatory stories, fairy tales to humanistic stories. It is not bound up with particular annual ritual or specific occasion. It can be narrated by men, women, or children depending on the society. It is told usually in the evening after the day's work. Stories are told either during moonlight or even in a dark night provided people are gathered together to tell stories. Folktale is false story which is not meant to be believed but to entertain by their artistic force. It is intended to illuminate the moral nature of man, therefore it is didactic in nature but it has some dramatic qualities. It is creatively organized and rich in imaginative literary devices. The thematic interests of folktales are of various kinds. Some are about animals such as tortoise, the spider, elephant, the hare or fox while some stories are about human beings. The themes of these stories could be hatred, love, jealousy, anger, evil fate, wickedness, etc.

Folktales can be classified in different ways because of the great variety of interests which they present. They may be classified in terms of their themes or character, comic, humorous or tragic qualities. Moreover, the African story teller does not just introduce his story anyhow, but with a set formulaic statement or phrase which his audience knows and recognises to be the formal opening of a folktale. For example, in Nigeria, among the Yoruba people, a story teller introduces his story by saying in a loud dramatic voice.

“Aloooo – Alo o
Aloo mi da firigbagbo
lori Ijapa ati Yannibo”

These phrases may be repeated after which the story teller, if he is a gifted raconteur may introduce proverbs, riddles or another set of conventional phrases, designed to amuse his audience. The opening also creates an atmosphere of conviviality, expectation and emotional relief. It also emphasize that story telling is a communal activity that brings the people together, making them forget their sorrows and to realize their common cultural identity.

The musical interlude – as an exciting story proceeds, the audience participates explicitly or implicitly in a number of ways, through exclamation or laughter as they respond to the action and behavior of the characters. One of the more usual ways in which they show their participation is the introduction of a song. If the story is exciting, and the audience has not yet introduced a song as part of his narration, the audience will introduce one to promote the enjoyment and excitement of the story. An example of this song that is usually sung in one of Yoruba folktales of Western part of Nigeria goes thus:

Song	Response
Aja duro ranmi leru	Ferekufe
Bi o ba duro ranmi leru	Ferekufe
Ma kigbe oloko a gbo	Ferekufe
A gbo o a gbe wa de	Ferekufe
A gbe wa de a gba wa nisu	Ferekufe

In many African societies, the folktale is usually ended in concluding statements. It could be explanatory statement or didactic in form. Sometimes, the story teller may end his story by saying “this is why the back of the tortoise has scars.”

Narrative Process and Form

Story telling is a creative process. It is an exercise that demands the continuous invention of exciting and highly memorable experiences, situations and characters. The main objective of the narration is not merely to teach morals, to educate the audience about cultural norms. Narration is often primarily intended to create suspense, to generate an imaginatively enthralling experience through which the narrator seeks to stimulate the emotions and imagination of his audience. In this respect, he communicates the value of his society artistically, in aesthetic form in which feelings, art and value are creatively blended. A storyteller is never without a direction and purpose; therefore, all various incidents such as characterization and action are carefully tailored to a common end.

The principle of Retributive Justice says the wicked characters in folktales never go scot free. For example, the tortoise, the fox and hare are often victims of their evil schemes. They become the laughing stock for the audience. The folktale becomes a moral force that aesthetically directs the consciousness of the community towards the lore and cultivation of what is good and desirable.

Contes d’Ahmadou Koumba

Birago Diop’s tales approach is strictly literary and mythopoetical i.e. a reading of the tales in the sense of myths and poetics. In the foreword Diop indicates that he is not the author of the Tales of Ahmadou Koumba and that Ahmadou Koumba is the author, but oral literature can be taken as a collective property whereas its written transcription makes it the result of an individual performance. The author belongs from the inception to the whole work and nobody can refute it. The statement that he is not the author can be interpreted as a literary and stylistic devise. Diop is honest and humble when he hides himself behind Amadou Koumba. Thanks to this rhetoric of modesty he recurses to griot Koumba, which is a mark of intellectual honesty and helps him to share a part of responsibility for the content.

“Fari L’anesse”.... Fari the Donkey

Threatened by drought in their land, Queen Fari and her courtesans go to search for better and more fertile lands. They arrived at the kingdom of N’Guer, a kingdom of men only. They transformed themselves from donkeys to women and settle in their host country. King Bour married Queen Fari whereas the other men got married to her courtesans. After a short time the women were homesick and they took permission go to have their bathe in the lake, there, they became donkeys with the rhythm of song:

Fari hi Fari han!
Fari hi Fari han!
Fari is a donkey! Diop. 16

But one day, Narr, the aid of king Bour saw them when they transformed to donkeys and revealed their secret to Bour. The following night, when the musician griot Diali executed the

song he learnt from Narr: Fari hi Fari is a donkey! Fari and all the women became donkeys again. This tale is narrated during a trip towards South Sudan. Ahmadou Koumba explained to the narrator why one should not pity donkeys when they suffer under the load of heavy burden of burning sun. According to him, they are responsible for their fate. Therefore, the story “Fari the Donkey” showed the origin of their fatal fault. Birago Diop uses the opportunity to present his griot’s oratory technique.

“Fari the Donkey” illustrated a myth of metamorphosis, the myth of the soul’s migration: the transformation of a human being into an animal and at the same time of a woman into a donkey. On the other hand, a donkey carried in that part of the world some negative connotations: clumsiness, carelessness, untruthfulness, dishonesty. The donkey faces man’s exploitation and as soon as king Bour discovered his secret code of transformation, he acted fast and their secret acts were revealed.

The magical song Fari hi! Fari han! Possesses a powerful power of transforming a woman into a donkey. It is the irresistible key, which regulates, veils and unveils the donkey status of the woman. In this marvelous world of magic, Fari and her followers mastered the song which transformed them into donkeys, therefore, anyone who sings this particular song automatically master and manipulate them as they please. The recourse to the donkey helps to explain how the man has succeeded in ensuring his supremacy over the woman. This tale is a confirmation of the biblical story of the Genesis ... of Eve’s fault which has brought the mankind to sin and also a consecration of the immense power held by the man over the woman.

Moral lessons in the tale

This folktale teaches an African child to be honest and truthful in all their dealings. In the first instance queen Fari didn’t open up for King Bour that she was a donkey and her courtesans, it was when they were homesick and transformed themselves into donkeys that king’s aid got to know their secrets. A tale transmission always requires a certain extent of wisdom likewise African child must be wise and not sluggish in their day-to-day affairs because “a stitch in time saves nine”. African child should avoid clumsiness. Queen Fari’s clumsiness made the king’s aid to discover her secret. A Yoruba proverb in Nigeria says “Aijafara o lewu” i.e. clumsiness brings about danger and a French proverb says “Il faut battre le fer pendant qu’il est chaud” i.e. strike while the iron is hot”.

Mamelles

Another story narrated by Birago Diop in his series of African folktales is “Mamelles.” Khary was hunchbacked; she was ashamed to go out. She was a bad and angry wife. “She could have filled ten calabashes with her jealousy and thrown them in a well, and still have ten times ten goatskins full in the depths of her evil heart” (Diop:88). She never brought food to her husband in the field for this reason Momar decided to marry a second wife, Koumba. Although she was also hunchback, Koumba was a very happy woman, heartfelt and generous, she took food to her husband in the field. One day, a woman appeared to her with long white hair, who wanted to help her get rid of her hunch, she ordered her to participate in Friday of the upcoming moon in the dance of the girl – spirits at N’Guew Hill. She would have to take off her hunch and give it to her neighbor “... “Here, hold the baby I have on my back; it is my turn to dance” (Diop 91). All happened as planned. When Khary noticed that Koumba has no bump anymore, she also wished

to get rid of hers, unfortunately, she did not succeed. The worse happened, her neighbor whom she gave her child to gave her back the “child” and when all the girls disappeared, Khary has no other solution but to throw herself in the sea. “It is the two humps of Khary that have become the Mamelles” (Diop :93)

“Mamelles form today the two hills of Cap Verde one can see from Senegal. In fact, it is about the formation of mountains. This tale spreads a science like geology which explains the origin of the universe and nature and describes their evolution throughout the times. In a society without writing, this story exactly amounts to a school lesson. Nature and mankind are so linked that one can represent the one by the other and vice-versa through personification or metaphor. The oral narration teaches young people and reminds older people of the kind of the world in which they live, what hides behind what they see or experience in nature. In order to understand this fundamental knowledge one can think of the Greek myths of Chronos, Rhea or Atlas. “Mamelles” form an allegory of the antithetical fight between Good and the Bad. Throughout the ages ethics and wisdom forge human behavior. The roles of women in this tale are not to be exaggerated but an educative perspective to develop a positive view in the fight against the destiny. The story is all about two women with different destiny of whom one was good and the other was bad. Both of them reaped the fruits of their labour.

Moral Lessons in the Tale

This story teaches an African child to be kind and generous to people. Koumba reaped the fruits of her good behavior when the spirit world delivered her of shame of bunch back. It teaches African child that human being is physical and spirit made. The spirit world has access on one’s life than physical, one must be careful of one’s deeds. Khary could not return home because of shame. She had to drown herself “misfortunes never come singly”. Les Mamelles recounts a story that represents a special interest because of the way a natural and historical phenomenon function in a conte. The two natural phenomena i.e. the mamelles are two very modest “mountains” in Senegal, they are the humps formerly on the backs of Khary and Koumba, the two hunch-backed wives of Momar. On account of her bad character, Khary, in addition to her own, earned the co-wife’s hump. She drowned herself in the sea, but the waters, unwilling to bury her completely exposed the two humps.

N’Gor Niebe

“Donne ton amour a la femme, mais non ta confiance” Diop:45

N’Gor Sene has never eaten beans in his life time and he did not wish to do so. He is called N’Gor Niebe because people are amazed that he has never wanted to change his mind. Some friends pushed his girlfriend N’Dene to convince him to eat beans. She prepared the beans as planned and woke him up to eat the beans, then N’Gor threw this question at her:

N’Dene, il est dans Diakhaw une personne a qui tu donnerais ton nez pour qu’elle vive si elle venait a perdre le sien, une personne dont le Coeur et le tien ne font qu’un, une amie pour laquelle tu n’as aucum secret, une seule personne a qui tu te confies sincerement?

Qui: fit N’Dene

Qui est-ce?

C’est Thioro

Va la chercher. Diop:44

When she called Thioro, she gave the name of N’Gone to the same question. N’Gone in her turn mentions the name of Djegane. So, the entire village would finally know that N’Gor Niebe has eaten beans. The morality in this story is that give your love to the woman but not your confidence. The story shows clearly that women don’t keep secrets for a long time. The man sticks to his decisions whereas a woman is unpredictable. This is exactly as in the book of Genesis when eve pushed Adam to sin. The moral lesson of this tale is loyalty in a human relationship. Dignity is important in human’s life, let your Yes be Yes and your No be No. African child should learn to keep secrets. Secrets told must not be revealed as demanded by the owner.

Une Commission

Mor Lame would like to eat his bone all alone, whereas the bone is cooked in the family pot. His brother Moussa came to visit and he decided not to leave until he tasted the bone. Mor Lame decided to feign death yet Moussa refused to leave. Mor Lame state worsened but he made up his mind to die than to share his bone with anybody. Awa willed to save the life of her husband begged him to change his mind, he refused and it was even too late for him to change his mind, death has knocked on his door. Moussa, his brother was very happy that his brother died asked Awa the widow to bring out the bone so that they could eat it once and for all.

“Serigne dit-elle, mon mari m’avait recommande de reciter sur son cadavre une sourate qu’il m’avait apprise pour que Dieu ait pitie de lui”

Le Maraboit et sa suite se retirerent. Alors Awa se penchant sur l’oreille de son epoux:

Mor! Leve-toi! On va t’ensevelir et t’enterrer si tu continues a faire le mort.

Ou est l’os? S’enquit le cadavre de Mor Lame.

il est la-bas

S’est-il amolli?

Oui.

Et Moussa?

Il est toujours la

Ou on m’ensevelisse! Decida Mor Lame.

Ainsi fut fait.

This tale teaches an African child not to be too stubborn but be considerate with the issues of life. Mor Lame was arrogant and his pride pushed him to early grave. His extreme self-esteem wasted his life. The impression is that Mor Lame would have lost his honour if he had ever stopped feigning the dead. But it was much better for him to live without honour than to go to his early grave and he left behind the wife and his children. Then Moussa his brother who was reigning as a master over the house of the late Mor Lame would wished him safe journey as the Yoruba proverb says (A tunkutuku re lona orun) wishing him safe journey to great beyond.

A mythical explanation of this tale is that Mor died because he acted against the tradition of solidarity and communal living of African people. You must be your brother’s keeper. In the old African tradition everything would equitably belong to all brothers and sisters. Death sentence could be implemented against someone who breached the community laws.

Little Husband

When the hunter samba died, a struggle arose between N'Diongane his son and Khary his daughter because Khary decided to call N'Diongane Little Husband, Koumba, Samba's widow is unable to stop the obsessive passion of her daughter. Stubborn, she always sings again and again "Je le dis et le redis: Petit-mari. Petit mari (Diop:117). Her brother didn't like the name. N'Diongane warned his mother but nothing changed. He knew their intention that he would soon be circumcised, a very painful exercise that would change his status from little husband to head of the family. N'Diogane was avoiding responsibilities. In response the mother ordered her son to come back home but he refused.

"N'Diongane reviens/N'Diongane cheri reviens! Que ta soeur ne t'exile pas, N'Diongane reviens" p.121-122

An interminable quarrel took place until the day when N'Diongane disappeared into the sea and Koumba killed Khary. In this dramatic tale, Khary transposed her love for her late father on her still living brother and would like to share this discovery with her mother. The multiform conflict between the mother and the daughter did not stop until the death of different family members. The mother lost her husband, her daughter considered her brother as the husband who became the centre of the conflict. The brother rejected his sister's disguised love and the mother was unable to help them. Such behavior is incest in the tradition of African peoples. The procedure determined who loved the only man most between the sister and mother. It is unheard of in African tradition that a brother got married to his sister or vice versa. The girl became totally upset, foolish, she lost her sense of reasoning. What the tale teaches an African child is that one needs a balance in life that even the death of the father should not disturb the family unity but reinforce it. African family is built on respect, dignity, serenity and mutual tolerance.

The Inheritance

After the death of Old Samba, the elders of the village suggested that the wisest man of the world Kem Tanne talked to the three heirs because nobody in the village was able to do so. Moussa the youngest received gold in his leather bag. Momar the oldest was left with nothing but sand and Birama got ends of rope. On their way to Kem Tannes' village, the three brothers met first M'Bam the wild boar, then a very fat stier in a desert area, a very skinny cow in a beautiful meadow, a very fat cow at a place where there is scarcely food and drink. About the skinny cow, Kem Tanne says "Telle est dit Kem Tanne, la mauvaise epouse, la mechante femme au milieu des richesses de son mari " (Diop:161). So is the bad wife, the nasty woman amid the wealth of her husband. About the fatstier, he says ... "Telle est la femme au grand coeur, la bonne epouse, la mere genereuse" les biens de sa maison peuvent etre minimizes: elle en est satisfaite et donne sa part a qui franchit le seuil de sa demeure (Diop:160).

Only the experience men are able to explain the nobility and the beauty of the nature. All the events described here consist of some aspects of the symbolic world. There exists a pattern of wisdom narrated by the eldest. The figure of the old woman remained in the background. In many tales, she acted as a counselor, helper and giver of lessons. The old lady is respected and positively valued because of her age and ascendance. Her presence in African tale symbolized assurance and security. In "Mammelles" she was the comforter who showed Koumba how to get rid of her hunchback. In the "Inheritance" when the old woman met the three brothers, she

showed them Kem Tanne's property. Actually, the old lady received the same consideration as the old man.

This tale teaches African child that "l'Union fait la force". Unity is strength. This study enjoins the African child to be in unity with one another and wherever they may be in the whole world, they should learn to speak with one voice. A tale functions like the sign of world vision. It is never gratis. It possesses its own ideology. It underpins knowledge, a doctrine and spreads a new way of looking at the world. For every tale there exists a counter tale which can justify the contrary. It has been reproached to Birago Diop and other figures of negritude to be patriarchal, to have relegated the place of the woman to the background and to be traditionally conservative.

African Folktales, Educational and Moral Development of the African Child.

Folktales are popular stories ingrained in people's minds memories which are centuries old and testify to a core of truth handed down orally from generation to generation. Themes of folktales range from the creation, people's relationship with the universe, marriage, family and human relationship with animals. Tales are important because they give useful insights into psychological understanding of the communities that produced them; they are a manifestation of the human condition and human imagination and much of modern literature and thinking is based on them. The art of story-telling is such an important aspect of African life that most societies have animal characters as the designated teller of tales. Among the Akan in West Africa the traditional story teller is Anansi the spider and among the Zulu in South Africa is Fudukazi the Tortoise.

The African folktale is glued to the creation of a single impact impression or effect on the audience, it usually concentrates on the exploitation of an action of small compass and it places premium on didacticism and it could sometimes be through entertainment. Early missionaries saw African tale as avenues of inculcating Christian ideals into people without shocking them excessively.

Chinua Achebe, though dead was the author of *Things Fall Apart* wrote four children books, namely "*Chike and the River*" (1966). *How the Leopard Got His Claws* (1972) *The Flute* (1977) and *The Drum* (1977) because he realized that many African authors do not write children literature and these African children were still tied to foreign literature whose stilted imagery, bizarre backgrounds, content, reference points and messages were alien to the African society. Chinua Achebe a crusader against all vestiges of colonialism fully realized that African independence was decolonized and the place to focus on was the young mind. His writing for children was aimed at passing on to the younger generation refined values that would ensure social, moral, economic and intellectual growth and stability.

African folktale is essential in the cultural and intellectual development of any nation more so African countries with high illiteracy rates is an indispensable tool for the inculcation of the reading habit and permanent literacy in the citizenry. Chinua Achebe had fully realized that in the past oral literature was designed for instruction, aesthetic pleasure, culture-preservation and self actualization. Achebe, the skilled and conscious artist, knew also that traditional folktales could be recreated, modified or expanded to communicate contemporary and immediate ideas, lasting thoughts and urgent concerns (Emenyonu: 2000:241).

However, The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 7th edition defines "Education" as "a process of teaching, training and learning especially in schools or colleges, to improve knowledge and develop skills" A person may be termed "educated" in a particular field or calling but yet remain "uneducated" in another.

If you are planning for a year, sow rice. If you are planning for a decade, plant trees. If you planning for a lifetime educate a person.

- A Chinese proverb.

The future of the world belongs to the educated races. Churchill

These proverbs above are referring to African child. It is the primary duty of the parent to train a child they voluntarily brought into this world. It is immoral and irresponsible and probably sinful for any parent to think that its only obligation is to breed a child and donate it to the government to maintain, to train and to educate. Therefore, all said I advocate strongly that everyone must seek education well and sound. University education whether in Nigeria or overseas is expensive but it is a worthy investment. If you think education is expensive, you may try ignorance (Afe Bablola 2009:42).

Value of Education

"The first and fairest thing that the best of men can ever have is education". Also "education is a companion which no misfortune can depress, no crime can destroy, no enemy can alienate, no despotism can enslave" (Ajibade, 1990:63).

Education should equip individuals to be able to participate in social processes, directing, defending and enhancing the quality change. Education practices should develop natural abilities not to restrain them. It should undergo transformation which will equip African child with the skills and attitudes that will enable us address changing social and political processes that confront the African society. This is the only way we can remove the stigma Africa the Dark Continent.

Moral Development

According to Omoregbe (1993:147) the most important aspect of the development of any country is indisputably the development of human personality. In other words, this constitutes its country because moral maturity is mark of human development and it is most important aspect of national development. Indeed, it is condition-sine-qua-non for national development. This implicitly implies that we cannot talk of the development of a country if its citizens are morally undeveloped and immature.

African Folktale as an instrument for Moral Development

Folktale is an important aspect of a people's culture that can be used to bring about moral development in the society Africa today is caught in the web of moral catharsis and confusion which have reduced the conditions of life and standard of living of her people, not to talk the bad impressions people generally hold about the continent. African youths are the main victims of deleterious social orders. Respected and respectable role models and scholars are few. Moreover, the youths inherit a culture of shallowness, diabolism and violence. So ill-motivated, the idle youthful mind that should have regaled and refined itself on good books turns to cultism and the occult for excitement. A society that allows is youthful mind to be converted into the devil's

workshop is doomed and has no decent future to talk about. Eyitayo Aloh, writing on “issues on World Bank and Copyright Day” quotes Nigerian author Phebean Ogundipe as saying. A mind that does not read is a dead mind and a life without books is not worth living. Aloh 2004:14. There is a missing reading culture in Africa. The older African generation lost it while the young Africans never had it.

One way to remedy this situation is to make use of moral lessons in African folktales in advocating the dangers involved in living immoral and a moral lives and advancing the course of moral uprightness in African societies. Most of the traditional folk communication media which are well presented in music, musical instruments and songs, recitals, proverbs, rituals, incantations, sacrifices, masquerades, festivals, drama and age grade activities are veritable resource that can be richly exploited for the accomplishment of this task. It is imperative to stress that moral development is one key ingredient to an African child and African continent transformation and it is often argued that a morally bankrupt nation is a sick nation. In traditional African societies, most stories are told not only to entertain the listeners, but also to warn them of the consequences of engaging in bad actions. Jean Pliya was one of Republic of Benin’s best known literary figures. He has published several collections of short stories such as La Fille Tetue and Kondo le requin. Most of his stories educate the young ones. For example what are the end result of stubbornness, arrogance, laziness and other terrible vices which can be found in his stories. To him some may lead to death as we have in L’Arbre Fetiche de Jean Pliya. The death of Dissou who cut down the dreadful Iroko tree should serve as a lesson to younger generation that traditional tress could not be caught anyhow. Some required rituals or prayers before they can cut them. Moreover, when such stories are told, they are told from a moral angle, especially telling the listeners to avoid engaging in such vices as stealing, quarrelling, fighting, prostitution, lying, etc. When moral is injected into folktale experience, an individual is expected to accept the legal or moral maxim of his society, if he does not, he will have to suffer sooner or later.

Conclusion

Having discussed extensively on Birago Diop’s Educational Development on African child, it is very important to note that Africans must go back to the source “Retourner aux sources” African folktales should be encouraged in various homes/school curriculum. Parents should endeavor to tell stories to their children and the moral aspect of the story. These facts point to the fact that African folktale is an intrinsic part of the society and it is a veritable resource of cultural identity.

African child had learnt much European culture, in fact, he had more than necessary, this study is now imploring parents to instill in their children African culture. They need to know more African folktales and their morals.

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Examining the speaking skill in English language in secondary schools in Kenya

By

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Abstract

The eighth Millennium Development Goal is to develop a global partnership for development. This calls for competence in one's usage of communication skills and more particularly the speaking ability in English language. English is the language used in a lot of interactions internationally. The ultimate aim of teaching English in Kenya is to equip learners to communicate with other speakers of English using both oral and written English language. This paper mainly focuses on the importance of language in enhancing development, particularly based on the nature of English language the secondary school learners are exposed to and the examination process they undergo at the end of the course. The ideas presented here are based on a study which was conducted to investigate the use of written tests in examining the speaking skill in English language in secondary schools in Kenya. This practice is contrary to the recommendation by the current secondary school English syllabus that an oral test be used. One of the objectives of the study informs the bulk of the arguments advanced in the paper. The objective was to determine whether there is any relationship between scores attained in two tests—a written test and an oral one of five speaking sub skills. It was a quantitative study which used a correlation research design. This enabled the researcher to assess the degree of relationship between the scores attained from the two tests. The outcome assisted in establishing the adequacy of the written tests currently used in the assessment of oral skills. Purposive, stratified and simple random sampling procedures were used to select the twelve schools and 360 form four students who participated in the study. The research instruments used were two achievement tests— one written and the other oral. Inferential statistics were also used namely Pearson's product moment correlation to analyze the degree of relationship between the variables. The study found out that there was generally a high positive correlation between the scores of the two tests. However of great concern were occurrences of outlier values. These were values which deviated significantly from the general pattern. It became apparent that a good number of people cannot communicate effectively in spoken English. These findings should guide the testing of the speaking skill. They should be significant to the Ministry of Education, Kenya National Examinations Council and teachers of English.

Key words; Speaking skill, written test, oral test, speaking proficiency

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Sophia A Oriwo, L. P Barasa, Carolyne Omulando(2013). Examining the speaking skill in English language in secondary schools in Kenya. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) and targets, to which Kenya was a signatory, come from the Millennium Declaration signed by 189 countries, including 147 Heads of State, in September 2000. . The goals and targets are inter-related and should be seen as a whole. They represent a partnership between the developed countries and the developing countries determined, as the Declaration states, “to create an environment– at the national and global levels alike – which is conducive to development and the elimination of poverty. One of the targets under the eighth goal is to cooperate with the private sector to make available the benefits of new technologies especially information and communication. There are several indicators for monitoring progress in this but one which relates directly to communication is telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 populations. The implication is a call for competence in ones usage of communication skills and more particularly the speaking ability in English language; English being one of the most important languages in the world. It is the language used in a lot of interactions internationally. The ultimate aim of teaching English in many parts of the world is to equip learners to communicate with other speakers of English using both oral and written English language.

The Kenyan education system has a number of goals. The seventh goal which sets to promote international consciousness and fostering positive attitudes towards other nations blends so well with the millennium goal stated above. Kenya is part of the international community. It is part of the complicated and interdependent network of peoples and nations. Education should therefore lead the youth of the country to accept membership of this international community with all the obligations, responsibilities, rights and benefits that this membership entails (KIE, 2002).At the national level, one of the objectives of secondary education is to provide the learner with opportunities to acquire necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for the development of the self and the nation. Indeed, if a country is to develop, effort must be put into the development of individuals which culminates into nationwide development.

In the secondary school curriculum, English language is a compulsory subject divided into four skills namely: listening, speaking, reading and writing and grammar At the end of the four-year secondary course, tertiary institutions as well the universities demand a pass in English as a major requirement for admission. The current English syllabus (KIE, 2002) has elevated the status of listening and speaking skills, and seeks to correct the imbalance that has been evident in the treatment of the two skills. In the past, undue emphasis has been laid on only the literacy skills-reading and writing at the expense of oracy- listening and speaking. This syllabus states that:

listening and speaking skills play a primary role in the social and academic life of a person. One who listens effectively is able to respond to information appropriately. These two skills also contribute significantly to the development of reading and writing skills. In addition, one who has mastered these skills is likely to create favorable impression of them. (KIE 2002:4)

The study who’s finding from the bulk of the report in this paper was based on the current testing of the speaking skill by the Kenya National Examinations Council. An understanding of some the general objectives of teaching speaking at the secondary school level as stated by the Kenya Institute of Education (ibid) would be necessary. It is stated that by the end of the course, the learner should be able to:

- a) Communicate correctly, confidently and appropriately in different contexts
- b) Respond correctly to oral information on a variety of subjects
- c) Demonstrate acceptable communication skills
- d) Demonstrate the ability to use correct register in different contexts
- e) Present oral reports on literary and non-literary topics

Currently, the Kenya National Examinations Council examines English language in three papers 101/1, 101/2 and 101/3. Paper 101/1, which tests functional skills, has three questions:

Question 1- Functional writing

Question 2- Cloze test

Question 3- Oral skills

The speaking skill is tested as part of the oral skills in paper 101/ 1 question 3. The syllabus recommends that the students sit for an oral examination at the end of form four; however, this is not the mode of testing currently. Oral skills are tested in writing. The essence of this study was to establish whether the written examination currently used in the evaluation of oral skills yields results adequate enough to ascertain oral competence of students.

Statement of the problem

Speaking is central in life. This is a fact that cannot be over emphasized. The ability to speak English accurately and fluently is a valued skill particularly in an education system in which English language is the medium of communication. More importantly, the products of the education system should meet the international thresholds. Further, speaking as a skill is used more than writing in the day-to-day communication.

Effective and accurate speaking in English involves appropriate pronunciation, stress and intonation, rhythm, etiquette, interpretive reading and delivery of written speeches among others. This factor formed the thrust of this investigation and it is even more critical when speaking is done in a second language. In Kenyan secondary schools, majority of the students are second language (L2) speakers of English language. Many of these students come from cultures that depend more on oral mode of communication as opposed to writing. As a result of this, one would expect them to be more proficient in oral communication. On the contrary, this is not the case. Speaking in English has posed so many challenges. This is because language involves culture. The learners have to adapt to a new language culture; how it is used socially in all spheres of life.

English being a second language to most Kenyans, majority have problems in listening and speaking (KIE, 2002: 7) The unique problems the learners have arisen from the wrong forms of spoken English which have become institutionalized in society. The wrong forms result from influence from mother tongue and/or the first language. It has been observed that most school leavers, university graduates, practicing teachers of English and those of other subjects do not speak English fluently, accurately and appropriately. This fact has been expressed by a number of scholars, educators, government officials, employers, politicians and journalists (Ong'ondo and Barasa 2006:181). This study suggests that the use of spoken English can only be promoted

in schools by incorporating an oral test into the overall testing requirements. This can be a valuable additional means of improving oral abilities.

Lee (1991:342) identifies tests as the driving force behind learning. This fact applies to the Kenyan situation as well. Many teaching and learning activities are geared towards excellence in national examinations. Given that the teaching approach used is Communicative Language Teaching, the researcher is in agreement with Lee that the tests in a communicative syllabus should be adjusted to be more communicative and to incorporate evaluation of oral abilities.

A number of pitfalls have been identified in the testing practices even with the revised curriculum (KNEC English paper 1- 2006 to date). The tests used to evaluate speaking are new and purport to address the objectives for the teaching of speaking but are in fact almost similar in design and therefore effect to those, which they replace. The course content is truly communicative and oral oriented but the tests particularly for speaking and even listening are as they have been. This is unfair to students who study according to one set of parameters during class time while preparing for a test based on differing principles. If the aim of teaching speaking is to promote oral skills in the target language, then it seems reasonable that this ability should be at the heart of the testing. Such tests will definitely conform to the learning goals set for the students and taught in the learning programme. The tests would also have a positive wash back effect on the whole English course for oral skills in general and speaking in particular. Failing to test oral production practically as observed by the researcher has resulted into inaccurate assessment of students and negative wash back effects on the teaching of oral skills. As such, it was necessary to ascertain through research whether indeed written tests are valid in assessing the speaking skill. A comparison of scores attained by individual candidates in written and oral examinations of the speaking sub- skills tested were used to establish the relationship between the two sets of scores and therefore the extent to which the current written mode of testing used is a valid measurement and an accurate way of establishing speaking proficiency of users of English language at the secondary school level.

Objective

The study had a number of objectives but for the purposes of this paper, only one was picked. This objective was to determine whether there is a relationship between scores of a written test and those of an oral test of speaking sub- skills tested. In relation to this objective a hypothesis which stated that there is no relationship between scores attained in the written and the oral test of speaking sub- skills examined in the study was tested. The method used in the study is explained in the next section.

Method

The study used a quantitative research method specifically, the correlation design. This design analyses the correlation between two or more variables (Orodho, 2003). Correlation designs are used to collect more than one-piece information from one characteristic and then comparing how they vary (Oso and Onen 2005). Fraenkel and Wallen (2005) say that a correlation research seeks to investigate relationships among variables without trying to influence those variables. It describes the degree to which two or more quantitative variables are related by the use of a correlation co-efficient. The study involved collection of two sets of measurements and

computation of the coefficient of correlation between these two sets of measurements to determine the magnitude of relationship.

Population and setting

The study was carried out among form four students in secondary schools within Eldoret Municipality. Eldoret is a cosmopolitan town found in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya. It has mixed cosmopolitan student population and also different types of secondary schools – private/public, boarding/day, single/mixed sex, all at national, provincial and district categories. The varied categories of schools in the study area provided adequate representation of the general student population countrywide. The multi ethnic and multiracial composition typical of cosmopolitan towns presented an advantage to the study in the sense that the sampled students were likely to be representative of the larger Kenyan student distribution in terms of the characteristics under study. Further, the form four students had had adequate coverage of the syllabus to comfortably participate in the study.

Sample

Records available at the Uasin Gishu District Education office (2009) indicated that the municipality had thirty- three (33) secondary schools. These were stratified into national, provincial, district and private schools. The only national school was purposively sampled. Stratified random sampling was then used to select two provincial schools, three district schools and six private schools. Using Kathuri and Pal (2000) formula for the required size for randomly chosen sample from a population, which is highly homogenous on the variable being studied, a sample of 360 participants was arrived at. In summary 12 schools and 360 students were involved in the study. Simple random sampling specifically the lottery method was used to select students to take part in the study.

Instrumentation and procedures

The data required for the attainment of the study objectives was collected using achievement tests. Koul (1992:138) reports that such tests have been constructed to measure present performance in relation to a skill or knowledge that has been acquired as a result of training. He continues to say that achievement tests are designed to measure an individual's quality of learning in a particular school subject or course of study at the end of instruction. This view is also expressed by Weir (1993). He says that the concern of such tests is to measure a student's competence with regard to what has been taught or what is in the syllabus. The content of the test should be a sample of what has been included in the syllabus.

The study used two types of tests:

1. A written test (response to written questions was in writing) which is the current mode used by KNEC.
2. An oral test (response to written and oral questions was oral), which was modeled in line with KCSE French oral examination. The rationale here was that the acquisition of French language as a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL) is not far removed from that of English.

The tests were criteria based and assessed whether the students possessed competence in the sub- skills of rendition of oral narratives, syllabic stress, intonation, contrastive stress and all the skills involved in conversation. The examiner or scorer would then identify the competence level and score accordingly. The tests were thus designated as tests for mastery in which the teaching of content is based on the concept that students are different primarily in the speed at which they learn rather than in the amount they can learn. Thus the amount is fixed for all learners but the rate is allowed to vary (ibid 1992). The syllabus takes care of the amount of content to be taught.

Accordingly, the researcher set certain criteria, which guided assessment of levels of performance. The mean scores attained in the overall marks of both tests as well as the means of the individual sub skills were categorized. The test items used in the study were both the objective (test items have only one correct answer) and the subjective type in which correctness is relative in the selection of tests for data collection, the evaluative criteria desirable for a good test i.e. validity, reliability and usability were considered.

For the scoring of the oral test, which was slightly subjective, two independent scorers (the researcher and an assistant – both trained Kenya National Examination Council KCSE examiners) were used. This was in line with Hughes (1989:42). The scoring for the oral test followed Hughes's propositions to the letter. A senior colleague coordinated all the score sheets. In cases of deviations, the scores were reconciled. The seemingly subjective scores gained objectivity after this process.

The two tests – were administered each on separate occasions. The scoring was in accordance to KNEC standards – KCSE English language paper 101/1, question 3 (oral skills). Teachers of English selected on the basis of being trained examiners assisted in marking. The marking scheme was coordinated before marking. The researcher co-coordinated ten percent of all the marked scripts. This minimized deviations. The marked scripts were then crosschecked to achieve high scorer reliability (Hughes, 1989:87). Coordination is also in line with proposition by Mehrens and Lehman (1984:116 & 228)

The researcher administered the oral test. The participants were prepared for the test in advance by being informed of the areas the oral test was based on. Each participant was tested individually for a period of 15 minutes. A rating scale was used in conjunction with a marking scheme for scoring. The approach used was borrowed from KCSE oral examination of the French subject.

Data Analysis Techniques

The scores for each test from the 360 participants were entered into separate mark sheets. During the entry of the written scores, a total of 19 incomplete scripts were considered unusable data and as such were eliminated. The data was quantitative- marks attained in the two tests. The remaining 341 sets of marks were subjected to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Stata computer programmes for analysis. Inferential statistics namely the Pearson's product moment correlation was used to establish the degree of association between the scores attained in the two tests. The t-test of correlated means was also used to measure the significance of the difference between the means of the two tests. Further, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) the f- test was used to compare the means and test the hypotheses.

Ethical considerations

The participants made an informed consent to take part in the study after a briefing before sitting for the tests. The major ethical issue in the study was privacy and confidentiality. The participants did not have to write their names on the question papers. Rather the papers were allocated random numbers that were marked for both tests. The same was the case for the participating schools to ensure anonymity. Confidentiality, on the other hand, was ensured by not exposing the data collected.

Results

The research objective presented in this paper sought to establish whether there is a relationship between the scores of the written test and those of the oral test of the speaking skills tested. This objective was achieved using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation test. The SPSS computer programme was used to find out the relationship between the variables under study. The degree of linear correlation is represented quantitatively by coefficient of correlation. Table 1 presents the correlation values between the overall marks of the written and the oral tests. There are also correlations among the various speaking skills items. The correlation value the overall scores is 0.910, which is a very strong positive degree of correlation. Further analysis of the various speaking skill items tested also revealed varied degrees of correlation. The highest degree of correlation was on the conversation item, which had a correlation of 0.82. This was followed by intonation with 0.79, syllabic stress 0.76, contrastive stress 0.66 and lastly rendition 0.60

Table 1. Correlation of scores: sub skills and overall marks for written and oral scores

	Rendition written	Rendition oral	Syllabic stress written	Syllabic stress oral	Intonation written	Intonation oral	Contrastive stress written	Contrastive stress oral	Conversion written	Conversion oral	Total written	Total oral
Rendition written	1.000											
Rendition oral	.802	1.000										
Syllabic stress written	.274	.324	1.000									
Syllabic stress oral	.235	.302	.758	1.000								
Intonation written	.063	.129	.098	.159	1.000							
Intonation oral	.125	.187	.138	.180	.785	1.000						
Contrastive stress written	.367	.387	.294	.296	.045	.091	1.000					
Contrastive stress oral	.331	.342	.349	.289	.116	.142	.663	1.000				
Conversion written	.347	.399	.284	.356	.187	.247	.220	.282	1.000			
Conversion oral	.418	.468	.378	.433	.224	.281	.307	.346	.820	1.000		
Total written	.707	.687	.672	.611	.335	.375	.536	.528	.732	.748	1.000	
Total oral	.625	.732	.564	.636	.356	.456	.487	.534	.710	.852	.910	1.000

A clearer illustration is presented using scatter diagrams. From the diagrams it was observed that the scores for the two modes of testing generally showed tendencies of high scores on one variable being accompanied by high scores on the other and low scores on one also accompanied by low scores on the other. Thus the variables came out as highly correlated even diagrammatically. It is evident pictorially that most of the scores cluster around the best-fit line.

Fig 1. Correlation of the total scores in the written and oral tests

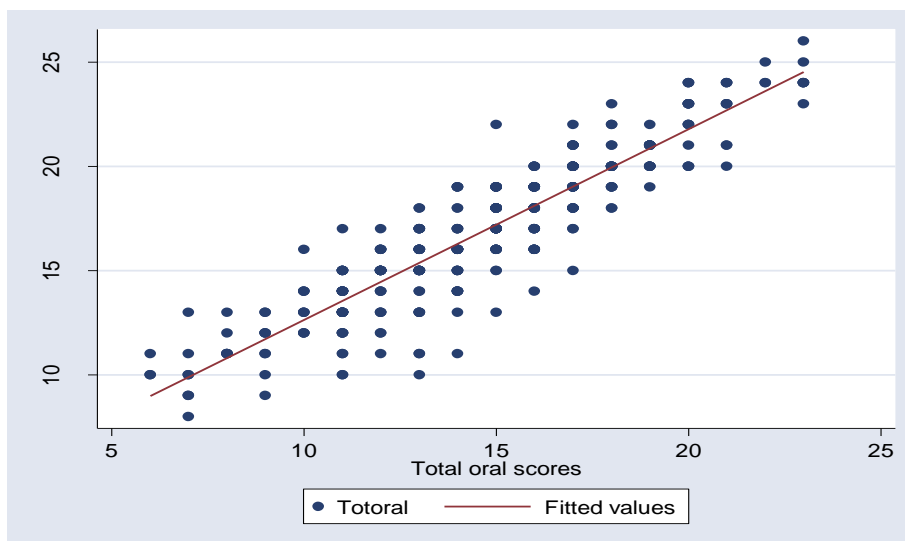
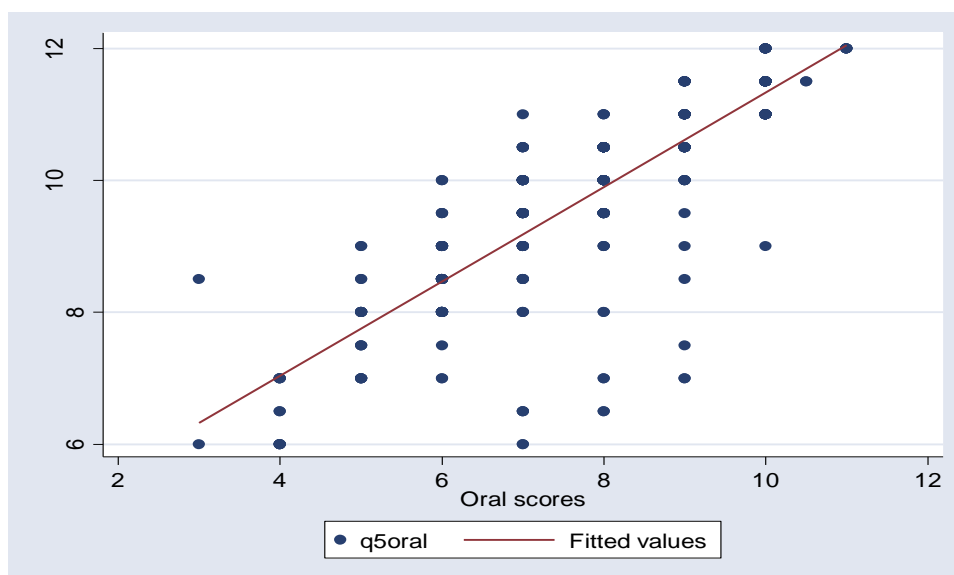


Figure 2. Correlation of scores in conversation: written and oral tests



However, it is worth mentioning that from the presentation in the scatter plots some outlier scores were noted. These needed careful consideration as special cases because they exhibited unusual exceptions to a general pattern. They were 49 cases out of 341(14.36%). Some of the outlier scores were as follows:

Written test
 23 (77%) A-
 22(73%) B+
 17 (57%) C+

Oral test
 18 (60%) B-
 15 (50%) C
 11 (37%) D

13 (43%) C-

07 (23%) E

The above score combinations reveal that there were some testees whose scores did not correlate as closely as the general pattern appeared. For example the pairs 23 out of 30 which translate to 77% grade A- and 18 out of 30 which is 60% grade B- also 22.

(73% B+) and 15 (50% C) have quite substantial grade differences. The scores are four grades apart. The same can also be seen in some of the average as well as the low scores mentioned above. 17(57% C+) and 11(37% D) are five grades apart.

The pattern in the conversation test item was singled out for more scrutiny. This was because the item had more verbal expression in both modes of testing compared to the other items. The item therefore offered adequate room for the study subjects to display their verbal abilities and competence. The general pattern of a high degree of correlation between the written and the oral test scores was displayed. The correlation value between the written and oral conversation scores was 0.82. However, there were a number of outlier values worth mentioning. The conversation test item was marked out of 12. There were subjects who registered scores that deviated strongly from the general pattern. A few cases to mention were:

Written	Oral
8.5 (71%)	03 (25%)
10 (83%)	06 (50%)
11 (92%)	07 (58%)

These score combinations were strong indicators that much as in the general there was a strong positive correlation between the scores, there were a number of entries that did not conform to this general pattern.

Hypothesis Testing

There is no relationship between the scores attained in the written test and those of the oral test.

To test this hypothesis the statistical significance of the magnitude of the relationship (the correlation coefficient) between the means of the two tests was computed using the SPSS computer programme. The mean of the written test was 16.9581 and that of the oral test was 14.7214. The correlation coefficient was $r = +0.910$. The P value was 0.000, which was less than the significance level of 0.05. The null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that there was evidence of an actual relationship between the written and oral test scores. It was a strong positive relationship.

Discussion

Analysis the objective as well as the hypothesis testing revealed that there was a strong positive correlation between the scores of the written production and those of the oral production of the speaking sub skills tested. There was a correlation value of $r = 0.910$ between the total scores of the two modes of testing. The correlation values between the written and the oral production scores of the various sub skills also had high positive correlation values. Rendition had $r = 0.802$, syllabic stress $r = 0.758$, intonation $r = 0.785$, contrastive stress $r = 0.663$ and conversation $r = 0.820$. In non-numerical language the figures mean that scores of an individual in one type of test can be used to predict their score in the other test. One who scores highly in the written test is likely to score equally highly in the oral test.

Fraenkel & Wallen (2005) posit that correlations between 0.40 and 0.60 are often found in educational research and may have theoretical or practical value depending on context. They continue to argue that when a correlation of at least 0.60 or higher is obtained, individual predictions that are reasonably accurate for most purposes can be made. That correlation of over 0.85 indicates a close relationship between the variables correlated and is useful in predicting individual performance.

The magnitudes revealed by the analysis agree with Fraenkel and Wallen's propositions and are sufficient enough to make it possible for one to predict either the written or oral ability of the learner if a score on the other variable is known. Accordingly, one could argue that using the written scores of students, it is possible to predict the speaking ability. This perhaps is the assumption that has been guiding the criteria used to ascertain competence. The Kenya National Examinations Council uses the written mode of testing English language in secondary schools and the grades are assigned basing on this. The written test scores are used for grading students. The examinations council as well as the universities are not bothered about oral competence.

It is of great importance to note the outlier values amidst the very high positive correlation values. These are clearly displayed in the scatter grams. These outlier values raise a concern regarding prediction. It may be advisable not to take wholesome assumptions that the written production scores can be used to predict oral ability. Cases in point identified earlier such as 23 out of 30 (77%) in the written production and 15 out of 30 (50%) in the oral production and 17 (57%) and 11 (37%) out of 30 in the written and oral test scores respectively. If one were to use the written production scores to generally make predictions of the oral ability, it would surely be misleading. It is for this reason that a practical test of oral production should be conducted to ascertain the real oral ability of students at the end of their four-year secondary level English course. Barasa (2005) also proposes this. The occurrence of the outlier values is a clear indicator that the minimum university requirement of grade C+ for those who register for English language studies is very risky. It is clear from the study findings that some of the testees with that grade and even higher have very weak speaking ability (see the scatter gram fig. 1 for the total written and total oral scores).

The disparities displayed by the findings allude to the concerns raised by Ong'ondo and Barasa(2006). These results are in support of the fact that it is possible that school leavers, university graduates and even practicing teachers of English and of other subjects do not speak English as expected. The written test score results used might be responsible for the inaccurate evaluation. There is need for high speaking ability by those who have undergone the four-year English education at the secondary school level. It is generally accepted that a number of factors would contribute to low speaking ability in some individuals. Some of these factors among others would be lack of physiological fitness.

Another factor is the difficulties in articulation resulting from already acquired speech habits in the first language. This is also referred to as the wrong forms that have been institutionalized but that notwithstanding, the national goals of education, the general and specific objectives of teaching English in general and speaking in particular have to be met to a large percentage if the education system is to be judged as successful and bring out individuals who can successfully operate as international citizens. National goal of education number three states that education

should promote individual development and self-fulfillment. In relation to this goal, one of the secondary education objectives refers to acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes for the development of the self and the nation. The general objective for teaching English that relates to this state's clearly that at the end of the four-year course the learner should be able to speak accurately, fluently, confidently and appropriately in a variety of contexts. Broken further, the specific objectives of teaching the various sub- skills of speaking have to be achieved. Indeed one who acquires a strong speaking ability and communicates effectively makes a favorable impression of themselves.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to investigate the use of written tests by the Kenya National Examinations Council in examining speaking in secondary schools. This is contrary to the fact that the current syllabus (KIE, 2002) proposes the use of an oral examination at the end of the secondary school education. The apparent contradiction of the teaching syllabus by the examination syllabus made it necessary to ascertain through research whether results of the written tests currently in use can be used to establish the speaking ability of the learners.

The study has attempted to show that the use of written tests to evaluate speaking might not be adequate enough to ascertain the speaking proficiency of learners. The correlation between the scores attained in the two modes of testing revealed that on the general, there was a positive correlation of $r=0.910$. This magnitude of correlation meant that scores in one mode of testing could be used to predict scores in the other. However the presence of a sizable number of outlier scores raised a concern over this general prediction. It can be concluded from these outlier values that there are a good number of students whose oral ability are way below their written ability. This finding is very important in this study for it implies that there are learners for whom it would be misleading to use the written ability to predict the oral proficiency. This revelation leads to the conclusion that in order to establish a learner's language proficiency, both the written and oral production examinations should be done. This would yield a more accurate judgment of a learner's communicative competence in speaking.

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Impact of Visual Impairments on the Education of Learners among Pastoralist Communities in Marsabit County, Kenya

By

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Abstract

Learners from pastoralist communities face peculiar challenges in accessing and continuing with education. These challenges are occasioned by the fact that the pastoral communities attach a lot of importance to pastoral production, the low population density and the challenge of ensuring that the national education policy is relevant to the lives of the pastoralist communities. The situation is worse for learners with visual impairments. Blindness impacts negatively to both the visually impaired person and to others particularly, family members. It brings problems of psychological, personal and social nature. It is on this premises that this study was designated to investigate the impact of visual impairments among learners in pastoralist communities in Logo logo school for the visually impaired in Marsabit county. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. Data was collected using questionnaires, interview guides and observation checklists. Twenty (20) learners with visual impairments, ten (10) teachers and one (1) head teacher participated in the study making a total of 31 respondents. . The analysis indicated that majority of the cases of visual impairments were caused by trachoma and lack of access to eye specialists. The school had inadequate teaching/learning resources for visually impaired learners. Majority of the teachers were male and lacked specialized training in skills for teaching learners with visual impairments. The study recommended that there is need to allocate more resources for children with special needs in pastoralist communities and innovative efforts made to increase their access to education.

Key words: visual impairments, pastoralists, teaching/learning resources, descriptive survey

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Pamela Karambu Muriungi & Sarah Njeri Mungai(2012). Impact of Visual Impairments on the Education of Learners among Pastoralist Communities in Marsabit County, Kenya. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

Introduction

Most pastoralists' communities live and raise their livestock in the semi-desert parts of eastern and north-eastern Kenya. Rainfall is low and unpredictable and this leads to serious droughts which cause severe hardships and the only economic activity that takes place is nomadic pastoralist. The dominant feature of most pastoralist communities in Kenya is their exclusion from economies development processes. The fact that these communities have a low representation in political and economic decision making structures has worsened the historical pattern of exclusion.

Education came with the missionaries and there was no missionary activity in the pastoralists since the missionaries found it easy to work with the agricultural communities than with nomads. This explains much of the current realities of pastoralists' exclusion from education participation. Right from the colonial period government policy concentrated on providing services and other economic activities in a manner that favored sedentary communities. This was in an attempt to advance their colonial interests in areas of agriculture and mining (Hodgson2001).This meant that during colonial rule agricultural communities had easier though limited access to education, healthcare and other social services of which pastoralist communities were denied. When colonialism ended, the elites from these communities were able to take over the institutions of political and social power.

According to Hardin(1968),cultural approaches advanced by colonial administrators to describe African pastoralist and pastoral practice continue to influence education and development policies for pastoralists .American anthropologist, Melville Herskovits (1926) advanced the myth of' cattle complex". In his thesis he argued that pastoralists are culturally attached to their cattle to a point of economic irrationality. This and other myths advanced about the pastoralists still strongly influence government attitude towards provision of education and other development initiatives among the pastoralists.

The consequence of this neglect is that presently pastoralists communities remain underdeveloped .They remain marginalized in social policy making. The areas they occupy present problems in terms of educational provision often having very low levels of education attainment and are vulnerable in terms of poverty and livelihood security (Anderson&brochdue,1999).Most of the obstacles to the provision of education in these areas include physical environment ,nature of pastoral production systems, attitudes, poverty and misinformed perceptions from policy makers (OSSREA,2000).However, Abdi(1999) notes that the limited participation in education is a consequence not only of pastoralist but of a lack of the education system to show any adaptation.

Impact of visual impairments on learning

The impact of vision loss on learning depends on many factors. For example, when a visual impairment is present from birth (congenital), it has a more significant impact on learning and development than if the visual impairment is acquired later in life (adventitious).Loss of vision can affect all areas of development. Social development is affected as children are not able to pick non-verbal clues leading to reduced social interactions. Loss of vision impacts motor development as a child may not be motivated to move towards what cannot be seen. Loss of vision causes inhibition to movement due to fear of unknown. Exploration of the environment

and materials is critical in cognitive development. Therefore movement is critical not only for motor development but also for development of concepts.

Language acquisition can also be affected by loss of vision as active interaction with people and the environment is important in language development. Delays in the area of independence in activities of daily living are also impacted as incidental learning through observation is not possible for those with significant visual impairments. Lowenfield (1975) observes that students with visual impairments require special experiences to help them make sense of what they learn.

Causes of Visual impairments

Most causes of visual impairments in school age children are congenital (Kirk, 2003). Congenital conditions may be caused by heredity, maternal or fetal infection or damage during fetal development or shortly after birth. However, cataracts remain to be the leading cause of visual impairments in all areas of the world except in developing countries. This is in spite of all the progress made in surgical techniques in many countries in the last decade. Other conditions that may cause vision loss include:

Amblyopia: This is reduced vision in an eye caused lack of use of that eye in early childhood. This occurs when a child's eye sends different messages to the brain which may in turn suppress images from the weaker eye and vision from that eye stops developing normally.

Diabetic retinopathy: This occurs when the tiny blood vessels in the retina are damaged due to diabetes. People with this condition may not problems seeing to begin with but if the condition gets worse they can get blind.

Glaucoma; this is an increase in pressure inside the eye. The increased pressure impairs vision by damaging the optic nerve. It is most common in older adults, although babies may be born with the condition and children can sometimes develop it as well.

Macular degeneration; this is a gradual and progressive deterioration of the macula which is the most sensitive region of the retina. The condition leads to progressive loss of central vision. It often occurs in older people but can also occur in younger people.

Trachoma; this occurs when a very contagious micro-organism called Chlamydia trachomatis causes inflammation in the eye. It is often found in poor rural countries that have limited access to water and sanitation.

Albinism: this is a condition characterized by a congenital absence of pigmentation including that of the eye, which can result in vision loss.

Accidents: these may cause injuries to the eye and result in vision loss

These and others not mentioned in this paper could all contribute to vision loss.

Teaching/learning resources for learners with visual impairments

The world health organization(WHO) estimates that the prevalence of blindness and low vision in children is at 0.7%. According to session paper(2005),the government aims at paying special attention to gender, vulnerable and disadvantaged children. It is therefore the policy of the government that children with visual impairment are not excluded from education. Despite these good intentions, it is estimated that children with visual impairments have the lowest access and participation rates in Kenya. This has been attributed to stigmatization, retrogressive cultural beliefs, poor attitudes and ignorance on the potential of children with visual impairments.

Learners with visual impairments learn through both auditory and kinesthetic means. They rely on all their past experiences to make connections to new materials and often the teacher is responsible for building that experience. Since vision is the primary sense through which learning takes place, the teaching and learning strategies for these learners need to be modified to reflect the child's visual, auditory and tactile abilities.

Children with visual impairments face barriers in accessing quality education. This is evidenced by a recent resource distribution analysis undertaken by the Kenya integrated education programme (KIEP) which indicated that there was a gross undersupply of the needed resources. For instance due to frequent change in curriculum, teaching/learning materials particularly the production of Braille books has become expensive leading to inadequacy. According to KIEP the current ratio of learners to Braille books is 5:1 against the recommended 1:1.

The distribution of Braille machines is inadequate given the number of schools and the potential users. KIEP further maintains that the Braille machines supplied can only cover 50% of the need. Learners with visual impairments require assistive technology devices. These devices enable learners to perform tasks independently. They include Braille devices, closed circuit television and magnifiers. Other resources include abacus stands without glare among others. The school environment should be barrier free with building ramps, pavements, rails, appropriate colors and improved lights.

Apart from learning resources, children with visual impairments require specialized teachers. They require are teachers with requisite skills. However according to the resource analysis carried out by KIEP, 50% of children with visual impairments are handled by teachers without the requisite skills. It is estimated that pupil: specialized teacher ratio is 1:20 when the recommended ratio is 1:5.

Career and vocational education for learners with visual impairments

It is important to remember that education goals for students with visual impairments are essentially the same as those of all students. These include effective communication, social competence, employability and personal independence. In order to achieve these goals, students with visual impairments require specific interventions and modifications of their educational programs. One of these modifications is career and vocational training.

Career and vocational education focuses on skills, experiences and adaptations that are necessary to prepare for and access the world of work. It should be specifically designed to fit student's needs. This is because giving students with visual impairments general instructions may not be beneficial. Career and vocational training should begin in the earliest grades. This can provide visually impaired learners the opportunity to learn first-hand about the variety of work people do. This can be done through strategies such as role-playing, peer mentoring and job shadowing. The instruction in vocational training should address personal strengths and weaknesses, work habits, ethics, workplace social skills, vocational interests, personal options and specific programs to train skill. As the student progresses they may also be trained in employment seeking skills such as locating job openings, writing job applications and information on interviews.

Problem statement

Though the provision and participation in education in Kenya expanded greatly during the 1960s and 1970s, the growth in provision and participation increasingly left behind the pastoralist communities in Kenya. The situation was worse for the vulnerable groups among the pastoralists namely girls and children with special needs. This study sought to investigate the impact of visual impairments on the access to education for learners with visual impairments in Marsabit County.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of visual impairments among the pastoralist community particular attention was paid to the major causes of visual impairments among the pastrolists, implementation of special education, availability of educational resources and personnel and vocational training for learners with visual impairments.

Objectives

The objectives of this study included:

1. To find out the causes of visual impairments among the pastoralists.
2. To investigate the impact of visual impairment on the education of learners with visual impairments.
3. To assess the availability of teaching/learning resources for learners with visual impairments.
4. To find out the transition preparedness/vocational training for learners with visual impairments.

Research Design

Case study survey design was used in this study which allowed the researcher to study the impact of visual impairments on the education of learners in pastoralist communities. This enabled the researcher to carry out an in depth study of the case in question in a natural setting and a real life situation.

Locale, Target Population and Sampling Procedure

The study was conducted in Marsabit County in logo logo school for the visually impaired learners in Kenya. It included: head teachers, teachers, students and. .According to Kothari (1974), 10% sample is representative of a target population for research.

Methodology

The study adopted a case study method as it was an intensive descriptive analysis of the logologo integrated school for the visually impaired. It was an investigation of a single entity in order to gain insight into other cases according to Oso(2005),in a case where the number of organizations that can be investigated are few, and a sample is available and an in-depth analysis is necessary, a case study is the most appropriate. The researcher used questionnaires, interview guides and observation checklists.

Random sampling was used to sample a total of twenty (20) standard six (6) and seven (7) pupils to take part in the study. Ten teachers were conveniently sampled while the head teacher was purposively sampled making a total of 31 respondents.

Data collection instruments

Three types of instruments were used for this study. These are questionnaires, interview guides and observation checklists. The questionnaires for the students sought background information from the respondents on the causes of the visual impairment among others while part B of the questionnaire sought information on the availability of learning resources, teachers, vocational training among others.

Interview schedules were conducted for the head teacher. The observation checklist was instrumental in assessing the availability of teaching/learning resources, school environment among others.

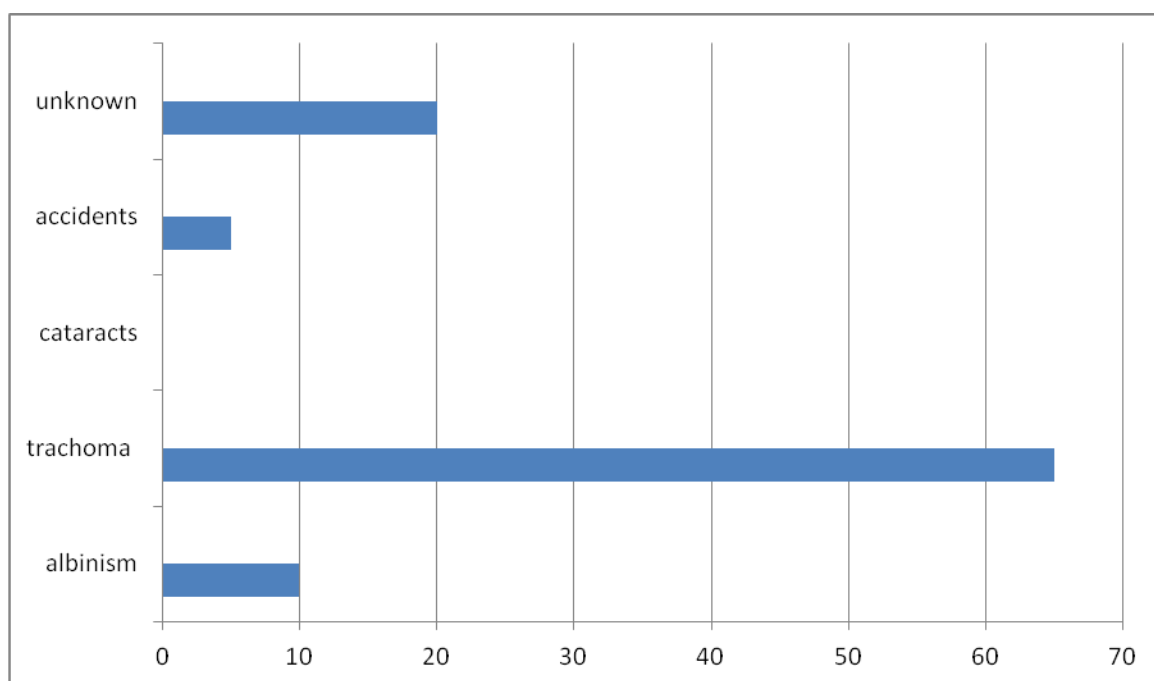
Data analysis

Data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics and the results discussed.

Results and discussions

The study sought to find out some of the causes of visual impairments among the learners in logo logo school. Study findings are shown on Figure 1.

Figure 1: causes of visual impairments among the learners



Study findings on Figure 1 show that the majority of the learners 13(65%) indicated that the vision loss was occasioned by trachoma while four (20%) of the learners indicated that the cause of the vision loss was unknown. Only 2(10%) had albinism as the cause of the vision loss and a

further 1(5%) had experienced vision loss as a result of accidents. Study findings concur with Kirk (2003) who observed that trachoma is a major cause of visual impairments in dirty conditions where water is scarce. Most of the learners hailed from the nomadic areas occupied by the Borana, Rendille and the Gabbra which experienced serious water shortages. The fact that 20% of the learners did not know the cause of the vision loss could probably be as a result of non availability of health centers as found out by Abdi (1999) who argued that most pastoralist areas lack sufficient health care facilities.

Visual impairment impacts greatly on the education of learners with vision loss. To investigate this impact the researchers sought to find out the age of entry of learners in school. Study findings are shown in table 2

Table 1: Age of entry to school

Age of entry to school	frequency	percentage
4 to 6	0	0
6 to 10	6	30
10 to 12	11	55
12 and above	3	15
Total	20	100

Study findings on Table 1 indicate that majority of the learners 11 (55%) with visual impairments joined school at the ages of between 10 and 12 years while 6(30%) joined school at age six to ten years. Three learners (15%) joined school at a very late age beyond twelve years. Study findings further reveal that none of the learners with visual impairments joined school at the recommended age of four to six years. These findings agree with Lowenfield(1975) who discovered that visual impairments impacts greatly on the social, cognitive and motor development of a child with visual impairments. Cognitive development is affected because of the limited range of experiences that the child is exposed to as a result of restrained movement. Movement is restrained due to fear of navigation into the unknown while social development is impacted due to slow development of language. All these factors work together to ensure that children with visual impairments join school at a late age.

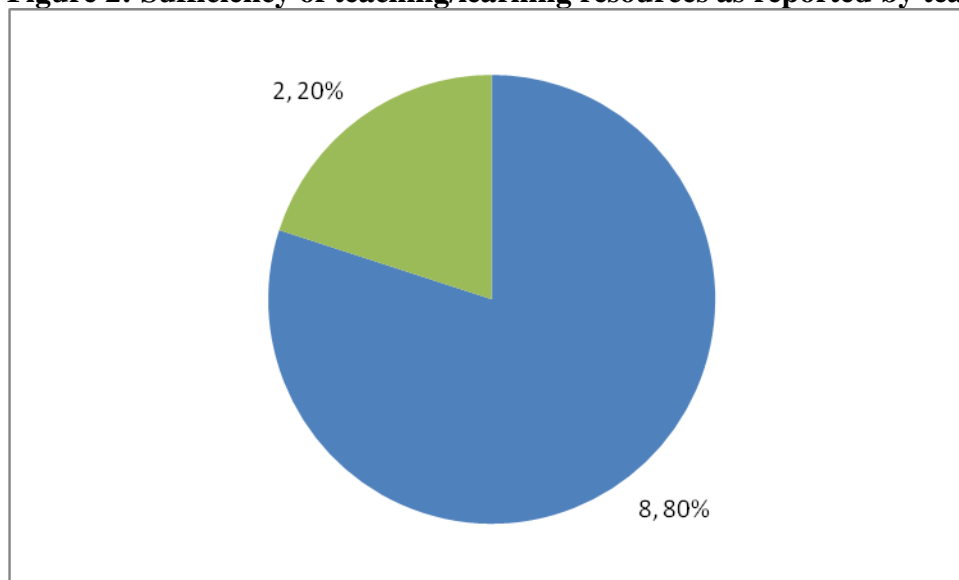
Education for children with special needs requires specialized equipment and certain adaptations in the school environment. The researchers sought to find out whether these resources were available. Study findings are shown on Table 2.

Table 2: Availability of teaching/learning resources

EQUIPMENT	YES	NO	TOTAL
Braille machines	14	4	18
Braille books	11	6	17
CCTVs	1	18	19
Magnifiers	8	5	13
Abacus	17	2	19
PERCENTAGE	59	40.6	100

Study findings on Table 2 show that 59% of the learners indicated that some teaching learning resources were available in the school while 40% indicated that they were not available. It may be concluded that though the resources were available they were not enough. Of particular interest was the non-availability of CCTVs and Braille books were not enough. This agrees with the national survey analysis on the availability of Braille books by KIEP (1986). This was particularly because the curriculum kept on changing and Braille books take a long time to produce.

On the same subject, the researchers sought to find out the view of the teachers on the sufficiency of resources. Study findings are shown on figure 1.

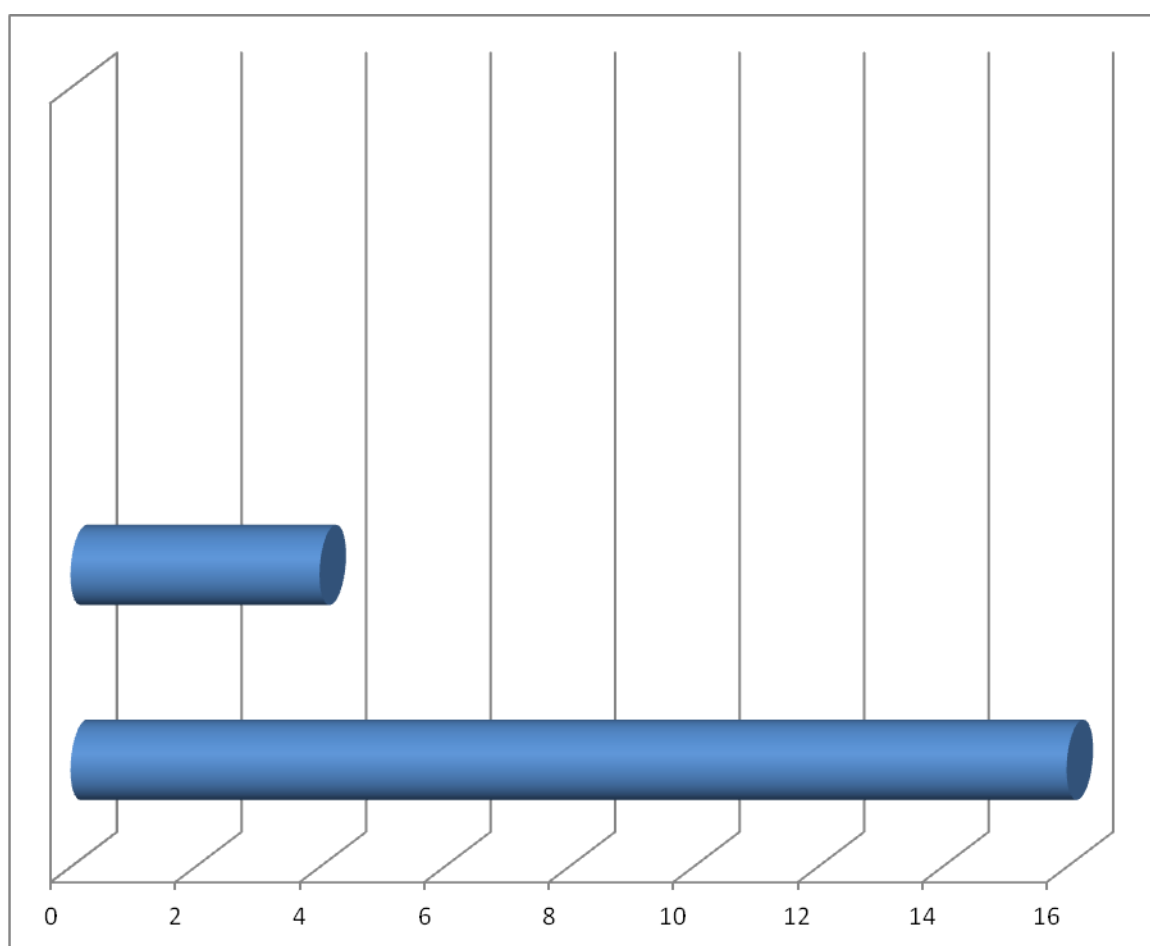
Figure 2: Sufficiency of teaching/learning resources as reported by teachers

Study findings on figure 1 indicate that majority of the respondents (80%) indicated that specialized equipment for learners with visual impairments were not sufficient with only 2(20%)

of the respondents indicating that they were sufficient. It can be concluded from the study findings that teaching/learning resources were insufficient. According to a report by UNDP (2005) education for students with special needs is greatly hampered by lack of specialized equipment.

Learners with visual impairments require vocational preparation for the world of work. This is because apart from the core curriculum which they must learn, their curriculum has an expanded dimension to include social adaptation, recreation, activities of daily living as well as vocational education. The researchers sought to find out if the learners were exposed to career education .study findings are shown on figure 3.

Figure 3: Learners' response on instruction on vocational education



Study findings on Figure 3 indicate that majority of the respondents 16(80%) reported that there was no vocational education while 4(20%) reported that vocational education was ongoing. From the study findings it can be concluded that learners with visual impairments were not being exposed to preparation for the world of work. Lowen field (1975) observed that exposing students with visual impairments to a general curriculum without vocational training may not be beneficial to them and that these students needed vocational education right from the earliest grades.

Conclusions

Study findings agree with UNDP (2005) that there is lack of specialized equipment for the education of learners with special needs. Study findings further agree with the analysis carried out by KIEP on the availability of teaching/learning resources for learners with social needs which found out that resources for this category are either lacking or insufficient. Regarding the causes of visual impairments, study findings revealed that trachoma is the leading cause of visual impairments in pastoralist areas and as Abdi(1999) observed lack of health facilities means that the pastoralist communities have no access to eye specialists. There is need to improve on access to education for the pastoralist communities in general while paying special attention to the education of children with special needs.

General Recommendations

The study findings led to the recommendations that there is urgent need for the government to make healthcare accessible to pastoralist communities. The study findings revealed that trachoma was the leading cause of visual impairments while other causes were unknown. Probably some of these unknown causes are diseases that are easily treatable and curable. Visual impairments impact negatively on learning by causing children to enter school late. The government through the ministry of education should ensure that children with special needs from minority groups are not left out of education participation.

That there is great and urgent need to ensure timely and sufficient supply of specialized equipment for learners with special needs not in pastoralist communities.

That career education and vocational training should be taught concurrently with the core curriculum in order to benefit children with special needs.

Though pastoralist areas are difficult to access, education is the only to ensure their integration in economic development.

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Mass Education: Challenges and Opportunities: The Case of Makonde District: Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe.

By

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Abstract

This study sought to unearth challenges that confront mass education as well as identifying related trends and opportunities. The descriptive survey design was adopted for the current study since the study is aimed at getting the perceptions of district education inspectors and primary school heads on challenges confronted in the implementation of mass education programmes. Due to its ability to solicit information deeply buried in the minds and attitudes of people, and its ability to reveal the true present state of affairs in a given set up, the design was seen to be the most appropriate one (Mubika and Bukaliya, June 2012). Documentary analysis, questionnaires and interviews were used to solicit information from the respondents. The use of these three instruments will enable triangulation in order to enhance validity and reliability of data. The population of the study will consist of 4 district education inspectors and 107 primary school heads of Makonde District in Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe. Out of the population, a sample of 2 district education inspectors, and 36 primary school heads were chosen through the stratified random sampling technique in order to accord these different categories of respondents' proportional representation.

Key words: Education, Mass education, Challenges, Opportunities, Documentary analysis

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Augustine Kudakwashe Mubika & Douglas Gasva 2013). Mass Education: Challenges and Opportunities: The Case of Makonde District: Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Investment in education has always been a major priority for communities, nations and the world. One of the most significant phenomena in educational development has been the creation of increased access to education for the majority of the people. In this regard, mass education has been perceived as the most effective strategy. However, mass education programmes have often been victims of quality problems, mainly because of the inadequacy of appropriate resources. Fundamentally, mass education opens up opportunities for more students to enter into national education streams because of their flexibility in the entry qualifications into the educational programmes so created. However, the provision of human resources and material and/or support resources becomes a challenge. In mass education programmes, planning is also a challenge. Planners usually find it difficult to match the number of students with the required human and material resources. This study, therefore, strives to explore these challenges and related trends and opportunities with specific reference to Makonde District; Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe.

Background to the Study

Usually at independence, the former colonised nations realise the need to increase access to education for the majority of the citizens. Thus in the case of Africa, many states upon gaining political independence, realized the need to boost the manpower base and create more social and individual benefits from the envisaged mass education programmes. For example, the advent of independence in Zimbabwe in 1980 brought about with it developments in many areas including education. The colonial system before independence had created limited access to educational opportunities for the black people; hence, the attainment of independence was a turning point in the history of the country, which, with regards to education, marked the opening of increased access to education for the majority of the indigenous people. Chivore (1992) points out that on attaining independence in 1980, Zimbabwe faced political, economic and social challenges that usually accompany attempts to build a new nation. In the social arena the Zimbabwe Government undertook massive and unprecedented expansion of education at both primary and secondary school levels. In regards to this, in 1979 Zimbabwe had 2,401 primary schools with an enrolment of 819,586 pupils. By 1989 the country had 4,504 pupils with an enrolment of 2,274,178 pupils. At secondary school level, in 1979 there were 177 secondary schools with an enrolment of 66,215 pupils. By 1989, the country had 1,504 secondary schools with an enrolment of 685,882 pupils. The majority of the people were happy with this development as it signified what they perceived as the essence of independence. This was as a result of the launch of mass education as a strategy that was meant to necessitate increased access to education for the majority of Zimbabweans. Thus the newly elected ZANU (PF) government enunciated the policy of Education for All in 1980. The government created machinery to provide education to all who needed it regardless of religion, creed, sex or race, hence the use of the social demand approach. Subsequently, large numbers of people were able to enter into the education system, thereby allowing them to fulfill their educational ambitions. While the implementation of mass education programmes had advantages, it had its own share of challenges which is the focus of the current study. Also interesting, were emerging trends and opportunities so created from this scenario.

Statement of the Problem

The introduction of mass education's major problem was the failure to match the required resources with the huge numbers of people who then had enrolled. Therefore, although mass education programmes in Zimbabwe attained unprecedented success with regards to increasing educational opportunities for the majority of people, its implementation was met with a host of challenges; hence this study's focus is also on these challenges.

Research Questions

1. How has Mass Education been implemented in Zimbabwe?
2. To what extent does the implementation of mass education programmes tally with the provision of the required resources?
3. What are the challenges faced in the implementation of mass education programmes?
4. What strategies can be implemented to make mass education programmes effective?

Review of Related Literature

In order to widen the horizon of understanding of the research problem, the following section reviewed literature that was related to the study.

The Concept Mass Education

For us to understand the concept of mass education better, it is critical to first consider that education basically entails the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and a change of attitudes in order to improve standards of living of people. Mass education refers to an educational system funded and run by the state, usually free, that aims to ensure that all people, in the case of Zimbabwe, all age groups have access to educational opportunities without discrimination. In some countries mass education is free and compulsory. However in Zimbabwe although education was free, it was not compulsory.

Mass education in Zimbabwe: The trends

The importance of providing Education for All (EFA) cannot be over emphasized. Most African states, upon attaining independence realized the need to educate the nation, for there was need to boost the manpower base and reap more social and private benefits from the education of the masses. On attaining independence, virtually all the African countries, embarked on a massive expansion of educational provision at all levels. Zimbabwe is no exception. According to Chivore (1992), on attaining independence in 1980, the country faced political, economic, and social challenges that normally accompany attempts to build a new nation. In the social arena, the government undertook massive and unprecedented expansion of education at both the primary and secondary school levels. In 1979, Zimbabwe had 2,401 primary schools with an enrollment of 819,586 pupils. By 1989, the country had 4,504 primary schools with an enrollment of 2,274,178 pupils. At the secondary school level, in 1979 there were 177 secondary schools with an enrollment of 66,215 pupils. By 1989, the country had 1,502 secondary schools with an enrollment of 695,882 pupils. The expansion was welcome as the majority of the marginalized people could access the education they had yearned for, for a long time. However, despite the exponential growth in the enrolment figures, a lot of challenges have been met in the process of providing education to the masses.

Challenges Emanating from the Implementation of Mass Education Programmes

The introduction of mass education in Zimbabwe resulted in increased number of pupils gaining access to education hence enrolments increased tremendously. Necessarily, more schools were to be built and other resources such as books, chairs and tables were also to be acquired. Also critically, necessarily more trained teachers were required. All these were challenges that characterised mass education.

Implementation of Mass Education Programmes versus Appropriate Resources

Implementation of mass education programmes was infested with many problems. Classrooms were inadequate since pupils were too many for the classroom space available. Rapid enrolment increases have challenged already weak systems. This is because resources have been scarce. For example, teachers have been in short supply and some instances, for example in Malawi, even before expansion due to education for all, there was a pupil-teacher ratio of 70:1 with 13% of teachers being unqualified and an average of 100 pupils crowding existing classrooms (Avenstrup et al, 2004). The biggest challenges in the case of Zimbabwe were, not surprisingly, pressure on classroom facilities, insufficient numbers of teachers and an inadequate supply of instructional materials, all areas to which the development community responded, attempting to cater for shortfalls of the order of 38,000 new classrooms and at least 25,000 additional teachers. Books were really scarce, too pupils incontinently shared one textbook and equally pupils could not the number of exercise books required. Chairs, tables and/or desks were inadequate. More frighteningly teachers were too fewer resulting almost unmanageable teacher: pupils: ratios.

Location of the schools

In some geographical areas, location has contributed to some deserving children being deprived of their basic right to education and attendance at primary school, for example, has been curtailed. The geography of some areas has made it more difficult for children to get to school. According to Postiglione, Jiao and Gyatso (2006), for example; in high-altitude areas such as India, severe weather conditions for more than 7 months of the year make school attendance erratic and force children to remain at home. However, in Zimbabwe, the policy for the location of a school stipulates that a school should be established within a radius of five kilometers from the residence of the school going age children. The question that needs to be addressed is whether or not Zimbabwe has managed to provide schools as stipulated in the policy paper. Generally, Zimbabwe has a fairly gentle landscape and climatic conditions are not bad to the extent of making inhabitants of certain areas marooned and unable to get services from central or local government. In a study by Birdsall and Orivel (1996) in which they were investigating the relation between school location and school attendance in Mali, the results showed that fifty percent of the villages reported that the schools were far away, making students refrain from enrolling.

Gender

Another aspect that has presented challenges for the mass education initiative has been the area of gender. Dowd and Green (2001) argue that gender contributes to a girl child's lack of access and attendance to education as investment in girls' education has been shunned in a number of traditional societies. This therefore, has resulted in widespread lack of access to primary education by the girl child in developing countries. According to Douglas (2003), some 78% of girls drop out of school, compared with 48% of boys. Therefore, a child's gender continues to

contribute to access and attendance at schools. In 25 countries the proportion of boys enrolling in secondary school is higher than girls by 10% or more, and in five; India, Nepal, Togo, Turkey and Yemen, the gap exceeds 20%. Enrollment is low for both boys and girls in sub-Saharan Africa, with rates of just 27% and 22% (Douglas, 2003).

Costs to education attainment

While expenditure in education can be a dissuading factor towards enrolling, opportunity costs have had a high potency towards lack of access and attendance at schools. Some parents have weighed the cost of sending a child to school when the same child can be able to be employed in some way or the other. In some instances, children have been kept out of school because they are required to provide cheap labour at home, for example to work in the fields, informal mines or do household chores at home. For many families in developing countries the economic benefits of no primary schooling are enough to offset the opportunity cost of attending. Peverly (2006) argues that besides the opportunity costs associated with education, school fees can be very expensive, especially for poor households. In some instances family income is not adequate for family consumption let alone for fees. It remains to be seen whether in Zimbabwe costs have had a significant impact on education bearing in mind that funding has been forthcoming for the disadvantaged children.

Compromising the quality of Education

Another area of concern has been the argument that the policy of mass education has resulted in the erosion of quality education in favour of quantity. Fears abound that the unsustainable teacher-pupil ratios have demotivated the teachers. The expansion in enrolment figures has further strained the existing resources and facilities (Gatawa, 1999). This seems to suggest therefore that the unprecedented rise in the enrolment was not followed by a proportionate increase in the funding of the education system.

Research Methodology

The study adopted the descriptive survey design. This research design was appropriately chosen for the current study considering that the study is aimed at soliciting for the perceptions of respondents. The participants of this study were district education inspectors and primary school heads. The focus of this study was to explore challenges that Zimbabwe's Mashonaland West Province, Makonde District, confronted in the implementation of mass education programmes. The descriptive survey design was preferred because of its high ability to solicit individual information that is deeply buried in the minds and attitudes of people. In addition, the design was considered advantageous, as it was seen to be the most appropriate because of its ability to reveal the true present state of affairs in a given set social up.

In order to suit the demands of this study, documentary analysis, questionnaires and interviews were used to solicit research data from the respondents. The use of these three different instruments was based on the simple advantage that they complemented each other and enabled triangulation which enhanced the validity and reliability of data.

Population and sample

The population of this study consisted of 4 district education inspectors and 107 primary school heads of Makonde District in Mashonaland West Province of Zimbabwe. From the stated population, a study sample of 2 district education inspectors, and 36 primary school heads was

chosen. This sample was secured through the stratified random sampling technique which was found to be appropriate as it accords the stated different categories of respondents a proportional representation in the study.

Presentation and Discussion of Findings

Table 1.1 How mass education has been implemented in Zimbabwe

Manner in which mass education was implemented	Number	Percentage
Policy changes	30	79
School increased in number.	34	89
Human resources increased	19	50
Equipment increased	16	42
Teachers` colleges increased in number	20	52
Recruitment of expatriates	34	89

The results from the table above show that 30(79%) indicated that mass education in Zimbabwe was implemented through policy changes. This is in line with the enunciation of the Policy of Education for All by the then newly elected ZANU(PF) Government at independence in 1980. The table above also shows that 34(90%) respondents indicated that mass education was also implemented through increasing the number of schools. On the issue of increased human resources, 19(50%) respondents showed that the factor in the implementation of mass education in Zimbabwe the increase in the human resources. This is also supported by the fact that increase in the number of the school was a direct product of increased enrolments which of necessity had resulted increased human resources. The table above also show that 16(42(%) respondents indicated that equipment was also increased. The table above shows that 16(42%) respondents indicated that the equipment was inadequate in the implementation of mass education. In the table above it is also shown that 20(52%) respondents indicated that the number of teachers' colleges was also increased in the implementation of mass education in Zimbabwe. The results from the table above also that 34(89%) indicated that expatriates were recruited in the implementation of mass education in Zimbabwe.

Table 1.2 The extent to which the implementation of mass education programmes tally with the provision of the required resources

Resources required for mass education	Adequate		Not adequate	
	No.	%	No.	%
Provision of classroom space for increase in student numbers	4	11	34	89
Existence of qualified staff	9	24	29	76
Availability of textbooks	14	37	24	63
Availability of other instructional material	11	29	27	71
Adequacy of schools	13	34	25	66
Availability of supervisory staff	8	21	30	79

The table above shows that 4(11%) respondents indicated that the provision of classroom space for increase in student numbers was adequate while 34(89%) respondents indicated that the classroom space was inadequate. Results from the table above show that 9(24%) respondents indicated that existence of qualified staff was adequate while 29(76%) respondents indicated that

the existence of qualified staff was inadequate. Results from the table above show that 14(37%) respondents indicated that availability of textbooks was adequate whereas 24(63%) respondents indicated that availability of textbooks was inadequate. The results from the table above show that 11(29%) respondents that availability of other instructional material was adequate while 27(71%) respondents said that the availability of other instructional material was inadequate. Results from the table above 13(34%) respondents indicate that schools were inadequate while 25(66%) respondents indicated that schools were inadequate. The table above also that 8(21%) availability of supervisory staff was adequate while 30(79%) respondents indicated that availability of supervisory was inadequate.

Table 1.3 Challenges faced in the implementation of mass education programmes

Challenge	Number	Percentage
Inadequate classroom space	34	89
Inaccessibility of some schools	31	82
Inadequate trained teachers	37	97
Inadequate textbooks	34	89
Inadequate furniture	38	100
Gender biases	20	53
Distances to new schools	23	61
The cost of school fees	27	71
Opportunity costs of education	25	66

Results from the above table show that 34(89%) respondents indicated that they faced the challenge of inadequate classroom space in the implementation of mass education programmes. The table also shows that 31(82%) respondents said the other challenge they faced in the implementation of mass education programmes was inaccessibility of some schools. From the table above 37(97%) respondents also indicated that the issue of inadequate trained teachers one of the challenges they faced in the implementation of mass education programmes. The issue of inadequate textbooks was also one of the challenges faced in the implementation of mass education programmes, thus as indicated by 34(89%) respondents shown in the table above. The table shows that all 38(100%) respondents indicated that inadequate furniture was one of the challenges they faced in the implementation of mass education programmes. Results also show that 20(53%) respondents indicated gender biases as one of the challenges they faced in the implementation of mass education programmes. Results from the table also show that 23(61%) respondents indicated that distances to new schools as one of the challenges they faced when they were implementing mass education programmes. The cost of school fees was sighted by 27(71%) respondents as one of the challenges when implementing mass education programmes. From the table above 25(66%) indicated that opportunity costs of education as one of the challenges faced as they were implementing mass education programmes.

Table 1.4 Strategies that can be implemented to make mass education

Strategy	Number	Percentage
Redefining policy options to cater for all socio-economic groups	29	76
Making it mandatory for the girl child to attend school	26	68
Payment of fees for vulnerable groups by government agencies	34	89
Involvement of development partners in the provision of educational resources	25	66
Enactment of policies compelling all pupils of school going age to attend school	33	87
Make provisions for accelerated teacher training programmes more so through open and distance education	36	95
Parental participation in school development programmes	33	95

Results from the table above 29(76%) recommend the need for redefining options for all socio-economic. The table also shows that 26(68%) suggest the need to make mandatory for the girl child to attend school. The table also shows that 34(89%) recommend that government pay fees for the vulnerable groups. Results from the above table 25(66%) suggest involvement of development partners in the provision of educational resources.

Conclusion

Results from the current study indicate that mass education has to great extent achieved most of the objectives for which it was introduced in the Zimbabwean education system. However, results go to show a lot of challenges have been experienced in an attempt to fulfill the requirements of the policy.

Recommendations

Realising the need for progress in the provision of effective mass education a number of initiatives need to be considered. These include the following recommendations:

Involvement of all stakeholders in the provision of education for all

Mass education should be results oriented and in particular be appropriate, relevant and transformative with regard to people's lives and work.

Improving quality of existing schools so as to improve enrolment and retention rates

Mobilise all development partners to fund the provision of educational resources

To cater for shortfalls in human resources measures may include an expanded teacher training programme through Open and Distance Learning which aims at producing more teachers at a lower cost within the shortest time possible than conventional full-time teacher training programmes.

Establishment of schools within a radius of 5km as stipulated by policy • making it mandatory for the girl child to attend school

Government to invigorate efforts to pay fees for the vulnerable groups through government agencies and cooperating partners

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Competency based mathematics assessment

By

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Abstract

After the long period of content based curriculum Tanzania revised the school curricula to competence based curricula in 2005. Competence based curriculum encourages the five essential forms of learning that is Relating, Experiencing, Applying, Cooperating and Transferring. The emphasis is on teaching students how to learn instead of teaching content. The competency based mathematics curriculum shift from teaching mathematics by memorization to the teaching concepts; However, teacher's practices are not changing and examination style contributes to the rigidity in pedagogical shift (Kalugula ,2000, Wangesleja, 2007). The assessment mostly focuses on final examinations whose main roles are certification, and not practical skills. Majority of students cannot relate the learning of mathematics to real-life experiences and thus have negative attitudes towards this subject. Therefore, this paper will assess the assessment given to the secondary school students and examine the applicability of the five essential forms of learning.

Keywords; pedagogical shift, real-life experiences, mathematics, practical skills, curriculum

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Nancy W. Kabuki & Esther N. Kabuki (2012) Competency based mathematics assessment

Kenya Studies Review, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Competency –based education (CBE) emerged in the 1970s in the United State. It referred to an education movement that advocated defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable description of the knowledge, skills and behaviors or attitude students should possess at the end of the course of study. (Guskey, 2005). CBE is outcome based instruction and is adaptive to the changing needs of students, teachers, and the community. Competencies describe the student’s ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life. Thus CBE is based on a set of outcomes that are derived from an analysis of tasks typically required of students in life role situations.

Experience has shown that teaches find it difficult to differentiate competence from objectives and goals. Goals are very general and global statements which are supposed to an overall frame of references. Objectives are precise statements which begin with an action verb and characterize observable behavior pertaining to intended direct outcomes which are realistic and at an appropriate level of generality. Therefore what distinguishes competences from goals and objectives is that it focuses on the end product of the instructional process rather than on the instructional process itself or it can be said that it embraces the larger picture rather than the content of a single course. Competences are used to set performance standards that must be met.

Teaching and learning for competences

Teaching and learning in competence-based curricula are geared towards enabling the learner achieve abilities that are required in their personal or professional lives within respective contexts. Hence, depending on the level, insistence is placed upon imparting applied competencies and promotion of the life skills which include generation of attitudes focused on initiative, problem solving, interpretation, anticipation, cooperation and creation of a positive working environment. These attitudes are generated more in the pedagogical strategies used than in the curriculum contents themselves (e.g. creation of a conducive educational environment, motivation of staff, promotion of learning by problem solving, promotion of use of diverse didactic media, etc. Thus competence based curriculum encourages the use of learner centered methods in teaching and learning.

Learners are the center of the learning process and actively involved in the learning process. The teacher needs to engage students in her/his lesson through using participatory teaching methods. However this is hindered by a variety of challenges in our secondary schools. Due to rapid increase of schools in Tanzania, enrolment of students has increased causing many schools to have shortage of teachers and as a consequence, teachers have big workloads. For instance, in some secondary schools one can find two or three teachers to teacher one subject from form one to four where the classes are divided into streams A to D. The worse comes in the area of sciences and Mathematics where the teachers are fewer and with the nature of this subjects the teacher needs to spend more time with the students. Unfortunately they encourage memorization and not concept formations.

The right mathematical concepts are formed into students mind if the teachers give grouped experiences which embody instances of the concept to be formed. Therefore the teachers find difficulties to teach as competence based curriculum demands. Furthermore, with the big workload the teachers cannot provide enough assignment to students and even if they do their do

not mark, thus both the teachers and students cannot properly evaluate themselves. Mathematics subject need immediate feedback and a lot of exercises or assignments without which students cannot understand it and will have a negative attitude towards it.

It has been observed that, the concept of competence based is not well understood by teachers. Teachers think that to put students into groups during the teaching process is to build competence. The issue is, what do they do in those groups? Are the teachers able to prepare activities that will make students interact fully with subject matter and the learning materials? Teaching mathematics requires the teacher to be very creative and have a well mastery of the contents. It seems that the concept is not well understood by teachers and as a result they opt for traditional methods of teaching, which do not match competence based curriculum.

A study carried out by Lorna (2006) comparing music and educations, he began by saying Music is like math and Spanish or Latin: It's a foreign language, one that can help develop learning, motor and comprehension skills. He has really highlighted twenty skills children learn from arts and shows music helps in the development of their brains. Some of the things mentioned are:-

Music training has been linked to spatial-temporal reasoning skills. (I.e. ability to read a map, put puzzles together, form mental images, transform/visualize things in space that unfold over time, and recognize relationships between objects. These skills are often helpful in science, math, and chess.)

Musical symbols, structure, and rhythmic training utilize fractions, ratios, and proportions, which are all important in mathematical study.

Boosts creative thinking

Children who study music usually have a better attitude, are more motivated and are less intimidated by learning new things

Lorna discovered that music is very essential to our children; however the education today do not encourage creativity. The children do not have time to play, mold different objects, sing, develop teaching aids etc. Everyone is thinking of the new technologies that is television, computers, calculators etc. however we need to understand everything is created twice in the mind then in the really situation. Thus without being creative and using the available resources to create different objects we cannot make even a calculator. The guardian reporter on 8th February 2011 reported that stories can motivate students in learning mathematics these was said last year during pi day which is on 3rd march organized by mathematics association of Tanzania held in Tanzania institute of Education (TIE).

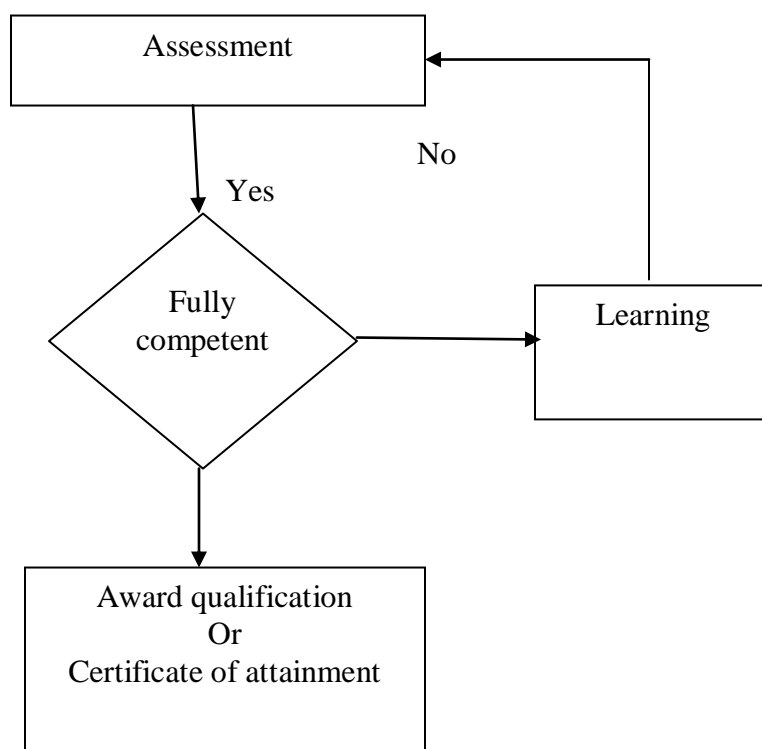
The result of poor education in Tanzania was reflected in last year from four national examinations where 50% of the student who sat for the examination failed. The guardian newspaper 25th February 2013 a writer by the name Masozi commented on Review of examination system: our examination system seem to assess only one type of learning domain, that is, cognitive domain. Exams also do not consider issues of multiple intelligences where by some students have talents in other aspects such as arts and sport. The UWEZO study group recently assessed students levels of numeracy against the government intended curriculum and

found important discrepancies. According to a report by the UWEZO, 2009, based on research of the status of numeracy among primary school going children, numerate skills at each level are not achieved. The following were some of the findings reported by the study. Pupils who cannot solve Class 2 level division problems?

- 79 out of every 100 children in Class 2.
- 30 out of every 100 children in Class 5. These children have fallen *far behind*.
- 10 out of every 100 children leave Class 8 without being able to divide.

Pupils are thus making progress through the schooling system without acquiring expected numerate skills. Tanzania should adopt NVSC (2003) approach for learning as shown in the structure below where the students are awarded after attaining full competent

A better approach for structuring learning



Competence based assessment

Assessment is the general term used for measuring student's performance on a course against the set learning outcomes of the particular educational programme. The role of assessment is to help provide accurate predictions for future academic success or future professional competence. The shift from assessing a set of learning contents to assessing every learning outcome is the greatest challenges facing Examinations councils in Tanzania. In addition application of the content taught into real-life situation has been a great challenge not only to students but also to teachers. Especially in mathematics and science subjects, majority of the teachers rely on theories and concepts discovered long time without actually knowing how there came about and where to apply them. This maybe one of the reasons why majority fear mathematics and cannot see its importance even though they use it unknowingly.

A study carried out to determine the relationship between students performance in word problem and related algebraic expression found out that students performed better mathematical tasks in algebraic mode than in word problem mode (Gitonga, 2010). Example of word problem mode and algebraic mode respectively is shown on the table below:

1. The eleventh term of the arithmetic progression is four times its second term. The sum of the first seven terms of the same progression is 175. Find the first term and the common difference of the progression.
2. Find the value of x that satisfies the equation; $\log(x+5) = \log 4 - \log(x+2)$

example the speed of a vehicle and the distance then you are asked to calculate the time it becomes so hard. Is it that the Mathematics teachers are not teaching well or where/what is the problem?

Hayton and Wagner (1998) make an important distinction between competency-based assessment and performance based assessment. They see competency based assessment as the assessment of evidence to determine a person's current abilities against a given set of competencies. Competency based assessment then is a system in which a number of assessment techniques can be used, of which performance assessment is just one technique. Performance assessment focuses on student's performance. Majority of the teachers are just focusing on students' performance which may not reveal much on student competences.

Competence based assessment should help learners develop the capacity of being able to act, now and in the future, and to assume responsibility for their actions. Such competency is referred to as Applied Competence, which is a combination of Practical competence, Foundational Competence and Reflexive competence. Practical competence is when learners can demonstrate that they can do something. Foundational competence is when the learners show that they know what and why they are doing it in that particular way and not otherwise. Reflexive competence is referred to when the learners show that they can reflect in and on their actions and are able to apply their practice and knowledge to new situations. In mathematics we should ask ourselves the following questions

Are the students able to demonstrate the mathematical concepts learnt and use them to solve problems in their society?

What are their attitudes and perception towards mathematics?

How can teachers ensure the students form the right mathematical concepts in their minds?

For learners, the assessment should find out how much knowledge, skills and attitudes students have acquired in learning, and how well they can use the knowledge and skills for better life. Doll (1993) points out that in assessing competence based curriculum we need to conceive the curriculum as a conversation between “from” and “towards” and not as a deficit from towards.

Conclusion

The traditional way of learning mathematics has been memorization of rules until you can tackle fixed tasks extremely well. But now we should have the ‘how’, ‘why’ and ‘where’ inclusive in the teaching of mathematics that is new math’s which teach more about the concepts of mathematics by teaching how and where they work. Note that if you know how things work you can often deduce how other thing work and you are also likely to be able to create new things as well.

The mathematics teachers need to be given proper training on competency-based curriculum in all aspects that is teaching and assessment. We know that the students cannot be fully competent without the teachers teaching well. The mode of assessment should focus more on the skills and knowledge attained and not just for the purpose of certification. By the end of the four years or 6 years of secondary level education are the students able to think critically and use the problem-solving approach to solve the problems in the society.

The mathematics can be effective and useful in the future if proper teaching and learning methods are employed. They are key thing that should be observed in order to improve the performance of mathematics and change the attitude of people in mathematics education. Teaching and learning mathematics should be made pleasurable by being more creative to use the local facilities we have in the classroom. We learn better by seeing than just hearing. This will also help to simplify the language used in mathematics. For example when teaching circumference the teacher should be able to explain what pie (π) means, than just saying $\text{pie} = 22/7$ or 3.1. The students should understand the logic behind $22/7$.

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Abbreviations

CBE	Competency –based education
CBA	Competency-based assessment
NVSC	National Volunteer Skills Centre

Retention and Attrition in Academia: A Time-to-event Analysis

By

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Abstract

An abundance of literature exists regarding retention and attrition of teachers in primary and secondary education levels. This however is not the case with regards to academic staff in universities. Administrative records of 1,486 academic staff recruited at Makerere University in the period 1987–2012 provide a basis for making an assessment of this issue. Duration of university service was modeled in the analysis by characteristics of academic staff (age, gender, and marital status), discipline area, academic qualifications and rank using a Cox regression. In the results, a median duration of service among staff who left the University by December 2012 (4.56 years, range 0.22-23.32) confirms arguments of low retention of academia. Low retention in university service was more likely among young academic staff, those at lower academic ranks and staff with high academic qualifications at the time of recruitment. The findings demonstrate similarities in retention and attrition of teachers in primary, secondary and university levels.

Keywords: Employee Retention and attrition, Academic Staff, Makerere University

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Keneth Muhwezi, Robert Wamala & Leonard K. Atuhaire (2013). Retention and Attrition in Academia: A Time-to-event Analysis. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

For any organization to thrive, retaining and maintaining staff is essential because they are considered a valuable asset to an organization (Harting, 2010; Tettey, 2010). Undesirable employee turnover is associated with both recruitment and fresher training costs; it also creates an additional burden on the existing staff. Thus, Harting's (2010) argument of inefficiency at work due to undesirable employee turnover is highly supported. In the literature, retention in academia has been attributed to a combination of factors comprising, although not limited to: (i) benefits (e.g., Giles, 2004; Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens, & Weale, 2005; Muceke, Iravo, & Namusonge, 2012; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005); (ii) socio-demographic characteristics of teaching staff (e.g., Luekens, Lyter, & Fox, 2004; Roessler, 2002); (iii) remuneration (e.g., Amutuhair, 2011; Aswathappa, 2005; Giles, 2004; Kanamwangi, 2005; MUASA, 2003; Roessler, 2002; Tettey, 2010); and (iv) academic qualification and/or rank (Mamdan, 2007). In addition, motivators such as recognition at work and symbolic rewards play a critical role in enhancing employee intentions to stay (Giles, 2004). Although all employees value money, these non-monetary rewards are a great motivator to ensure retention.

Academic institutions in Uganda are not immune to staff turnover. At Makerere University particularly, attracting and retaining staff was listed as a major challenge in its 2008 annual report (Makerere University, 2008, 2009). Evidence from Ssesanga and Garrett (2005), Xiaoyang (2004), as well as Shicherman (2005) does not reveal otherwise regarding job retention at the university; these studies reveal a setback in job retention among the teaching staff. This evidence does not augur well for the university's vision of being a leading institution of academic excellence and innovation in Africa. In other words, the university's excellence will in part depend on staff it is able to recruit and retain in its academic units particularly. Persistence of this situation is certain to affect the learning outcomes (NCHE, 2004) among other aspects. Although literature points to low job retention of teaching staff at Makerere University (e.g., Amutuhair, 2011; Makerere University, 2008; Shicherman, 2005; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Xiaoyang, 2004), these do not provide any statistics to support their claims. These studies provide no assessment of the duration and pattern of service at the university. In addition, these studies are limited in scope and coverage. Certainly, this leaves a lot unanswered with regard to staff retention, particularly among academic staff at the university. This study provides an assessment of the duration, pattern, and rate of service of the academic staff. The investigations in this study cut across all the academic units at the university.

Data and methods

The assessment is based on the administrative records of 1,486 academic staff at the university, recruited in the period 1987–2012. The data was extracted from the Integrated Tertiary System (ITS), an information system used by the university at the time of data compilation (December, 2012). In particular, the data was obtained from two main sub-systems of the IT'S, namely the Human Resource Information System (HURIS) and the Financial Management Information System (FINIS). For the investigations, the period from the date of first appointment to the date of exit from the university service was adopted as a measure of service duration. In light of the right-skewed nature of service duration, a time-to-event approach in a Cox-Proportional Hazard model was adopted in the investigation. The analysis was done in three stages:

1. A descriptive summary of the duration and status of service at the university was made using summary statistics and frequency distributions, respectively. Furthermore, the probability of service to the university, which is the persistence function, is determined using the Kaplan-Meier (1958) estimator.
2. Differentials in persistence of academic staff by their characteristics (academic rank, discipline area, marital status, academic qualification, gender, and age) were investigated using the log-rank chi-square test (Mantel, 1966; Peto, 1972).
3. The Cox PH Regression was adopted to investigate the rate of exit from university service. However, only variables that yielded a small probability value (0.25 or less) in the analysis using the log-rank test were considered for further investigation in a multivariate Cox PH model (Hosmer, Lemeshow, & May, 2008).

Results

The academic staff examined in the study is characterized as predominantly male (72.9%), recruited into science disciplines (65.3%), and married (61.2%). The highest proportion of the staff at recruitment was of assistant lecturers (36.9%), followed by lecturers (28.3%), senior lectures (12.6%), and teaching assistants (11.9%), while the rest were associate professors and professors. Regarding academic qualifications, slightly more than half (53.0%) had a master's degree at the time of recruitment; the rest had either a doctorate (28.4%) or a bachelor's degree (18.6%). The vast majority (85.7%) were recruited into the university service below the age of 40.

Duration of Service

In light of the skewed nature of the service duration, the assumed normality of the variable would be unrealistic. All the same, the variable does not span the entire real line. Thus, the variable was subjected to the Shapiro-Wilk non-normality test (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). The normality assumption was violated in the assessment of the entire dataset ($N = 1,486$; $p < 0.01$) and the analysis based on academic staff who had left the university's service at the time of the study ($N = 213$; $p < 0.01$). The evidence certainly disqualifies the application of OLS following a linear regression to analyze such data, despite the fact that it can be used to deal with right-censoring – censored normal. In other words, the application of a time-to-event approach in the analysis is highly supported. To this end, Tables 1 and 2 present a descriptive summary of the duration and pattern of service, respectively.

Table 1: Descriptive Summary of the Duration of Service (Years)

N	Min	Max	Median	Std. Err	95% CI (Median)	
					Lower	Upper
213	0.22	23.32	4.56	0.75	3.61	6.66

Note: Summary statistics are based on staff who had left the university for reasons other than retirement or death

Table 2: Pattern of Retention of Academic Staff

Interval (Years)		Total ^a	Leaving ^b	Censored ^c	Retention Function	Std. Error
0	1	1,486	44	103	0.9693	0.0046
1	2	1,339	24	68	0.9515	0.0057
2	3	1,247	13	89	0.9412	0.0063
3	4	1,145	13	83	0.9301	0.0070
4	5	1,049	15	139	0.9159	0.0078
5	6	895	8	58	0.9074	0.0083
6	7	829	5	134	0.9015	0.0086
7	8	690	11	54	0.8865	0.0096
8	9	625	9	51	0.8732	0.0104
9	10	565	6	25	0.8637	0.0110
10	11	534	7	51	0.8518	0.0117
11	12	476	10	38	0.8332	0.0129
12	13	428	4	49	0.8249	0.0134
13	14	375	7	46	0.8085	0.0145
14	15	322	9	16	0.7854	0.0160
15	16	297	7	11	0.7665	0.0171
16	17	279	4	36	0.7547	0.0178
17	18	239	7	42	0.7305	0.0195
18	19	190	4	25	0.7140	0.0207
19	20	161	2	33	0.7042	0.0216
20	21	126	1	30	0.6978	0.0223
21	22	95	1	29	0.6892	0.0236
22	23	65	1	21	0.6765	0.0264
23	24	43	1	17	0.6569	0.0321
24	25	25	0	13	0.6569	0.0321
25	26	12	0	12	0.6569	0.0321

^a Denotes academic staff recruited in the period 1987–2012

^b Denotes academic staff leaving university service for reasons other than retirement or death

^c Denotes academic staff who are still in the university service at the time of the study

Of the 1,486 staff recruited during the period 1987–2012, a total of 213 had left the service by the time of the study, representing a 14.3% attrition rate. According to Table 2, the one-year attrition rate of the university staff is 3% (N = 44); the two-year and three-year rates are 4.6% (N = 68) and 5.5% (N = 81), respectively. Based on the total number of academic staff who had left the university by the time of the study (N = 213), the median duration of service is 4.56 years (range, 0.22–23.32). The findings point to a low retention of academia at the university.

Rate of Exit from University Service

As stated earlier, the rate of exit from the university was modeled in a multivariate analysis using a Cox-PH regression. Although the variables discipline area, marital status, and gender yielded large probability values during the log-rank test ($p > 0.25$), these variables were incorporated in the analysis at the multivariate stage because of their relative importance in the literature. Table 3 represents an assessment of the rate of exit from university service based on the Cox PH regression; a summary of the findings follows the table.

Table 3: Rate of Exit from University Service

Staff Characteristics	β	HR(95% CI) ^a	Std. Err	p-value
Rank				
Associate Professor and above [†]	.	1	.	.
Senior Lecturer	0.644	1.903 (1.102-3.286)	0.530	0.021
Lecturer	0.548	1.729 (1.012-2.956)	0.473	0.045
Assistant Lecturer	1.234	3.435 (1.769-6.670)	1.163	0.000
Teaching Assistant	2.847	17.229 (7.005-42.375)	7.911	0.000
Discipline				
Sciences [†]	.	1	.	.
Arts	-0.208	0.812 (0.588-1.121)	0.134	0.206
Gender				
Male [†]	.	1	.	.
Female	0.012	1.012 (0.712-1.438)	0.181	0.947
Marital Status				
Married [†]	.	1	.	.
Not Married	-0.235	0.791 (0.553-1.130)	0.144	0.198
Academic Qualification				
Doctor of Philosophy [†]	.	1	.	.
Masters	-0.184	0.832 (0.560-1.235)	0.168	0.361
Bachelors	-0.390	0.677 (0.310-1.478)	0.270	0.032
Age				
40 Years and above [†]	.	1	.	.
33–39 Years	0.492	1.635 (1.010-2.647)	0.402	0.046
29–32 Years	0.836	2.308 (1.378-3.866)	0.609	0.001
Below 29 Years	2.480	11.941 (7.233-19.172)	0.054	0.000

Note: Likelihood Ratio (LR) chi-square = 140.18, $p < 0.001$, $N = 1,443$

[†] Reference category

^a HR (95% CI) represents hazard ratio and corresponding Confidence Interval

Regression Diagnostics

Three diagnostic tests were run. First, the proportionality assumption of the hazards using the Schoenfeld and scaled Schoenfeld residuals and log-log plots were satisfied; the parallel line of the log-log plots suggested that the variables did not violate the proportionality assumption of the Cox model. Second, the specification errors of the link function (log hazard) indicate that the log-hazard function was well-specified, as predicted by the hat statistic ($_hat$: $p < 0.05$). The hat-square statistic ($_hatsq$) reveals that no additional variables were significant ($p > 0.05$), as shown in Table 4. Third, the goodness of fit was evaluated using the Cox-Snell residuals. According to Figure 1, the cumulative hazard function closely followed the 45° line. Thus, the final model fitted the data relatively well.

Table 4: Specification Errors of Link Function

Log Hazard Function	Coefficient	Std. Err	P-value
$_hat$ ^a	1.4861	0.4002	0.000
$_hatsq$ ^b	-0.1316	0.1055	0.212

Note: Specification errors of Cox PH model in Table 2.

^a Hat Statistic
^b Hat-square Statistic

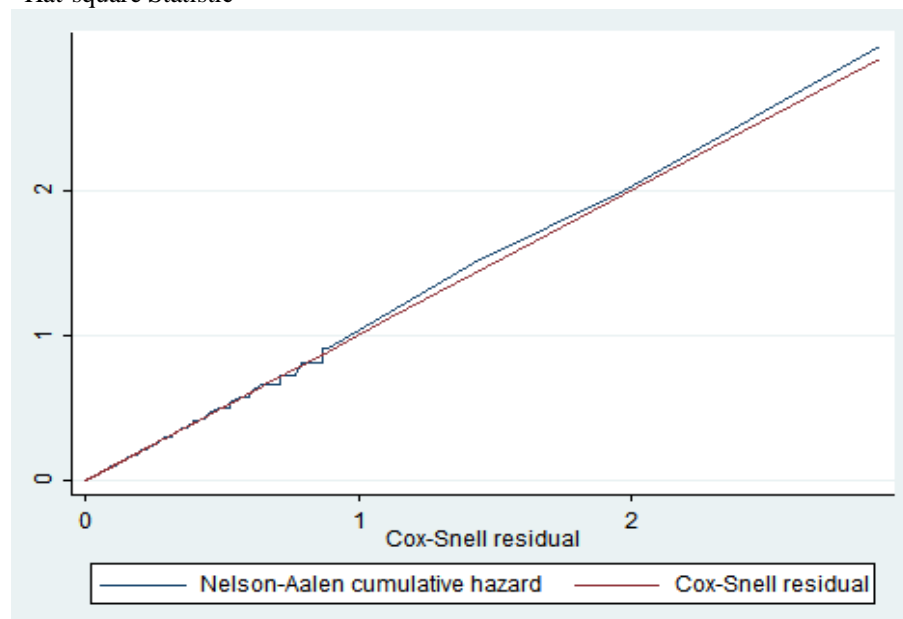


Figure 1: Goodness of Fit of Cox PH Model in Table 3

Summary of the Findings

The results presented in Table 2 indicate that rank, academic qualification, and age were significantly associated with the duration of service ($p < 0.05$). These findings are summarized below:

The rate of exit from university service reduces with higher academic ranks at the time of recruitment. This rate was the highest among academic staff at the rank of teaching assistant (HR = 17.2) and lowest among the lecturers (HR = 1.7), as compared to staff at the rank of associate professor and above.

Academic staff with a bachelor's degree at the time of recruitment had a 32% reduced rate of exit from university service compared to those with a doctorate (HR = 0.67).

The rate of exit from university service reduces with an increase in age at the time recruitment. The rate was highest among academic staff below the age of 29 (HR = 11.9) and lowest in the category 33–39 (HR = 1.6), as compared to those above 40 years of age.

Conversely, gender, marital status, and discipline area did not vary significantly by duration of service ($p > 0.05$). In other words, the duration of service of academic staff at the university did not vary significantly by these variables.

Discussion

The overall turnover rate of academic staff (14.0%) in the results points to a low retention of academic staff at the university. The figure presented for the one-year turnover rate of staff at the university (3%) does not show otherwise. However, the one-year turnover rate of staff at the university compares favorably with estimates reported among staff in selected universities in the developed countries. Harrigan (1999) reports the following one-year turnover rates among universities in the United States of American in 1996: 4.9% at Cornell University, 4% at University of Iowa, 5.4% at University of Minnesota, 5.5% at Ohio State University, and 5.9% at University of Wisconsin-Madison. In the United Kingdom, Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens, and Weale (2005) report an annual turnover ranging between 2.8 and 5.3 percent. An assessment of the duration of service for academic staff who had left the university by the time of the study (N= 213) does not reveal otherwise with regards to job retention at the university. In the results, the median duration of service is 4.56 years (range, 0.22–23.32). The situation is made worse by the academic staff shortfall of 41% reported in the university's Strategic Plan 2000/01–2004/5 (Makerere University, 2009). Recent evidence published by The Independent presents a staff deficit of 49% according to findings by the office of the auditor general (Asinja, 2012). In affirming the magnitude of staffing problems at Makerere University, Tettey (2006, 2010) reports deficits of 54%, 57%, 62%, and 62% in the School of Public Health, Medical School, East African School of Library and Information Science, and Institute of Psychology, respectively. These deficits demonstrate a large gap in the university's human resource capacity and consequently point to a low ability of the existing academic staff to carry out research and teaching responsibilities (Tettey, 2010). In light of the staffing capacity deficit in the university's academic units, Mugimu et al.'s (2009) argument of a heavy teaching and supervisory workload for teaching staff at the university is highly supported. In other words, academic staff growth has not matched student enrollment growth at the university (Tettey, 2010). Likewise, many African Universities have experienced a significant growth in student enrollment over the past decade (Tettey, 2010). Certainly, it would not be a surprise to find that the academic staff in these institutions is facing a heavy teaching and supervisory workload as well. To this end, Wamala and Ssembatya (2013) are justified in attributing the low scholarly productivity of academia in Uganda to the heavy teaching and supervisory workload. A similar explanation is likely to hold for the low scholarly productivity of academia in many other African institutions of higher learning.

In the multivariate assessment, the rate of exit from the university service was significantly higher for staff with lower academic ranks and ages at the time of recruitment. The lower academic ranks of exiting staff points to an undesirable withdrawal of these individuals from university service. From the short duration of service (4.56 years) estimated in the results, it is clear that a large number of staff exiting from the university are young academic staff. These findings are in line with Amutuhaire's (2011) study that suggested a reduced rate of leaving university service among academic staff with higher ranks. The fact that salary scales are based on one's academic rank lends credence to the argument of poor remuneration being a key factor for staff turnover at the university (e.g., Tettey, 2008; Mugimu, Nakabugo, & Katunguka, 2007). The situation with regards to remuneration and/or welfare is likely to be much worse for staff at the lower ranks. It is no surprise that the results of this study reveal higher rates of exit from the

university among academic staff at the lower ranks and those younger in age at the time of recruitment.

With regards to gender, the results of this study revealed no significant variations in the rate of exit from the university's service ($p > 0.05$). A related assessment of intentions to stay in service among academic staff at Makerere University (Amutuhaire, 2011) supports these findings; no significant difference in intentions to continue lecturing between male and female academic staff at the university. However, the findings run counter to the evidence provided by Luekens et al. (2004), Boyd et al. (2002), and Ingersoll (2001) that identified gender as a predictor of time spent in teaching service. These studies reveal a higher likelihood of staying in service for the males compared to the females. With regards to age, the consensus is that the rate of exit from service increases with age (e.g., Hanushek, Kain & Rivkin, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001). The assessment by Murnane et al. (1991) regarding gender and age revealed that female teachers over the age of 30 were more likely to stay than the younger teachers of either gender.

In summary, the findings of this study point to a need to step-up measures to retain academic staff at the lower levels. This is because academic staff at the lower ranks constitutes a pool from which the future generation of academics will be drawn. In other words, retaining staff at the lower ranks is important for the university in achieving its goal of becoming a leading institution for academic excellence and innovation in Africa.

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Higher Education Teaching, Risks and Ethical Basis for Resilience in Developing Countries

By
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Abstract

The paper argues the thesis that the tertiary education teacher in a developing country owes the society an ethical obligation, which constitutes a fundamental basis for resilience in the face of the risks/ dangers he/ she faces in the course of discharging his/her duties. His calling and orientation demand not only that he should make a success of his teaching career, but also that his efforts should have an impact on society to liberate such a society from educational, socio-economic, political, scientific and technological backwardness. Teaching is regarded as one of the least hazardous jobs. This is because the teacher is not exposed to the type of hazards his industrial counterparts are prone to. However, while it is true that the teacher is not exposed to exactly the same hazards his counterpart in the industry is exposed to, he/she is prone to other forms of risks which threaten his or her career. These risks emanate from students, school authorities, government, and society at large. The propensity of these risks is higher in tertiary institutions where the students are already adults, and the interaction between the town and the gown is pronounced. Despite these risks, the tertiary education teacher ought to be exemplary in the discharge of his duties. It is only through this that he/she can develop in-built machinery for resilience. The paper is an exposition of the risks involved in tertiary education teaching in developing countries and how to overcome them through commitment to ethical practices.

Keywords; technological backwardness, socio-economic, political, developing country

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Samuel Babatunde Jegede (2013). Higher Education Teaching, Risks and Ethical Basis for Resilience in Developing Countries. *Kenya Studies Review*, Volume 6, Number 3.

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Introduction

Higher education teaching, though not prone to the same hazards which other professions are prone to, has its own peculiar types of hazards or risks. These risks threaten the career of the higher education teacher and teaching as much as the hazards in other professions threaten the careers of his counterparts in those professions. This paper is an exposition of the hazards or risks the higher education teacher and teaching are exposed to. The aim of the study is to encourage resilience on the part of higher education teachers especially in developing countries with peculiar problems. An analysis of these risks will not only show their nature and scope, but will also guide the teacher in either forestalling those risks that could be forestalled or facing squarely those that should be faced. The awareness of these risks, in our thinking constitutes a basis for the need to prepare for them and tackle them if and when they confront the tertiary education teacher. The paper presents the empirical experiences of the higher education teacher in an expository manner, using experiences drawn largely from Nigeria but not limited to the country. The work is divided into five parts, each dovetailing into the other to make a complete work. Part one, the current part summarizes the content of the work. The second part examines what this work refers to as higher education and its teaching. The third part examines the risks involved in higher education teaching while part four takes a look at ethical commitment as the basis of resilience on the part of the higher education teacher. Part five, the final part, is the conclusion.

Higher Education Teaching

This part of the work takes a look at what constitutes higher education teaching. To do this, a glimpse into the key concepts: education and higher education teaching is essential. The word *education* is coined from the Latin word *educare*- meaning to rear or “bring up the child mentally, physically, socially and otherwise, to a state of maturity and self dependence” (Edeh & Ogbu: 2002:8). However, there is no universally acceptable definition for it as various scholars define it in various ways.

The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 6th edition defines education in the following ways:

1. A process of teaching, training and learning, especially in schools or colleges, to improve knowledge and develop skills.
2. A particular kind of teaching or training.
3. The subject of study that deals with how to teach.
4. An interesting experience that teaches us something
5. The institutions or people involved in teaching and training.

The above attempts at defining education are not only descriptive, but also limit the scope of education. The first definition, for example almost limits education to school/college or formal education. We do know that there is more to education than classroom teaching and learning. There are sages who never went through formal education. If five definitions could emanate from only one source, then, we should be prepared for the plethora of definitions by different scholars. Now, let us consider some individual scholars’ definitions.

R. S. Peters has defined education as a systematic training and instruction geared towards the development of ability, character, physical and mental powers of the individual, through the careful dissemination of knowledge (1980:1). G. F. Kneller defines education as the process by which any society through schools, colleges, universities and other institutions deliberately

transmits its cultural heritage, i.e., its accumulated knowledge, values, skills, from one generation to another (1964:20). G. E. Azenabor (1996:160) defines education as an attempt to make one a cultural member of a society by developing his or her intellectual capacities. Azenabor's definition is evidently in agreement with that of Kneller.

Imelda Wallace, in his work, *Family Life Education* defines education as a process of personal improvement, something which helps develop the innate characteristics of a person. Such a process could be formal or informal. Whichever of the above definitions one subscribes to, it is vital to bear in mind that education is a process. Not only this, "this education process embraces the human person in all of his aspects; it involves the development of a person's freedom and his capacity for love. Freedom is a basic characteristic of the person and love is essentially what makes a person tick" (Ede & Ogbu: 7). The point we try to make here is that whatever training or learning is aimed at gaining pure economic gain, on its own does not constitute education. Education aims at developing the human person, not only for his/her own benefit, out also for the benefit of the society in which he chooses to live, and mankind as a whole. This emphasis on the social significance of education informed the foray of philosophy into education; the emergence of philosophy of education.

Philosophy of education deals with the general theories, character, fundamental questions, problems and the pre-suppositions in the discipline of education. The philosophical input into education is contained in the philosophers' conceptions of what both education and its aims should be. This we shall treat presently.

Beyond occupational training, education seeks to produce human beings who are truly worthy of being called human. Some of the aims of education have been identified as follows:

- (1) To provide men and women with a minimum of the skills necessary to them to (a) take their place in the society (b) seek further knowledge.
- (2) To provide them with a vocational training that will enable them to be self-supporting.
- (3) To awaken an interest in them and a taste for knowledge.
- (4) To make them critical.
- (5) To put them in touch with, and train them to appreciate the cultural and moral achievements of mankind (O'Connor: 1967:2)

Plato's aim of education is to produce virtuous men and women who shall ensure justice in the society. Following in the footsteps of his mentor, Socrates, Plato subscribes to the dictum "knowledge is virtue". Citizens must be trained to know the good so that they would be guided by the good in their actions towards their fellow citizens and the society. Education therefore aims at education of virtues: an education which should aim at purging unnecessary desires.

Aristotle sees the aim of education as one which enables a person to form reasonable judgments of goodness or badness. He shares Plato's view that justice is essential in society and that "justice and human well-being require systematic educational efforts to make citizens virtuous and to create social unity" (Curren R: 1998:224). For St. Augustine, the aims of education are: (1) to enable men and women know God and (2) to guide their conduct. Martin Luther followed up Augustine's aims of education by translating the scriptures and promoting universal, publicly funded elementary education so that the common people might have access to education. Descartes sees universal wisdom as the greatest good and proper aim of education. Locke, on his part, insists that the fundamental and humanizing goal of education is the development of

rational abilities and the habits of doubt, reflection and foresight required to form children into adults who will judge and act according to the dictates of reason. Rousseau locates the aim of education in the preservation of human nature, i.e., freedom and goodness. John Dewey's aim of education follows his pragmatist philosophy. Education should aim at maximizing the growth and harmony of society. With the above insight into what education and its aims are, we may now look at higher education and its teaching.

In conventional parlance, higher education refers to post secondary school education. However, this conventional view of higher education is too limited for the purpose of this paper. This is because of our observation that at some levels of post secondary education, education recipients are neither purged of childish desires nor are they fully prepared for the responsibilities conferred on them by their education. It is in this regard that we adopt the philosophical conception of higher education.

In Protagoras, Plato advocates that men and women should take charge of their souls rather than entrust same into anybody's hands. To take charge of one's own soul goes beyond occupational education. There is a distinction between habitual virtue of good or obedient citizens and true virtue which involves intellectual insight and sound judgment. Here, that education which teaches virtue of good or obedient citizens represents basic education while that which involves intellectual insight and sound judgments represents higher education. Plato's follow-up to *The Republic*, *Laws* says this much.

According to Randell R. Curren (1998:224). Plato's *Laws* describe a city which resembles that of the Republic in aiming at the virtue and happiness of all citizens, but is quite unlike it in being a constitutional rule of law grounded in reason and informed consent. An education regarding a constitutional rule of law grounded in reason and informed consent is quite advanced to the one which teaches letters, music and gymnastics. Before Plato, the Sophists had brought higher education to Athens by offering political leadership training to those who aspired to political offices. This type of higher education was branded *arête* (the goodness, excellence or virtue required for success). For the purpose of this paper, we take higher education as a symbiosis of the conventional and the philosophical conceptions. *Higher education, therefore, is post secondary education which prepares the recipient with appropriate skills and virtues required for his/her success and that of the society.*

Teaching at such level of education requires that those who are trusted with molding the students must be masters of themselves before they can be masters of others. Academic prowess, profundity alone does not suffice for teaching at such a level. There must be other considerations: the teacher must become a philosopher king, an epitome of morality for there to be justice in higher education. This is because there are lots of risks involved in higher education teaching which are not present in teaching at the lower level. In what follows, we examine those risks.

Risks in Higher Education Teaching

This part of the paper deals with practical experiences in higher education teaching which constitutes risks or hazards to the teacher. Examples of such risks are drawn largely from Nigeria, West Africa not because they are limited to that part of the world, but to generate

responses and compare notes with colleagues from other parts of the world. Thematically speaking, these risks include: corruptibility, school authority high handedness, and resultant effects of undemocratic regimes/absence of good governance, among others. We begin with the risks posed to higher education teaching by corruption.

Corruption has been variously defined. The World Bank sees it as follows: "Corruption involves behaviour on the part of officials in the sector, whether politicians or civil servants in which they improperly and unlawfully enrich themselves, or those close to them by the misuse of the public power entrusted to them" (Arreshidze: 2003). This definition is not all encompassing because it views corruption from the top. Corruption occurs at all levels of the hierarchy of society. This position is in agreement with C.S. Momoh's assertion that:

The first individual involved in a corrupt practice is the one who accepts something in the form of cash, presents, gifts or bodily pleasures in order to perform an act... The second individual is the one who gives something in the form of cash, presents, gifts or bodily pleasures in order to induce the performance of an act (1991:115)

Momoh's definition or description takes into cognizance that corruption exists at all strata of society. Not only this, it shows clearly that corruption often, but not always, involves two or more parties. In view of the above, we define corruption as "*inducement or soliciting to be induced to perform or omit to perform a lawful obligation and a conversion of appreciation to cash, material or bodily pleasures or favour*" (Jegade S. B.:113). This definition would enable us to view corruption both from top and from bottom. This way, we would be able to see clearly how corruption constitutes a risk to the higher education teacher and teaching. Developing countries, sometimes referred to as underdeveloped countries, are so called because of the lack or absence of some basic necessities and infrastructure. We shall limit our discussion, here, to the lack in the education sector which has the resultant effect of corruption.

One of the characteristics of underdeveloped countries is the struggle for scarce resources. Higher education is underfunded in most third world countries. The consequences of this include (1) inadequate number of higher institutions (2) inadequacy of facilities in existing institutions. The inadequacy in the number of higher institutions in developing countries is well represented in the case of Nigeria. Nigeria, with a population of over one hundred and forty million has only eighty-three universities, half of which are owned by private interests. In a country where most people survive on less than two dollars a day, a vast majority of Nigerians cannot afford to send their children to the private universities which charge between two thousand and three thousand dollars per student per session. With this situation, millions of eligible candidates are left at the mercy of the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board, authorities of the few institutions, and the government. The situation is worse in the Polytechnics and Colleges of Education as they have received minimal private interest and investment.

With this situation, prospective students, and sometimes their parents, resort to all manners of approach, first, to gain admission and then, to sustain themselves in the institution. They employ all means possible to induce anybody whom they imagine could help their ambition. In my own University, most of the visitors I have are those who come to me during the admission process; I receive the highest number of phone calls during the same period. Parents offer all sorts of things because they believe I could influence the admission process. Unfortunately, the African hospitality does not allow one to shut his /her door in their faces!

The developing countries place emphasis on certificates. Therefore, for a student to have any hope of gainful employment after his/her higher education, he/she must be seen to have recorded

good grades in school, even if he/she did not earn same. Consequently, some students, male and female, resort to inducing the teacher for unearned marks. While the male do this through offers including gifts such as money, clothing materials and car tyres, their female counterparts seek to get what they want, using what they have.

High handedness on the part of school- departmental, faculty/ college and central- authorities is another source of danger for higher education teaching. Not only are some of these officials high handed, they sometimes display nepotism and unleash vendetta on the teacher. The situation is worse in societies polarized by ethnicity and religion. Government intolerance is another headache for higher education teaching. In most developing countries where good governance is lacking and opposition is silenced, the higher institutions become some of the vital rallying points for discussions on national issues. As a result of this, many higher education teachers, who, by virtue of their enlightenment, are not expected to keep quiet in the face of poor governance, become victims of government intolerance. Under this circumstance, both the teacher and higher education teaching suffer the dire consequences, since these people are products of long periods of training, often at the expense of the tax payer. The recently concluded case of the University of Ilorin lecturers in Nigeria is a reference point. The forty-nine lecturers were sacked in year 2001 for participating in a nationwide industrial strike called by the Academic Staff Union of Nigerian Universities (ASUU). All pleas for the reinstatement of these lecturers fell on deaf ears. Reprieve only came their way on June 12, 2009 when the Supreme Court ruled that they were unlawfully sacked and should therefore, be reinstated and paid their entitlements to date.

Ethical Commitment as the Basis of Resilience

In the light of the aforementioned risks, what then is the basis for the teacher's resilience? Is it to be located in patriotism, religion or pity? Our answer is No. No, not because there are no grounds for the consideration of any or a combination of these, but because there is a better alternative which encompasses all these and more. This alternative is ethical commitment to society. One who is committed to ethical practices does not have to be blindly patriotic, religious or give in to sentiments. The higher education teacher cannot attain his position in isolation of other people and the institutions of society. Moreover, having crossed the bridge to the other side, it is morally wrong for him to deny others access to it by throwing in the towel simply because of obstacles which he can overcome by being morally upright.

J.I. Omoregbe (2006:26) examines why man should live a moral life and concludes that:

1. You must live a moral life because God has commanded you to do so.
2. You must live a moral life because you are a social being.
3. You must live a moral life because you are a rational being.
4. It is path to happiness.
5. The law of nemesis demands that you do so.
6. It is the way of nature.

An examination of these reasons shows that they are applicable to our study, with the exception of the first one, i.e. that you must live a moral life because God has commanded you to do so. This we have already rejected elsewhere in this paper

Conclusion

Higher education teaching, like all professions, has its hazards which threaten, not only the career of the teacher, but also higher education itself. These hazards or risks stem from corruption, high handedness on the part of school authorities and government intolerance in developing countries. The teacher must be resilient in the face of these because he/she owes society the ethical obligation of leading the youths out of darkness. Ethical commitment to his job and society forms the bedrock of resilience in higher education teaching in developing countries.

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